AN APPRAISAL OF NEEDS OF AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOL-AGED STUDENTS ATTENDING SELECTED OVERSEAS SCHOOLS

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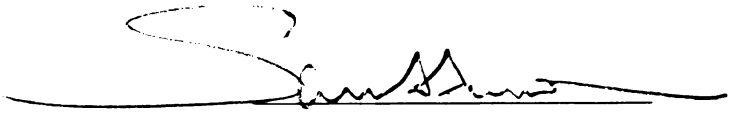

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ABSTRACT

AN APPRAISAL OF NEEDS OF AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOL-AGED STUDENTS ATTENDING SELECTED OVERSEAS SCHOOLS

By

Thomas Francis Kelly

More than 300,000 American school-aged children live beyond the boundaries of the United States. Many of them are there as a result of their parents' assignment to an overseas job. The children attend a variety of schools that include those administered by the United States Department of Defense, multi-national corporations, missionary groups, proprietary or private interests, host country governments and, finally, those 139 schools assisted by the Office of Overseas Schools (A/OS)[1] of the United States Department of State.

The author of this study concerned himself with students attending the latter schools. During the 1974-5 school year, 73,940 students attended A/OS-assisted schools--an increase of 62 percent over a ten year period. Of that total, 35,131 (47.5 percent) were United States citizens. The schools are operated to meet the needs of the attending Americans. But just what are their needs?

It was not the author's intent to evaluate the schools nor their operation, but rather to use them as a convenient medium for

conducting the study. Using the five geographic regions of the world as defined by A/OS, i.e., Europe, Africa, Near East/South Asia, East Asia, and Central/South America, four schools were selected from each region. The schools chosen represented those with the largest and smallest enrollments as well as those that fell evenly between--at approximately the twenty-fifty and seventy-fifth percentiles. Respondents selected were the chief school administrators; chairman of boards of education; presidents of parent organizations; presidents of teacher associations; and senior students who were class or student body presidents.

A list of needs, based on Phi Delta Kappa's eighteen goals and objectives of education, was amplified by overseas educators to include a dimension that was believed to be unique to overseas students. The resulting document, listing twenty-two needs, was sent to the twenty selected schools where it was distributed to the one hundred respondents. Sixty usable responses were returned.

The respondents were asked to check each need that they felt to be important. Then they were asked to re-read the checked needs and to select those that were of greater importance. This procedure was repeated four times with the result that some needs, not considered important, were not checked; while others, considered of greatest importance, received five checks.

The needs as rated were ranked by mean score. General concurrence of ranking among groups resulted. A multivariate analysis

of variance revealed no significant difference (at alpha = .05) between groups in their ranking. A measurement (obtained by squaring the Spearman rho correlation) between the students and each of the other four groups, revealed that the greatest overlapping of opinion occurred between the students and teachers (59 percent). The least overlapping occurred between the students and administrators (32 percent). All groups ranked as highest those needs classified as academic. The overseas dimension of needs, which had been anticipated to be most important, was ranked lower than the academic, socio-political and personal needs by the adult groups. The students ranked the overseas needs as third after academic and socio-political needs. A one-way analysis of variance for difference among dimensions yielded no significant difference (alpha = .05) between groups.

Using the mean score as a decision point to separate the ranked needs into more and less important groups, there was complete agreement with the placement of the first eight ranked needs in the more important category, although there were certain differences in the priorities within ranks. The need ranked highest was the need to develop good character and self-respect. There was also total agreement with the placement of the last ten needs within the less important category--again, with certain differences in priorities within ranks. Lowest ranked was the need to develop skills to enter a specific field of work.

From the study, the conclusion was reached that there was general agreement in the ranking of needs and that there was no significant difference (alpha = .05) among the selected five groups of overseas school leaders in their rank ordering of a pre-ordained list of American overseas high school student needs.

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[1]Within the table of organization of the United States Department of State, the Office of Overseas Schools is listed as, "Administration/Overseas Schools (A/OS)," hence the terms "Office of Overseas Schools," and "A/OS" are used interchangeably.

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The trouble with custom is that it becomes commonplace, thus losing much of its intended value. Many unseen and often unrecognized contributions add more to a study of this nature than customary participation. Thus, the author acknowledges with gratitude Chairman Moore's opening his home at all odd hours and sharing what should have been his holidays to advise and encourage. Dr. Useem's chance meeting with the author at a conference, along with her enthusiasm and perceptive questioning, led to this study. Dr. Ernest O. Melby, at the last moment, augumented the Committee while Dr. Featherstone was out among the schools like those considered in this study.

Perhaps they considered it routine, but appreciation must be extended to the Michigan State University library staff who always seemed to have time and patience for unusual and unclear requests. They are nameless to me as I am to them, but the essence of their willingness to help lies in the fact that among 40,000 students I always felt my work was most important to them.

May radio station WOOD-FM in Grand Rapids play forever--especially in the lonely hours of the morning when every strikeover on the typewriter is erased by pleasant music.

Finally, Mark, Paul and Sue. Though he was always present, the boys didn't have a dad. Now we will have the time. Words are unnecessary for Sue. She simply knows; she really knows!

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

When the principal wage earners of American families are assigned, by their employers, to work in foreign countries a series of familial adjustments and accommodations must take place--not the least of which is the education of school-aged children. The author of this study sought to appraise the needs of American high school-aged adolescents who, as a result of their families' move, find themselves attending an American-sponsored overseas school.

Compulsory education laws in the United States imply that the compelled shall have an educational program, if not a school, available to them. Each of the fifty states is responsible for the implementation of whatever educational programs are necessitated by adherence to their concept of compulsory attendance. The states, except Hawaii, delegate their authority through the medium of county, city, or community (local school district) organizational units. Each unit, in its own way, sets about defining how it shall meet the needs of the compelled.

The organizational pattern by which the state diffuses and assigns responsibility to the individual school would appear, on the surface, to be an ideal manner in which to assure educational progress. Conflict demonstrates differently. Not that conflict is bad, nor that

progress cannot occur concurrently with conflict, but the concern remains as to whether harmony might not allow for better educational progress. The least that may be said for the system is that it is there--it does provide a base, a forum, from which ideas may be generated. It allows, for example, for a systemized organization and search for an appropriate approach designed to define student needs. Someone can also be held accountable when needs are neither defined nor met.

But what if no such system exists? Seeking one answer to that question is what this study is about. Outside the boundaries of the fifty states, there are more than 300,000 school-aged American children.[1] No law compells their school attendance. The agencies employing the students' parents, in the interest of the agencies' continuance, must assume a degree of responsibility ordinarily reserved for civic authorities. Schools are established to fulfill that responsibility but there is no organizational structure patterned after the models of the various states to account for how the schools operate. In the absence of such an educational authority, this study was designed to investigate one segment of that overseas school-aged population--the American youth attending 20 of the 139 schools assisted by the Office of Overseas Schools (A/OS) of the United States Department of State, in an effort to describe their needs.

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[1]Ruth Hill Useem, "Third Culture Children: An Annotated Bibliography," Studies of Third Culture A Continuing Series. (Institute for International Studies in Education, Michigan State University, 1975), p. i.

While some researchers have studied the administrative functions of these schools, no evidence has been found that the students themselves have been studied. Instead of adding to the accumulating knowledge about the operation of the schools, it was the author's intent to look at the needs of the students in the hope that, once identified, the listed needs could help in decision-making and future-planning.

Though not directing its attention specifically at youth but more at the total educational enterprise, the House of Representatives demonstrated its genuine concern when, for just one example, on Saturday, May 7, 1970, the Honorable Alphonso Bell, a member of the House Sub-Committee on Education, inquiring into, "The Needs of Elementary and Secondary Education for the Seventies," introduced to the committee members the final witness of the day, Mr. Mel Suhd of the faculty of Pacific Oaks College:

> Mr. Suhd. Thank you. If I may proceed in any way I like, I would like to share two reactions I have. First, it is tough to be last, because it is 5 o'clock on a Saturday and you must be tired.
>
> Mr. Bell. You just take your time.
>
> Mr. Suhd. And I just wonder if you have the guts to generate another half hour. And second, I really get a feeling that I don't want to be a politician, because I could not sit and listen to the variety of thoughts, ideas, and actions that people have regarding a subject like education and pull it together in some way that would satisfy constituents or representatives in this pluralistic society.[2]

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[2]U.S. Congress. House. Committee on Education and Labor. Needs of Elementary and SEcondary Education for the Seventies Hearings before the General Subcommittee on Education. 91st Congress, 1st sess., 1969, p. 1298.

Earlier in the day, the Honorable Roman C. Pucinski, the Sub-Committee Chairman had observed:

> We have a tendency of working ourselves into corners. It becomes popular to talk about accountability and everybody is talking about accountability, and all of a sudden you discover nobody knows what they are talking about; yet it has profound effect on legislation.[3]

The introduction of this research project is begun in this manner to enable, in an analogous way, the making of several observations.

1. A Congressional Sub-Committee was sufficiently concerned about the educational needs of American youth that it willingly worked late on a spring Saturday in hopes of being able "to determine what are the educational needs of the 1970's, in the opinion of the people who know the problems best."[4]

2. Assessment of needs is complex as attested to by the fact that the Committee received policy papers,

> . . . prepared at the invitation of the Sub-Committee by a distinguished group of people of more than 100 university faculty members and administrators, industrialists and businessmen, journalists, social philosophers, professional educators, educational researchers, scientists, and other prominent citizens from every part of the United States, reflecting perhaps every shade of opinion about education . . . . This collection of papers represents perhaps the most extensive survey of educational needs of the seventies that has been attempted to date.[5]

3. Consensus is hard to achieve because there is such wide diversity of opinion.

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[3]Ibid., p. 1287 [4]Ibid., p. 1.

[5]Ibid., p. v.

4. When using the word, "needs," as in Pucinski's statement about accountability, it is all of a sudden discovered that, "nobody knows what they are talking about."[6]

Purpose

The author's purposes in this study were to establish a useable description of the term, "needs," and then to determine what those needs might be for American high school-aged students attending selected overseas schools that receive assistance from A/OS. Other purposes were:

1. to provide information about how certain specific groups in selected overseas school communities view the needs of the high school-attending youth;
2. to establish a data base which might be used by schools, parents, and sponsoring agencies in their decision-making processes related to students;
3. to add to the fund of knowledge of a segment of American youth about whom little research has been undertaken; and
4. to establish areas for further study.

Need for the Study

Alvin Toffler, in his book, Future Shock[7] devotes his fifth chapter to describing what he calls, "The New Nomads." Among other thoughts, he points out:

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[6]Ibid.

[7]Alvin Toffler, Future Shock. (New York: Bantam Books, Inc., 1970), pp. 74-94.

> We are witnessing a historic decline in the significance of place to human life. We are breeding a new race of nomads, and few suspect quite how massive, widespread and significant their migrations are . . . (p. 75).
>
> In each year since 1948 one out of five Americans changed his address . . . (p. 78).
>
> . . . top management regards frequent relocation of its potential successors as a necessary step in their training. (p. 82).
>
> . . . throughout the nations in transition to superindustrialism, among the people of the future, movement is a way of life, a liberation from the constrictions of the past, a step into the still more affluent future. (p. 87).
>
> . . . relocation of one's home . . . entails a series of difficult psychological adjustments. (p. 88).
>
> Thus, it might be said that commitments are shifting from place-oriented social structures (city, state, nation, or neighborhood) to those (corporation, profession, friendship networks) that are themselves mobile, fluid, and, for all practical purposes, place-less. (p. 93).

Toffler's attempt was to alert his readers to the necessity of preparing for a rapidly approaching future. What he might have observed is that the future, as he depicts it, has already arrived for many of those residing outside the geographic boundaries of their native land. They are actually living the future which Toffler proclaims is on its way. If it is argued that the future may have arrived for some, but not for others, perhaps it can be admitted that the youth of today who are residing overseas, albeit "temporarily," are the harbingers of Toffler's future. Their lives may be more in accord with his projections than they are parallel to their peers residing in the United States. It may be inappropriate to refer to them as "typical American kids." Their lifestyle makes them atypical.

They are sufficiently different that Useem has coined the phrase, "Third Culture Kids" (TCKs),[8] in an attempt to explain their uniqueness. She proposes that continued absence from their native environment alienates them from their basic culture, while temporary residence in other lands does not allow them to adopt nor adapt to the cultures in which they reside. The result is that the overseas youth constitute a group unto themselves--a group existing in what Toffler calls a state of "transience," which he defines as, "the rate of turnover of the different kinds of relationships in an individual's life."[9]

The question immediately arises that if these youth are different in some way from their Stateside counterparts, are their needs different? Are traditional methods of socializing, child-rearing and education appropriate for their up-bringing? Werkman raised this point when he warned of the potential dangers inherent in raising children in the overseas setting.[10]

The difficulty heretofore has been that researchers attempting to analyze the American-assisted overseas schools have devoted

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[8]Ruth Hill Useem, "Third Culture Factors in Educational Change," in Cole S. Brembeck and Walker H. Hill, Cultural Challenges to Education: The Influence of Cultural Factors in School Learning. (Lexington, Mass.: D. C. Heath, 1973), p. 121.

[9]Toffler, Future Shock, p. 46.

[10]Sidney Werkman, "Hazards of Rearing Children in Foreign Countries." Address before the American Psychiatric Association, Washington, D. C., 3 May 1971.

their efforts to the analysis of problems related to either the programs or the staffs of the schools, but not to the needs of the students. Thus, Mannino[11] proposed a system for improving the support given to the overseas schools. Bentz[12] described how administrators must work in the midst of crises. Churchman[13] analyzed the values and faults of the School-to-School partnerships. Vest[14] and Schackow[15] studied selected personality characteristics of overseas schools' teachers and administrators. King[16] sought to define methods of selecting and recruiting teachers for overseas service.

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[11]Ernest N. Mannino, "The Overseas Education of American Elementary and Secondary Schools Pupils with Application for American-Sponsored Schools Overseas: A Diagnosis and Plan for Action." (Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, 1970).

[12]Carlton Bentz, "The Chief School Administrator in Selected American-Sponsored Schools: A Study in Crisis Management." (Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, 1972).

[13]David Churchman, "A Needs Assessment Evaluation of the School-to-School Program in Europe, The Near East, South Asia and the United States." (Ph.D. dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles, 1972).

[14]Thomas J. Vest, "Selected Personality Characteristics of the Successful Overseas School Administrator." (Ph.D. dissertation, Miami University, 1971).

[15]Carl F. Schackow, "Selected Personality Characteristics of the American Overseas Teacher." (Ph.D. dissertation, Miami University, 1971).

[16]Bob King, "The Recruitment, Selection, and Retention of Teachers for Overseas Schools." (Ph.D. dissertation, Wayne State University, 1968).

Helms[17] solicited patrons' reactions to the schools' operation, while Flora[18] devoted his efforts to examining innovative practices in the overseas schools. Simmons[19] however, demonstrated the similarity of values between Stateside and overseas early-adolescents. He and Werkman appear to have been the only researchers who have concerned themselves with the needs of youngsters, whereas others have concentrated their efforts on the personnel and programs of the schools. Neither the existence of the schools nor their efficacy has yet to be challenged. Nor have researchers sought to examine the clientele and their needs.

To question the existence of the schools might well be only an academic exercise in the face of the fact that "Excluding the several hundred United States Department of Defense schools operated for the children of military personnel assigned abroad, the list compiled by International Schools Services of Princeton, New Jersey, has just over three hundred."[20] Their value can be inferred if for

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[17]V. Donald Helms, "Community Approval and Disapproval of American Overseas School Programs." (Ph.D. dissertation, University of Toledo, 1972).

[18]Ronald Flora, "An Investigation of Innovative Practices in American Overseas Schools." (Ph.D. dissertation, University of Toledo, 1972).

[19]Dale D. Simmons, "Early Adolescent Personal Values in American-Sponsored Extra-Territorial and Stateside Schools." (Eugene, Oregon, 1973). (Mimeographed).

[20]Donald K. Phillips, "Next Stop: Bucaramanga--Or Kuala Lumpur?" in American Education Abroad, ed. William G. Thomas (New York: Macmillan Information, 1974), p. 6.

no other reason than the fact that the nomadic mobility of American parents, especially in the service of the United States Government, usually requires at least a commonality of language. Students cannot reasonably be expected to rotate among schools that demand different basic language proficiencies. This is not to suggest that some other system of education could not be devised, but it is to recognize that matriculation in a school of the host country presents too formidable a barrier to the student who may change residence every two or three years. Thus, the overseas schools as they now exist do serve a vital function.

It seems reasonable to question, however, whether these schools are meeting the needs of American students in attendance. To accomplish that purpose some indication must be found as to what are those needs. Put a different way, Kelly posed the question, "Who's The Kids' Advocate?" He opines that the agencies have established procedures to care for their employees, but not for their dependents for " . . . too often the overseas kid is much the same as baggage; he has to be accounted for and carefully checked, but he is a passive part of the system at a time in his life when he should be learning to assume active responsibility."[21] An assessment of the needs of the students, rather than further investigation of the schools' operation, would appear to be in order.

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[21]Thomas F. Kelly, "Who's The Kids' Advocate?" Foreign Service Journal 50 (September 1973): 18.

Importance of the Study

At least five important effects may result from this study. First, though mobility and a nomadic life are anticipated and accepted by overseas American youth and their parents as part of their job assignment, little information is available about their needs especially as related to overseas residence.

Second, overseas schools' philosophies of education, as well as position descriptions of school personnel, call for their "meeting the needs of the students," e.g., " . . . administer the development of an education program to meet the needs of the students and the community,"[22] but nowhere is there available a statement defining what is meant by "needs."

Third, Mannino recommended an alteration in the United States Department of State's organization that resulted in the establishment of the present structure of the Department's Office of Overseas Schools,[23] but A/OS[24] is unique in its organizational function. While it does provide financial and some educational assistance to the schools, it does not possess the rational-legal authority of the

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[22]American-Nicaraguan School, Position description of the Director, Managua, 1975, p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

[23]Mannino, "Overseas Education of American Elementary and Secondary Pupils."

[24]Within the table of organization of the United States Department of State, the Office of Overseas Schools is listed as, "Administration/Overseas Schools" (A/OS), hence the term "Office of Overseas Schools" and "A/OS" are used interchangeably.

scalar type as described by Weber when he writes of the administrative principle of hierarchy.[25] A/OS does not impinge upon nor direct the educational programs in the 139 schools which come under its purview except to the extent that, to qualify for its financial support, A/OS requires that the schools provide demonstrable evidence that they are meeting, or attempting to meet, American standards. No direct evaluative control is exercised, though in providing financial support to those schools that meet American standards, A/OS may, in effect, be exerting a measure of tacit control over the schools' operation. In the final analysis, however, the schools are left to themselves in determining what is "American-type" education and how they are to achieve "American standards." A list of overseas American student needs might well go a long way in helping the schools arrive at that determination.

Fourth, schools operate as a part of a system and the system helps people define goals. In the case of the A/OS-assisted overseas schools no such system exists. Each of the 139 schools is relatively autonomous, leaving an organizational void throughout the school network as a whole. Within each of the A/OS regions, the school administrators have organized themselves into professional associations, e.g., European Council of International Schools (ECIS), Association of American Schools of South America (AASSA), which serve the informal

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[25]Max Weber, "Legitimate Authority and Bureaucracy," Organizational Theory, ed. D. S. Pugh (Baltimore: Penguin Books, Inc., 1973), p. 18.

function of centralizing and standardizing various activities within the region. As such, they do not have the bureaucratic authority normally ascribed to school systems. It becomes conceivable, then, that the students themselves, moving among schools, may well provide the kind of linkage not otherwise existing in the absence of a tightly-knit administration. Determining what students need may help build a framework for school leaders to use as they construct their programs. As a corollary, a common feature of the overseas school is instability, causing future-planning by administrators to be an uncertain task. The assessment of student needs listed in a priority ranking may provide an important device for forecasting.

Finally, the schools themselves offer a measure of security to both parents and students who seek some element of stability in their otherwise mobile lives. Asking the parents, students, and others directly associated with the schools to offer their suggestions, provides them an opportunity to be a part of the planning process. In turn, they develop a feeling of confidence in and affiliation with what the school is doing.

Theoretical Foundations of the Study

If there were one best way of trying to characterize the A/OS-assisted overseas schools it would probably be by their diversity. A brief look at the distribution of their enrollment reveals not only rapid growth, but also an increment of large proportions in the increase of non-Americans. Details of enrollment and its distribution are in Appendix A. Within the past ten years, enrollment has increased

62 percent--from 46,127 to 73,940. The number of dependents of United States' citizens has increased from 25,082 to 35,131, while the non-United States' students have increased from 21,045 to 38,809. Not only do the United States' students come from various environments within the United States, but the non-United States' students represent the diverse backgrounds of ninety different countries.[26] The implications of such growth and variety are compounded by the transient nature of the student population[27] and as much as a 50 percent annual school staff turnover.[28] Considering the facts of rapid growth, cultural diversity, and student and staff turnover, the establishment of goals and definition of needs can become a perplexing matter.

Speaking to the participants at the annual conference of the Association for the Advancement of International Education (AAIE), Dr. Sidney Marland pointed out:

> I would think that no group has more to tell us than you educators here today about the cultural limitations of American education. Your students live in two worlds. You see them learning one way of life while living amidst another. You are in an excellent position to judge whether these students are being prepared to understand and cherish their own values while respecting equally the values of other cultures. You have the unique opportunity of observing, in your daily work, the

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[26]U.S. Department of State, "Fact Sheet," Washington, D.C., Overseas Schools Advisory Council, 1974-5, p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

[27]Thomas F. Kelly, "The Overseas School: Administrative Creativity Put to the Test," in American Education Abroad, p. 85.

[28]John M. Bahner, "Fund Raising and Staff Development: Problems and Solutions Regarding Two Major Concerns of Overseas Schools," Ibid., p. 165.

> flashes of insight and understanding that reassures us of our common human bond across vast cultural gaps.[29]

Marland simply adds to the recognition that there is vast cultural diversity which is observable, but he does not suggest how to meet student needs nor how to establish educational goals within that rich milieu. Leach has long proposed the concept of an International Baccalaureate as a means of unifying the direction which he feels the schools ought to take.[30]

At the moment, however, despite the fact that for the first time in their history the A/OS-assisted schools have a larger percentage of non-United States' students than United States' students in attendance, the direction of the schools is still dominated by needs of Americans. Heywood laments this fact when he writes:

> I feel that an optimum mix of national and international curriculum in the overseas schools would enhance the integration of the world community and is on the side of peace and brotherhood. To encourage insularity is a contraversion of the idea that the really civilizing ingredient in any program of study is that which allows us to see the other man as relevant to ourselves, and equal to ourselves, even though different.[31]

As forceful as any argumentation might be for the revision of the schools' curriculum; as efficacious as it may seem to try to

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[29]Association for the Advancement of International Education, "Report of the 1973 Annual Convention," Atlantic City, p. 24.

[30]Robert J. Leach, "International Schools, a Reflection," in American Education Abroad. Ibid., p. 71.

[31]Edwin T. Heywood, "American Overseas Schools." A term paper for Ed 882, Third Culture, Michigan State University, 1971, p. 23.

internationalize the staff, it is equally appropriate to draw back and look dispassionately at the occupants of the schools and try to build a data base to establish some theoretical foundations which would have as their focus the needs of the attending students rather than the organizational or staffing functions of the schools.

The agency in the best position to accomplish such a task is the Office of Overseas Schools, but it, as Luebke explains, "does not operate schools abroad."[32] It does, however, establish norms which must be met to qualify for its financial assistance. Luebke defines these norms:

> Spelled out in Volume II, Section 600, of the Foreign Affairs Manual (referred to as 2 FAM 600), the criteria governing assistance, in simplest terms, requires that a school seeking assistance provide adequate educational opportunity (similar to that available in schools in the United States) for dependent children of U.S. Government personnel stationed abroad and that it foster mutual understanding between the people of the United States and the people of other countries through its admission policies, professional staff, program of instruction, and activities. The finer points include additional requirements: the school must have been founded by and be operated by American citizens or by groups including Americans; there must be an appropriate number of U.S. Government-dependent children enrolled; local and third country children should be included in the enrollment if local laws and regulations permit; the language of instruction is to be English or both English and the host-country language if the school is a bi-national school; the curriculum is to be based on American patterns or at least be bi-national in content and methods; textbooks and other instructional materials are to be primarily American; the school must provide evidence of sound management; other similar qualifications may be required.[33]

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[32]Paul T. Luebke, "American-Sponsored Overseas Schools Assisted by the Office of Overseas Schools," in Overseas Opportunities for American Educators, eds. Lorraine Mathies and William G. Thomas. (New York: CCM Information, Inc., 1973), p. 7.

[33]Luebke, ibid., p. 4.

There should be little doubt, from this definition, that the schools are intended to meet the needs of American personnel. But are these schools succeeding? To find out, one must define the elusive term, "needs." Unfortunately, in education, needs have persisted in having a variety of meanings.

In the late 1930's and early 1940's, needs were qualified by the adjective "felt" and they became associated with wants or desires.[34] Thompson maintained that, "The older child, as well as the adult, needs social recognition, social status, a feeling of social belonging, affection, security in inter-personal relations, and so forth."[35] Hall related needs to the occupancy of space, the study of which he called, "Proxemics."[36] Erikson's classic Childhood and Society developed "The Theory of Infantile Sexuality."[37] Havighurst's "developmental tasks,"[38] and the NEA's "Ten Imperative Needs of Youth,"[39] are prototypic standards. Two of the more

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[34]Boyd H. Bode, Progressive Education at the Crossroads. (New York: Newson & Co., 1938).

[35]George G. Thompson, Child Psychology. (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1952), p. 130.

[36]Edward T. Hall, The Hidden Dimension. (Garden City: Doubleday & Co., Inc., 1966), p. 1.

[37]Erik Erikson, Childhood and Society. (New York: W. W. Norton & Co., 1950), p. 44 ff.

[38]Robert J. Havighurst, Human Development and Education. (New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1953).

[39]Educational Policies Committee, Education for All American Youth. (Washington, D.C.: NEA, 1944).

influential works have been Bloom's "Taxonomy of Educational Objectives,"[40] and Maslow's "Hierarchy of Prepotent Needs."[41]

The surfeit of concepts, even their disparity, among some of the more renowned theorists in the educational profession can lead to digression, if not confusion, since no one definition alone seems to describe all situations. Needs are always personal and individual. Suffice it to say that the delineation taken by the author was to relate needs to the demands and expectations that are placed upon an adolescent. They are the tensions, wants, or desires that each person tries to satisfy within the constraints set by the cultural, social and physical environments in which one interacts. To be an active member of a society, one must meet the demands which that society places upon him/her and within the bounds that it sets. In the case of the overseas adolescent whose needs are to be satisfied within diverse societies and environments, it is posited that it has become the school's task, as an adjunct to the family, to help its students become competent in meeting their needs in societally and parentally approved ways. To accomplish this, the school establishes goals, presumably to meet student needs and, insofar as it is able to fulfill its goals, it is meeting the needs of its student clientele. To appraise the needs of American

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[40]Benjamin S. Bloom, ed. Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. Handbook 1: Cognitive Domain. (New York: McKay, 1956).

[41]Abraham H. Maslow, Motivation and Personality. (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1954).

youth attending A/OS-assisted schools, then, it becomes essential that some assessment of their expressed goals be attempted.

Definition of Terms

American Association of School Administrators (AASA). The professional organization generally belonged to by Stateside chief school administrators. Often the spokesman for superintendents.

American-Sponsored Overseas Schools (ASOS). Non-profit, non-sectarian schools that are eligible for United States Government support. Existing under the permission of the host country, the schools are open to host country students as well as third country students where local laws permit. American textbooks, curricula and teaching methods are used. Sometimes used interchangeably with A/OS-assisted schools.

Association for the Advancement of International Education (AAIE). Originally an active sub-committee of AASA (q.v.), now an independent organization catering to those interested in overseas schools.

Association of International Schools in Africa (AISA). A regional organization for school administrators of ASOS in sub-Saharan Africa.

A/OS. Office of Overseas Schools. Also known as O/OS. Within the United States Department of State's organizational chart, "Administration/Overseas Schools," is its designation.

Diplomatic Pouch. Written communications between the United States Department of State and overseas embassies are carried by couriers in the diplomatic pouch in lieu of using other mail services.

DOD. The United States Department of Defense.

European Council of International Schools (ECIS). A regional organization for school administrators of schools located in Europe.

Host-Country National (HCN). One residing in his own country. "Natives," "locals," and "indigenous persons," used synonymously by some.

International Baccalaureate. An internationally administered university entrance examination designed to allow secondary school graduates to be eligible for entrance to universities throughout the world.

International Schools Association (ISA). Private organization of educators associated with international schools. Presently promoting the concept of the International Baccalaureate.

International Schools Services (ISS). Originally a United States Department of State-funded organization. Now privately operated as a support agency for overseas schools. Also operates overseas schools under contract to business corporations.

O/OS. See A/OS.

School-to-School Program. A formal but voluntary partnership between a Stateside school district and an overseas school set up for the purpose of mutual sharing.

Sponsor or Sponsoring Agency. The organization that is responsible for the employment of an overseas American.

Third Country National (TCN). A person from a country other than the one in which he/she is residing. Used to distinguish between two groups of expatriates. In this study, TCNs are non-United States' citizens residing in a country not of their citizenship.

Third Culture Kids (TCKs). A designation originating with Professor Ruth Hill Useem of Michigan State University to denote the dependent minors of overseas nationals who represent some larger organization. Those who live out of their native culture for protracted periods. Tourists' children are not included.

Delimitation of the Study

American students residing outside the geographic boundaries of the United States are enrolled in schools that have been established by a variety of organizations. These include missionary groups, the DOD, multi-national corporations, and private entrepreneurs. The author did not seek to include students enrolled in those schools, but rather, the study was limited to American students attending schools which meet the definition for United States Department of State assistance as outlined in 2 FAM 600. (See p. 16, above.)

According to enrollment figures for the school year, 1974-75 as shown in Appendix A, 73,940 students attended 139 A/OS-assisted schools. Of this number, 47.5 percent were American children; 32.5 percent were children of the 82 countries in which the schools are located, and 20.0 percent were children of other countries. Only that portion of the schools' population that is American was studied.

To attempt to assess the needs of all the children, aged five to eighteen, who attend the schools would have been an unmanageable task. Additionally, since opinions of the students themselves were solicited, the likelihood was greater that older students would be more capable of articulating their needs. The focus, therefore, was directed to the needs of high school seniors.

This study was limited to the identification of expressed needs. The point to be underscored is that neither the operation nor the administration of the schools was a key factor in the investigation. The schools were chosen as a convenient medium for studying the problem. The successful determination of needs should not imply that the schools have the sole or principal responsibility for attending to the needs.

CHAPTER II

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Sensitively collecting data is always an arduous task. When the respondents being solicited are spread throughout the world, the process becomes all the more difficult. When the schools operate autonomously, within no pre-established organizational pattern, access to them as a means of seeking an appraisal of student needs is tenuous. Initially, a forecasting method known as the Delphi Technique[1] was considered to be a most desirable method for dealing with the diversity and dispersal of the schools. It had to be rejected, despite its potential, because it requires a minimum of three rounds of solicitation and modification, which would be impractical in view of losses that could occur in the mail or as a result of the respondents' transiency. Prescinding from the possible loss factors, the time element could easily extend the study beyond a normal school year. In the end, the selected Phi Delta Kappa program provided a screening and review approach not unlike that used in the Delphi Technique. It had the distinct advantage that it could be completed in a single contact.

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[1]For details describing the origin and use of Delphi, the reader is referred to: R. C. Judd, "Delphi Method: Computerized Oracle Accelerates Consensus Formation," College and University Business. 49 (Summer 1970): 30.

Population and Sample

The population used for the study was comprised of the high school seniors who were dependents of Americans living overseas and attending selected A/OS-assisted schools. To identify the needs of these American adolescents, five groups were chosen as being in an appropriate position to be able to make worthwhile judgments: (1) the students themselves, (2) parents of students, (3) the chief school administrators, (4) teachers, and (5) board of education members.

To account for differences that might occur because of locale and environment, an equal number of schools was selected from five geographic regions of the world as defined by A/OS, i.e., Europe, Africa, Near East/South Asia, East Asia, and Central/South America. From these schools respondents were selected. To assure diversity within each region, the schools chosen were located in different countries and are located far apart geographically.

A stratified sample of four schools from each region was drawn according to size of enrollment. Chosen were the largest and smallest as well as two that fell in between--at approximately the 25th and 75th percentiles. The function of this choice was to reduce the possibility of student needs being more associated with problems related to the size of the individual schools than to individual needs.

Assumptions

The choice of participants was restricted to those presumed to be most closely related to the activities of the schools, because it was assumed that the schools are the agencies that are most persistently setting their goals with the principal intent of meeting the needs of students. It was further assumed that those most actively participating in the schools' functioning: (1) would be able to make knowledge-based choices, and (2) would be willing to identify student needs, as discovered through the schools' operation, regardless of any other agencies' policies to the contrary. This latter point may be amplified in an analogous way by some statements of the International Civil Service Advisory Board:[2]

> The international civil servant must accept special restraints in his public and private life . . . . (p. 15).
>
> Integrity, international loyalty, independence and impartiality and the subordination of private interests to the interests of the organization, are daily requirements. (p. 14).
>
> Not only must the international civil servant be careful and discreet himself, but he should impress upon members of his household the necessity of maintaining a similar high standard of conduct. (p. 15).

Respondents chosen were those who were experienced enough to be able to render a valuable judgment. Because of their extended exposure, students and parents who have been associated with the schools for the longest time or who have demonstrated the most active

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[2]International Civil Service Advisory Board, Report on Standards of Conduct in the International Civil Servant. (New York: United Nations, 1954).

interest in the schools were considered the most likely candidates for inclusion in the sample. Selected, also, were the chief school administrators, teachers, and board of education members because it was assumed that the very nature of their school-related activities should cause them to be cognizant of student needs.

An additional factor in the selection was that the respondents be Americans presently serving the schools in some kind of leadership capacity. If no such persons were available, length of time overseas in their present role was used in lieu of leadership responsibility. The assumption for this choice was that leadership activities, and/or length of time overseas, though certainly not a guarantee, should cause the respondents to be more conversant with the needs of American overseas students than those not having had such experiences.

The actual selection of the individual respondents was accomplished by the chief school administrator based on instructions received from the researcher (Appendix B, p. 108) which stated:

> To select the subjects, proceed as follows:
>
> 1. Enclosed are five envelopes, the contents of which are the same except for color coding. One is addressed to you. The others are for the: 1) Board of Ed chairman, 2) President of your PTO or like group, 3) President of your teachers' association, and 4) President of the senior class.
>
> 2. If each group exists at your school and is headed by an American, you simply have to get the envelopes out to the proper people and urge their quick return to you for mailing.
>
> 3. If non-Americans are leaders, select the next ranking person who is American.

4. In the absence of organizations representing the named groups, proceed as follows. To get a:

   Parent -- Select one who has demonstrated the most consistent and cooperative concern for high school kids and the school.

   Teacher -- Choose one from the high school (9-12) whose experience in overseas education, in your judgment, qualifies that person as being most aware of the needs of U.S. kids.

   Student -- Pick an American senior in any student-elected position, or the senior who, you feel, is the outstanding spokesman for the students.

5. None of the respondents should be related.

In summary, the respondents were selected from twenty schools --four from each of the five A/OS geographic regions of the world. Five persons identified with each school brought the number of potential respondents to one hundred--twenty each of administrators, board of education members, parents, students, and teachers. Since prior personal contact had been made with each of the schools' administrators, whose enthusiastic support was received, excellent response was expected.

Instrumentation

In a program sponsored by Phi Delta Kappa, Harold Spears gathered together sixty representatives of twenty-two colleges and universities at an educational goals conference.[3] They ranked in

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[3]Harold Spears, "Kappans Ponder the Goals of Education," Phi Delta Kappan. LV (September 1973): 29.

order of importance eighteen goals of education which had originated at the Program Development Center at California State University, Chico.[4] The same series of goals was then sent to a random sample of 1,020 PDK members. From that number, 609 returns were used to compare with the goals originally ranked by the representatives at the goals' conference. Each of the eighteen goals was clarified by having three or four explanatory statements listed with it. Subsequent field testing indicated that the goals, as established by Chico State and substantiated by PDK members, were complete. No additions were found to be necessary.

In addition to the eighteen goals established by PDK, an overseas dimension was included in this present study. Four needs that were considered unique to the overseas students were derived in two ways:

1. At the annual conference of the Association for the Advancement of International Education (AAIE), fifty-eight survey forms, exhibited in Appendix B, were circulated among those in attendance who represented overseas schools. The participants were asked to complete the following statement.

> Like students everywhere, high school-aged dependents of U.S. citizens living overseas, have specific needs. Among the needs of the overseas students attending A/OS-assisted high schools, the <u>one most important</u> need that must be singled out for attention during the next five years (1975-1980) will be to . . .

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[4]Keith B. Rose, ed. <u>Educational Goals and Objectives</u>. Distributed by the Commission on Educational Planning, Phi Delta Kappa, 1973.

From the forty-seven responses received, duplications were discarded and those suggestions that were already included in the PDK list were eliminated. The remaining contributions were grouped into a category that formed the overseas dimension. There were:

Learn How to Adjust to a Mobile Life

> Such as: Develop an understanding of the process that leads to frequent transfers. Develop techniques for living without a feeling of permanence. Establish warm friendships that may be temporary.

Understand the Pressures of Being an American in a Foreign Country

> Such as: Develop an understanding of the lack of privacy and/or anonymity that comes with being an American. Develop an awareness of the responsibilities of being seen as a representative of the United States. Develop a knowledge of and willingness to follow host country laws and customs.

Develop Skills Needed for Re-entry to Living in the U.S.

> Such as: Develop background to be able to adjust to social changes occurring in the U.S. Develop knowledge of specific information about current economic and political climate. Develop an understanding of the process of successful entrance and attendance in college.

Learn the Value of Multi-cultural Experiences

> Such as: Develop an understanding of the changing image of Americans as perceived by non-Americans. Develop the ability to judge people according to their standards and cultural mores. Develop an awareness of local culture by active participation in it.

2. Graduate students and professors at Michigan State University who have had experience in the overseas schools were shown the same survey form used at the AAIE conference and asked to make additional contributions. From among fourteen reviewers, no other needs were proposed.

The combined total of twenty-two needs was considered to be sufficient, but space was provided for each of the overseas respondents to add needs which they believed were not included. Appendix C contains the final needs appraisal form.

Data Collection

To each of the twenty school administrators who had been personally contacted at the Dallas AAIE Conference was sent a packet of materials (see Appendices B and C) containing:

1. Instructions for selection of respondents as well as directions for the distribution and return of the survey instruments.
2. Five envelopes addressed to the persons holding leadership responsibilities as described in #1 above. Each envelope, containing the survey instruments, was identical except for color coding.
3. A self-addressed return envelope.
4. A personal letter re-affirming the personal contact made at the AAIE Conference.

Each respondent was asked to read the unranked statement of twenty-two principal needs and the similar needs listed beneath them. Having read all the needs, the respondents were asked to place an "X" in the first column next to each need they believed to be important. Since all of the needs had been previously identified by large groups as being important and perhaps all-inclusive, it was anticipated that each need would be checked at least once by each respondent. However, the instructions did specify that it would not be necessary for all need statements to be checked. The assumption was that by not selecting a given need at least once, the respondent, by omission, would be describing that need as unimportant.

Next, the respondents were instructed to re-read each of the needs checked in column one, determine which of those were more important, and to place an "X" in column two to indicate their greater degree of importance.

The next step was to repeat the process but this time a separation was to be made by finding the most important items in column two and checking them by an appropriate mark in column three. That same procedure was repeated twice so that, in the end, at least one of the needs would be checked in column five. Those checked in column five would be considered most important.

The rationale for the choice of this process was threefold:

1. The original design of the PDK program called for a like process to be followed, but it was accomplished in groups which met over a period of several days to discuss the needs and the selection process. The final choice, however, was always arrived at individually and privately. The overseas respondents replicated the PDK process but without the benefit of group meetings and discussions.

2. The response procedure used elicited a consensus-like result which is similar to the Delphi approach, but has the advantage of being completed in a single solicitation.

3. The result produced a Likert-type scale for statistical analysis without the disadvantage of causing the respondents to try to separate, by magnitude of importance, needs previously identified as being essentially important.

Returns were received from thirteen of the twenty schools--a 65 percent response rate. One of the schools did not return forms from students and parents. Another school did not return a board member's form. One school did not include the administrator's selections. In the case of one teacher, instructions to rate at least one need in column five were ignored. Neither the fourth nor fifth columns had any checks. This teacher's form was rejected as invalid. The resulting usable documents numbered sixty--a 60 percent return factor. Fortunately, there were an equal number of responses from each of the five groups which permitted a more robust statistical treatment.

Data Analysis

A ranking of needs demonstrating where each of the five groups placed its priorities was considered sufficient to accomplish the author's purpose. The research design, however, was conceived to permit a multivariate analysis of variance, a Spearman rank-order correlation (rho), and a chi square test, so that specific comparisons could be made.

The study was intended to be descriptive; therefore, absolute inferences were not drawn, but speculative judgments have been offered.

CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A review of the literature was treated in two categories: (1) a discussion of the generic concepts of needs, especially as they relate to schools, and (2) a summary of the growth of the overseas schools and their role in meeting adolescent needs.

Student Needs

In attempting to determine the needs of overseas American youth, or needs of any youth for that matter, one is immediately faced with a complex problem of definition. The complexity occurs because of a general usage of the word "needs" without recourse to definition.

> It is difficult to define human needs. They naturally include all the physical necessities of life, but in many cases can be legitimately extended to encompass things desired as necessities. In part, peoples' needs are conditioned by their aspirations. It will certainly be agreed that non-material needs, such as education and culture, are as real as material needs, such as food, water, and protection against the cold. Some needs are not consciously perceived at all, others are only vaguely perceived, and still others awaken only on contact with new ways of life. Recent decades have been marked by a multiplication of inter-cultural contacts. As a result, many latent needs have been revealed for the first time and many new needs have been created.[1]

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[1]George Sicault, ed., The Needs of Children: A Survey of the Needs of Children in Developing Countries (New York: Glencoe Free Press, 1963), p. 11.

It is not uncommon to hear used the expression that the function of school is to meet the needs of students. The concept of providing for individual differences among students would seem to connote that there are concomitant individual needs that must also be taken into account. Yet it would not be improper to counter that the function of the schools may not be so much to meet the needs of students as it is to be responsive to parental needs, i.e., to serve a care-taking role; or to suggest that the purpose of the schools is to meet the needs of the labor structure by keeping students out of the labor market. It could be noted, for example, that Horace Mann's humanitarian concern for child labor laws and compulsory attendance occurred at about the same time that there was a decreasing need for child labor.

When one speaks of the needs of youth, a wide range of specific needs can be summoned to mind. From the moment of birth an infant is confronted with physiological needs. Subsequently, there are, to suggest a few, psychological, sociological, environmental, and academic needs. Just what, then, is meant by "meeting the needs of youth"? Whatever one gives or accepts as an answer, its terminus or focus is very likely to be found in the school--in the American scheme of child-rearing. Whether by accident or intent, whatever relates to children seems to have been ascribed to the domain of the schools. Thus, the schools find themselves involved in health appraisals, food services, home-making, driver education, family-life education and a myriad of other activities that could be argued are not a function of education. Brembeck puts it another

way when he writes, "We assume that the schools are capable of fulfilling our expectations. We do not ask: can they?"[2] It is not the author's intent to enter into the argument, but rather to make the observation that schools do, one way or another, become the foci for children's activities. As such, the schools, if they are to participate actively in the lives of the children, ought to know what are the children's needs.

"The great challenge of the seventies, therefore, is to find ways of attuning the educational system to constantly changing conditions, including emerging needs and wants of the people. The difficulty in achieving this virtuous goal is in deciding when a given practice does or does not correspond to a need or a want."[3] What becomes problematic is determining whether "educational," "curricular," "financial," etc., needs do have as their base the needs of students. This delineation is important because critics such as Illich[4] and Jencks[5] would suggest that children's needs might be better met in the absence of schools as we know them today.

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[2]Cole S. Brembeck, "On Learning What Schools Are Good For," (East Lansing, Michigan, October 1973), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

[3]Marvin Adelson, "Some Elementary and Secondary Educational Needs of the Seventies," Needs of Elementary and Secondary Education for the Seventies. A compendium of policy papers presented to the House Committee of Labor and Education, March 1970, p. 6.

[4]Ivan Illich, Deschooling Society. (New York: Harper and Row, 1970).

[5]Christopher Jencks, Inequality: A Reassessment of the Effect of Family and Schooling in America. (New York: Harper Colophon Books, 1972).

The expression "student needs," has been used regularly throughout this study as a generic term to indicate the full spectrum of the needs of adolescent youth. Confusion arises because no definition seems to have a single universal meaning. The word "need" may be, and in the case of the schools often is, what adults think children need. Thus, for example, the House of Representatives Sub-Committee on Education held twenty-two hearings from October 2, 1969, to June 4, 1971, and published a compendium of 106 different policy papers composed by "a distinguished group of . . . prominent citizens from every part of the United States, reflecting perhaps every shade of opinion about education."[6] Formal statements before the Sub-Committee, as well as the submitted essays, ranged among such subjects as educational finance, school construction, research and development, educational technology, evaluation and accountability, planning and management, reading, school governance, the application of systems analysis techniques to education, aid to private schools, and the selection, training and compensation of teachers and paraprofessionals. Topics such as these are educational needs and were appropriately submitted to a committee investigating such needs. In the absence of other evidence, it is ordinarily presumed that those submitting their contributions did so after having previously determined student needs. But such a presumption may

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[6]U.S. Congress, House, Committee on Education and Labor, Needs for the Seventies, p. 287.

not be valid. Gittell suggested that the educators' proposals were based on their desire to maintain the status quo,[7] while Payzant proposed that the schools are system-oriented and that, to succeed, they must become more child-centered.[8]

In 1968, under the auspices of the Office of Overseas Schools and the American Association of School Administrators, Engleman and Rushton conducted a field survey of selected American-sponsored overseas schools with the purpose of noting "the over-all effectiveness of the overseas education programs, to observe changes since 1963, to assess the influence of the Office of Overseas Schools, and to submit recommendations toward further development of those schools."[9] Of the twenty-one recommendations offered, each dealt with suggestions to improve the administration and the operation of the schools. The authors observed that the overseas schools being quite barren of specialists were not very likely to be able to identify problems.[10] As specialists in the field of educational

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[7]Marilyn Gittell, "Educational Goals and School Reform," Needs of Elementary and Secondary Education for the Seventies. A Compendium of Policy Papers, p. 287.

[8]Thomas W. Payzant, "Education in the Seventies--More of the Same Will Not Be Good Enough," ibid., p. 638.

[9]Finis E. Engleman and Edward W. Rushton, American-Sponsored Schools: A Second Look. (Washington, D.C.: American Association of School Administrators, 1969), p. iii.

[10]Ibid., p. 18.

administration, it is not surprising that Engleman and Rushton's recommendations contained suggestions for the improvement of the administration of the schools, but not for the importance of student needs as being a prerequisite to the identification of educational needs.

One of the functions of Engleman and Rushton in their study was to conduct a re-appraisal--to observe changes which may have occurred following a prior visit in 1963. They did report observable differences. "In 1963 the administrators were generally mediocre, thus reflecting the schools. In 1968, although some administrators have much to be desired in professional background, the great majority represent vast improvements over five years ago."[11] Other changes and improvements were noted, but neither in 1963, nor in 1968 were recommendations made regarding systematic methods to identify student needs. It is to be noted that no additional re-appraisals have occurred since the 1968 visit. If changes were noted during the five year period between appraisals, it seems reasonable to assume that changes likewise may have occurred in subsequent years. Most importantly, ought not one to consider that student needs shall have undergone some kind of alteration during that same period that educational needs changed?

Earlier in this study (p. 18), needs were defined as personal, individual tensions, wants or desires that each person tries

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[11]Engleman, ibid., p. 10.

to satisfy within the constraints set by the cultural, social and physical environment in which one interacts. A vital element contained in this definition is that the milieu of interaction sets some constraints. A difficulty arises when, during periods of rapid social change, the constraints are altered or adjusted. Political confrontations, social contradictions, and economic imbalances may serve to create sharp differences in societal viewpoints. Especially is this clear when educational programs are adjusted to allow for new social realities. Different conceptions arise as to what kind of society is desirable, or in a pluralistic society, whose sets of constraints are to be followed.

There are those who would contend that the school serves as an instrument for the democratic reconstruction of society; that

> . . . the American people are entering a new age, and that our schools must accept moral responsibility for undertaking to nurture a human being prepared to live in this new age--a person no longer patterned in the pioneer individualism of a self-sufficient agrarian America, but one who is equipped to live in a world marked by global interdependence, by control over the energies of the atom, by a disturbing and expanding scientific method and mentality, and by a more socialized and cooperatively planned system of democracy.[12]

Smith supports this position. ". . . the first duty of the public school is to maintain and promote the democratic way of life."[13]

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[12]John L. Childs, Education and Morals. (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1950), p. 107.

[13]B. Othanel Smith et al., Fundamentals of Curriculum Development. (Yonkers: World Book Company, 1950), p. 187.

Dewey agreed that "the schools do have a role--and an important one--in the production of social change."[14] Derr offers an excellent exposition and history of the social purposes of schools.[15]

Other writers contend that the role of the school is to emphasize personal needs and social processes--"to give all types of practical help which youth need in order to 'get along' adequately."[16]

The time-honored conception of school as a place to discipline the mind persists. Hutchins referred to students' needing "a common stock of fundamental ideas,"[17] while Adler insisted that immersion in the Great Books would serve to meet student needs.[18]

Maritain argued that "Education must remove the rift between the social claim and the individual claim within man himself . . . and exert authority for the general welfare and the respect for the humanity of each individual person."[19]

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[14]John Dewey, "Education and Social Change," Social Frontier, III (May 1937): 236.

[15]Richard L. Derr, A Taxonomy of Social Purposes of Public Schools. (New York: David McKay Co., Inc., 1973).

[16]Harold C. Hand, "The Case for the Common Learnings Program," Science Education, 32 (February 1948): 10.

[17]Robert M. Hutchins, The Higher Learning in America. (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1936), p. 67.

[18]Mortimer J. Adler, "The Crisis in Contemporary Education," Social Frontier, V (February 1939): 63.

[19]Jacques Maritain, Education at the Crossroads. (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1943), p. 90.

Two views that have staunch adherents are those which describe education as a vehicle of social mobility and those which see education's function as one that should prepare students for a career. The former position is advocated by Warner--"The School in America, whether we like it not, must function to make democracy work in a status system that is only partially equalitarian."[20] The career education movement has received recent impetus from United States Commissioner of Education, Terrell Bell, who "has thrown his weight behind the HEW drive to make career education a new major emphasis . . . . He is the first U.S. Office of Education (USOE) spokesman to comment on the new three-departmental drive (HEW, Labor, and Commerce) to integrate the world of work and education."[21] Conant proposed that " . . . the educational experience of youth should fit their subsequent employment. There should be a smooth transition from full-time schooling to a full-time job, whether that transition be after grade ten or after graduation from high school, college, or university."[22] Proponents of career education as a means of meeting student needs rely upon mobilization of public and

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[20]W. Lloyd Warner, Who Shall Be Educated? (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1944), p. 146.

[21]Education, USA, (Washington: National School Public Relations Association, November 4, 1974), p. 79.

[22]James B. Conant, Slums and Suburbs. (New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1961), p. 40.

private resources to improve educational systems.[23] Venn summarizes the career education position:

> This country faces a choice. If we want an educational system less and less relevant to more and more students and taxpayers, all we need do is relax; we are drifting that way. If we want an educational system designed to serve each individual, then we have work to do and attitudes to change.[24]

> Unless far more and far better education on the semi-professional, technical, and skilled levels is soon made available to greater numbers of citizens, the national economy and social structure will suffer irreparable damage.[25]

Gardner's oft-quoted opinion serves as a post-script to the career educators' viewpoint:

> An excellent plumber is infinitely more admirable than an incompetent philosopher. The society which scorns excellence in plumbing because plumbing is a humble activity and tolerates shoddiness in philosophy because it is an exalted activity will have neither good plumbing nor good philosophy. Neither its pipes nor its theories will hold water.[26]

Educational Aims, Goals and Objectives

In the absence of a universally accepted definition of needs, what seems to have occurred is that whatever the schools have attempted

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[23]For an extended exposition of the career education position the reader is referred to the work of the State Career Education Advisory Commission of the State of Michigan, especially its document, "Career Education Concept Paper," dated January 8, 1975.

[24]Grant Venn, Man, Education, and Manpower. (Washington: American Association of School Administrators, 1970), p. 16.

[25]Ibid., p. 23.

[26]John W. Gardner, No Easy Victories. (New York: Harper and Row, 1968), p. 66.

to do has become synonymous with needs. School leaders, educational sociologists, philosophers and theorists, in their continuing debate about the function of education, have informally classified student needs by trying to define what the schools ought to be accomplishing.

The aphorism that children should be seen and not heard was the apparent guideline of education in the early years of American schooling. The schools were subject-matter oriented. Children studied what parents determined was desirable. Pandora's box was opened, however, in 1913 when the National Education Association established its Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education with the charge to consider, among other things, the vocational needs of youth.[27] Concern had arisen that the reports of two prior NEA Commissions--The Committee of Ten on Secondary School Studies (1893), and The Committee of Fifteen on Elementary Education (1895)--had outlived their usefulness. In the words of Cohen, they "had taken on the charm of period pieces . . ."[28] In 1918, five years after its formation, the Commission on Reorganization issued its Report which right from the beginning served notice to its readers that it was proposing a new approach to American education.

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[27]Edward Krug, "Public High School, United States," The Encyclopedia of Education, (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1971), vol. 7, p. 311.

[28]Sol Cohen, "The Transformation of the School," in Foundations of Education. George F. Kneller, ed. (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1971), p. 26.

> Its opening sentence proclaimed that secondary education should be determined by the needs of society, the character of the students to be educated, and the knowledge of the best educational theory and practice available at that time.[29]

The Commission stated the goals of education in what became known as the Seven Cardinal Principles of Education. These were: (1) Health, (2) Command of fundamental processes, (3) Worthy home membership, (4) Vocation, (5) Citizenship, (6) Worthy use of leisure, and (7) Ethical character. In listing these principles, the Commission broadened the limited goals of education which previously had been confined to college entrance requirements and subject-matter mastery. The Commission additionally extended the concept of school attendance to include all youth up to the age of eighteen. In one document, the Commission redirected the future of education in three important areas. First, it rejected the narrowness of the curriculum and recommended a new set of educational objectives--the Cardinal Principles. Second, it broadened the concept of who should attend school. Third, it redirected educational thought from subject-centered schools to a philosophy that would henceforth include some consideration of student and societal needs. Its concern for youth was underscored when Commission Chairman Clarence Kingsley stated that the responsibility of the high school was " . . . nothing less than complete and worthy living for all youth . . . ."[30] The

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[29]Ibid., p. 34

[30]Cohen, ibid.

precedent was set--Pandora's box opened--and consideration of student needs would persist to the present day when the courts have extended the concept of needs to include rights.[31]

Vredevoe summarizes some of the objectives developed by major committees and commissions which appeared following the publication of the Cardinal Principles:[32]

Committee on Standards for Use in the Reorganization of Secondary School Curricula (1920)

Ultimate Objectives:

1. To maintain health and physical fitness
2. To use leisure in right ways
3. To sustain successfully certain definite social relationships: civic, domestic, community, etc.
4. To engage in exploratory vocations and vocational activities.

American Youth Commission (Secondary Education for Youth in Modern America) (1937)

Objectives:

1. Citizenship 2. Home membership 3. Leisure life
4. Physical and mental health 5. Vocational efficiency
6. Preparation for continued learning

Progressive Education Association (The Eight-Year Study) (1938)

Needs of Youth:

1. Physical and mental health 2. Self-assurance
3. Assurance of growth toward adult status 4. Philosophy of life 5. Wide range of personal interests 6. Aesthetic

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[31]Michael Simmons, Jr., "The Law and the Courts," in Foundations of Education, ibid., p. 190.
For more detailed information on the impact of court decisions as they have affected schools, the reader is referred to Leroy J. Patterson, The Law and Public School Operation. (New York: Harper and Row, 1969).

[32]Lawrence E. Vredevoe, "Secondary Education," in Foundations of Education, ibid., p. 523 ff.

appreciation 7. Intelligent self-direction 8. Progress toward maturity in social relations with age mates and with adults 9. Wise use of goods and services 10. Vocational orientation 11. Vocational competence

Education Policies Commission (Purposes of Education in American Democracy) (1938)

Objectives:

1. Self-realization 2. Human relationships 3. Economic efficiency 4. Civic responsibility

Education Policies Commission (Education for All American Youth) (1952)

Objectives which will equip youth to:

1. Enter an occupation suited to his abilities 2. Assume responsibilities of American citizenship 3. Attain and preserve mental and physical health 4. Stimulate intellectual curiosity 5. Think rationally 6. Develop an appreciation of ethical values

White House Conference on Education (1955)

Objectives which will develop:

1. Fundamental skills of communication, arithmetic, and mathematics 2. Appreciation for our democratic heritage 3. Civic rights and responsibilities 4. Respect and appreciation for human values 5. Ability to think and evaluate constructively 6. Effective work habits and self-discipline 7. Social competency 8. Ethical behavior 9. Intellectual curiosity 10. Aesthetic appreciation 11. Physical and mental health 12. Wise use of time 13. Understanding of the physical world 14. Awareness of our relationship with the world community

Upon review of these various objectives of the different groups, Vredevoe concluded that they can all be reduced to four general headings: citizenship, language arts, vocational competence and physical fitness;[33] yet he goes on to suggest that:

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[33]Vredevoe, ibid., p. 522.

. . . fundamentally the needs of the secondary school student can be stated as follows:

> Language Arts--ability to read, write, observe, think logically, listen and communicate
>
> Health and physical fitness-- mental and body health
>
> Vocational correctness--proper attitudes, craftmanship, creativeness and adjustability
>
> Domestic competence--ability to live successfully as a member of a family group or as a leader
>
> Social confidence--appreciation and understanding of man's progress and potential in solving political, social and economic problems
>
> Moral and spiritual depth--value judgment and recognition of the need for self-discipline and service to others.[34]

Different authorities, groups and committees appear to be more in agreement than disagreement. Sometimes priorities rather than substantial differences would seem to suggest apparent disparity in goals as when Harris says, " . . . without a doubt the biggest task facing the American high school today is to make its curriculum meaningful to students. For hundreds of thousands of boys and girls this meaning must be found in subjects and curriculum related to the world of work."[35] Jencks might simply add that minimum expectations ought to be no less than " . . . the ability to use language easily and accurately, the ability to understand and make logical inferences

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[34]Vredevoe, ibid., 523.

[35]Norman C. Harris, "Meeting the Post-High School Education Needs of the Vast 'Middle Group' of High School Graduates," an address before the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Committee on Articulation and Colleges, Chicago, March 19, 1963.

from printed materials, the ability to use numbers with facility, and the ability to absorb and retain miscellaneous information."[36] Gordon infuses the word "survival" and seemingly adds a measure of urgency when he states that " . . . the minimum educational goals are defined by the prerequisites for meaningful participation [in society] or for economic, social and political survival."[37] Payzant reduces goals to three major categories: learning for literacy, learning for human skills and learning for a career.[38] Lieberman adds his concepts of goals, but interposes a new dimension by suggesting that means not ends are the source of confusion.

> I believe that the American people are in substantial agreement that the purposes of education are the development of critical thinking, effective communication, creative skills and social, civic, and occupational competence.
>
> If there is widespread agreement on the broad purposes of education, why do so many people believe that disagreement in this area is so pervasive? The most important reason is the confusion over what are the purposes and what are the means of achieving them.[39]

The research, then, would suggest four general points of agreement. First, there is concurrence in what educational goals

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[36]Jencks, Inequality, ibid., p. 84.

[37]Edmund W. Gordon, "Toward Defining Equality of Educational Opportunity," in On Equality of Educational Opportunity. Frederick Mosteller and Daniel P. Moynihan, eds. (New York: Vintage Books, 1972), p. 431.

[38]Payzant, "Education in the Seventies," p. 637.

[39]Myron Lieberman, "What the Problem is Not," in Nature, Aims, and Policy. Adrian Dupuis, ed. (Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1970), p. 211.

and aims ought to be. Second, they revolve around what the patrons of the schools would have them be. Third, disparity relates more to disagreement as to how to achieve the goals than as to what the goals ought to be. Heald and Moore caution, however, that:

> It is important to note that only rarely is mention made of specifically what the educated citizen is to become--attention is focused on how he is to get that way. The immense social supposition here is that through the attainment of educational objectives, people will become what they should become--and, they will behave in a manner which is complementary to the society. (Italics in the original.)[40]

Fourth, people, and hence their needs, do change. Any proposition designed to meet needs must come under regular review.

> . . . needs refer to ends or aims . . . . In a democratic system of education the center of the plot must always be continuous rebuilding of the scheme of values, the underlying philosophy or social outlook, by the pupil, as a basis for determining his needs.[41]

Overseas Schools and Adolescent Needs

While it may be demonstrable, from the literature, that the goal of education is to provide, somehow, experiences that are appropriate to the contemporary needs of American youth, it is not clear that "contemporary needs" are (1) the same for Stateside and overseas youth, or (2) seriously considered when educational planning

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[40]James E. Heald and Samuel A. Moore, The Teacher and Administrative Relationships in School Systems. (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1968), p. 26.

[41]Boyd H. Bode, "The Concept of Needs in Education," Progressive Education. 15 (January 1938): 7.

takes place. A review of the development of the overseas school phenomenon might help to give some additional perspective to the needs of overseas youth.

Traditionally, Americans have preferred to keep schools close to home and to maintain local control. In a non-mobile society such goals are readily attainable. With the exodus of many Americans to foreign countries following World War II, the concept of the neighborhood school had to be abandoned by those living in the land of their new assignment. That is, the American school, designed to meet the contemporary needs of American youth, was not available. As with their British predecessors, five options were open: (1) School-aged children could be an impediment to foreign service assignments, (2) The children could be left at home with relatives, (3) The children could be sent to boarding schools, (4) Tutoring could occur in the overseas home. In fact, the Calvert School, begun in 1904, developed a complete home-study course that, since its inception has provided home-guided instruction for 125,000 kindergarten through eighth graders.[42] (5) Local schools could be attended.

Each of these options had its disadvantages. If the children were an impediment, the agencies wishing to place personnel overseas would lose the value of key people. Families would be split if the children could not be taken along. The success of tutoring

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[43]"Calvert School," Foreign Service Journal. 52 (June 1975): 32.

would be directly proportional to the skill and availability of tutors. Families, attempting to guide the tutorial process themselves, felt inadequate beyond a certain academic level. The termination of Calvert's program at the eighth grade level might be an indication of the point at which parents did not feel competent. Attendance at a locally available school was problematic for a variety of reasons. First, and most obvious, was a language barrier. Second, children who rotated among foreign countries could not be reasonably expected to develop sufficient proficiency in the language to matriculate at local schools. Third, a local school would be designed to accomodate the needs of local residents, not Americans--and in some countries, the possibility might not be open to attend the local schools.

A new option emerged from these disadvantages. An American school could be established. The precedent existed in the form of American schools that were primarily church-related or established by private business companies. The earliest record of an American school, according to Deutchman,[43] was the Woodstock School in Mussoorie, India, founded in 1854 by missionaries. The American military establishment can trace the beginning of the DOD school system to 1821, when Congress enacted into law regulations providing for the financing and administration of the education of dependents, followed in 1838, by authorization for the post chaplain to teach,

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[43]Paul Deutchman, "American Schools Abroad," Holiday. 42 (October 1967): 107.

as added duty and for extra pay, the children of servicemen. In 1904, a Canal Zone school was funded by Congress and in 1936, the United States Navy opened schools in Cuba and Samoa.[44] What is presently known as The American School Foundation of Mexico City had its beginning in 1888, when funding was provided by "an American woman resident of Mexico City in order to provide an American school for her fellow citizens."[45]

The paucity of literature related to the earlier years of American-sponsored overseas schools leaves room for the conjecture that their existence was related to the need to keep families together when the parents were assigned overseas. The Smith-Mundt Act in 1948, began federal support for non-DOD schools when it established qualifications for governmental aid. Schools were required to be non-sectarian, non-profit, maintained primarily by United States citizens, taught primarily in English and, where possible, to enroll students from host and third countries. After 1962, Public Law 87-195 (the Foreign Assistance Act of 1961) which established the Agency for International Development (USAID), provided federal assistance to overseas schools which educated children

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[44]Anthony Cardinale, "Overseas Dependent Schools of the DOD," Phi Delta Kappan. 48 (May 1967): 460 ff.

[45]American Association of School Administrators. "The Mission Called O/OS," (Washington: American Association of School Administrators, 1966), p. 31.

of personnel carrying out the Act as well as dependents of other United States Government personnel abroad.[46]

Beginning in the late 1960s, the reasons for the establishment of the overseas schools became clearer. President Johnson, in his February 4, 1966, message to Congress, cited three reasons for supporting overseas schools. They should: (1) be showcases for excellence in education, (2) help make overseas service attractive to our own citizens, and (3) provide close contact with students and teachers of the host country.[47] Schools being a "showcase for excellence in education," might also be seen as evidence of excellence of all things American at a time when American international influence was expanding. Two years previously, Texas Oil Corporation's vice-president for Indonesia, R. H. Hopper, had proclaimed, "Our ability to keep good American employees is very much dependent on the education we can offer."[48] John Gardner, the then Secretary of HEW, in an appearance before the House Committee on Education and Labor, emphasized the importance for Americans to increase their knowledge

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[46]Paul T. Luebke and Ernest N. Mannino, "American-sponsored Overseas Schools," Exchange. (Washington: U.S. Advisory Commission on International, Educational and Cultural Affairs, Summer, 1970), pp. 56-66.

[47]U.S. Congress, House, Committee on Education and Labor, Hearings Before the Task Force on International Education, March and April, 1966. (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1966), p. 9.

[48]"Industry Rings the School Bell," Business Week. July 4, 1964, p. 39.

of other peoples.[49] The political and economic implications for the existence of the schools, as opposed to emphasis on student needs, began to emerge.

During the year 1966, the year that began with President Johnson's urging the improvement of overseas education, the DOD revamped its truncated school program.[50] A/OS was streamlined and, in 1967, an Overseas Schools Advisory Council, composed of educators, governmental officials and leaders of American corporations and foundations having overseas operations, was formed.[51] In 1968, the Council selected the Institute for Development of Educational Activities (I/D/E/A), an affiliate of the Charles F. Kettering Foundation, to implement a plan known as, "Fair Share," which enabled American businesses to participate in bettering educational programs available to their children.[52]

No evidence has been found of either vocal or financial encouragement during the Nixon administration, nor the early months of the Ford administration. The schools have remained 139 individual districts with their own boards of directors, policy-making authority,

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[49]U.S. Congress, House, Committee on Education and Labor, Hearings Before the Task Force on International Education, p. 461.

[50]Cardinale, "Overseas Dependent Schools," p. 461.

[51]U.S. Department of State. "Overseas Schools Program Strives for Excellence," Department of State Newsletter. 83 (March 1968): 11.

[52]Institute for Development of Educational Activities. "Overseas School Project," Annual Report 1972, p. 1.

and staffing procedures. Tuition is the principal source of income. Problems are many,[53] yet the schools continue to grow in attendance--from 46,127 to 73,940 (62 percent) during the ten year period from 1964 to 1975, as can be seen in Appendix A. In a study conducted in 1971, Helms reported community approval of the overseas school programs in staffing, curriculum, student discipline and counseling,[54] but no examination was made of student needs. Satisfaction was expressed with what _was_ happening, but no investigation was made of what the school community thought _should_ be happening, which is an essential part of an appraisal program.

Needs Appraisal Systems

The identification of student needs, establishment of consequent goals and objectives, as well as the determination of whether the needs are being met, are vital parts of the process required for sound decision-making and future-planning. One must begin with needs:

> When a school says that it exists 'to meet the needs of students,' what is it really saying? That it has assessed _all_ the needs of its students and can meet them? Or just _some_ of the needs? If so, which ones? Perhaps 'needs' could be dissolved into a statement about the aim of education as seen and practiced by School X. Or perhaps the word means nothing at all. (Italics in the original.)[55]

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[53]Albert A. Chuder, "The International School Principal," in _American Education Abroad_, p. 117 ff.

[54]V. Donald Helms, "Community Approval and Disapproval of American Overseas School Programs."

[55]George F. Kneller, "Logic and Analysis," in _Foundations of Education_, p. 277.

Assuming that the word does have meaning and, indeed, that needs can be described and given priorities, some kind of forecasting or appraisal system is called for. Coffing et al., have developed what they call, "Needs Assessment Methodology," which is a carefully detailed ten step process outlining their suggested procedure. They take considerable care in defining the importance of knowing, "Who needs what as defined by whom?"[56]

The Center for the Study of Evaluation at the University of California at Los Angeles, has developed a needs assessment kit which uses a Q-sort technique and contains a goal taxonomy.[57]

Spears reported a systematized goal study in the Phi Delta Kappan,[58] which has been used as the basis for this present study.

Several elements of commonality may be identified among the three:

1. Establishment of a collective viewpoint by including a broad cross section of opinion, not the least of which is the contribution of the students.
2. Carefully defined needs even to the degree of providing a preordained list to which additions may be offered.
3. Priority ranking completed by the respondents.
4. Delimitation of the types of needs to be defined.

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[56]Richard T. Coffing et al., A Needs Analysis Methodology for Education of the Handicapped. (North Haven, Connecticut: Area Cooperative Educational Services, 1973).

[57]Ralph Hoepfner, National Priorities for Elementary Education. (Los Angeles: University of California Center for the Study of Evaluation, 1973).

[58]Spears, "Kappans Ponder Goals of Education."

Costar has proposed the use of a follow-up study not only as an evaluative technique, but as continuing method of appraising student needs through the schools' products--former students.[59]

In needs assessment systems, the actual assessment is considered to be only the first step in a process that will subsequently include the establishment of goals based on the ranked needs; the creasion by the professional staff of specific objectives which evolve from the goals; and ultimately, an evaluation process that determines how successfully the objectives have been achieved. The author of this study set out to complete the first step. The remaining steps are left to the 139 A/OS-assisted schools.

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[59]James W. Costar, The Follow-up Study. (East Lansing: Michigan State University, Institute for International Studies in Education, 1974).

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF DATA

This study was conducted in three phases:

Phase I -- Amidst the uniqueness, divergence, and dispersal of the overseas schools, it was predicated that an obvious, but perhaps overlooked element of similitude was the student. Though the schools themselves may be located in a wide variety of countries and sites; though they be subjected to discordant pressures; though they be administered in differing styles, their very existence as American schools would seem to be de facto evidence that prime among their goals must be the meeting of needs of American students.

A search of the literature revealed that among the various methods of defining the goals of education, the Phi Delta Kappa (PDK) system yielded the one that was best backed with current research data and most likely to produce a usable ranking of student needs.

Phase II -- The PDK approach, however, was developed for and validated in Stateside schools. An additional dimension was added, therefore, to allow for the expression of needs that would be attributable to overseas residence. Through the use of a survey instrument, opinions were solicited from administrators, board of

education members, parents, students, and teachers presently associated with twenty selected overseas schools equally distributed throughout the world.

Phase III -- The data were collected, organized by ranking, and subjected to statistical analysis.

As originally conceived, a simple ranking of needs showing where each of the five groups placed its priorities would have been sufficient to accommodate the purpose of the study. The most important needs would be those with the highest priorities, as determined from a 0-5 scale, while acute differences between groups would serve to lay the groundwork for subsequent analysis and evaluation by future researchers. This was done (Table 1), but it was not enough.

Reliance upon such a simple exposition could be misleading if there are differences existing among the schools and the groups within the schools. Therefore, a determination had to be made whether such differences existed, while, at the same time care had to be taken not to manipulate the data in a way that would present an analysis with which the respondents would disagree. Said another way, if the data are interpreted differently from what the respondents had anticipated, their original responses might have been different. This is not to say that interpretation must conform to some anticipated result, but rather that if respondents expect a straight-forward ranking, they react accordingly. If they know something other than a ranking will occur, their response might be different. This point is crucial because the researcher extended the original concept of mere

Table 1. Overall Ranked Order of Student Needs.

Item No.*	Description of Needs	Rank	Mean Rating
21	Develop Good Character & Self-Respect	1	3.72
19	Pride in Work & Feeling of Self-Worth	2	3.63
4	Skills in Reading/Writing/Speaking/Listening	3.5	3.62**
13	Desire for Learning Now and in the Future	3.5	3.62
7	How to Examine & Use Information	5	3.48
9	Get Along w/People w/Whom We Work & Live	6	3.42
2	Get Along w/People Who Think/Act/Dress Differently	7	3.38
22	Gain a General Education	8	3.33
20	Learn the Value of a Multi-Cultural Experience	9	2.85
3	Understand Changes That Take Place in the World	10	2.80
1	Be a Good Citizen	11.5	2.57**
17	Appreciate Beauty & Culture in the World	11.5	2.57
6	Practice Democratic Ideas and Ideals	13	2.53
10	Being an American in a Foreign Country	14	2.38
14	How to Use Leisure Time	15	2.10
12	How to Manage Money/Property/Resources	16	2.08
15	Prepare for Re-entry to Living in the U.S.	17	2.03
8	Practice Skills of Family Living	18	1.97
18	Information Needed to Make Job Selections	19	1.95
5	Adjust to a Mobile Life	20	1.92
16	Practice Ideas of Health & Safety	21	1.83
11	Skills to Enter a Specific Field of Work	22	1.60

*On the survey documents used in the study, no numeration was used so as to avoid any appearance of pre-ranking. For convenience of exposition, the needs as originally listed have been numbered, post hoc, from 1-22 and are referred to as "Item Numbers."

**In cases of tied scores, the mid-point between them was used to denote position of rank.

ranking by comparing groups through statistical measures, but in so doing, care was taken to underscore the fact that absolute inferences are not and, in fact, cannot be drawn.

The overseas population is so diverse and subject to such mobility that some question can be raised as to how accurately or universally their opinions can be projected. Not only are the various programs difficult to measure, but they are subject to extensive variation from one year to the next. Change is an essential variable that must be borne in mind when conclusions are drawn and recommendations are offered.

Finally, note must be taken by the reader that the appraisal of needs is normally the first step in a three part process; the remaining two being the establishment of objectives designed to meet the needs, and an evaluative process that seeks to determine if the objectives have been accomplished. Thus, the determination of needs can be so thoroughly related to a specific time and place, that the true value of any research study about overseas students may not lie in the conclusions drawn but rather in the method that has been suggested for appraising needs and that some kind of ranking has been established for comparative purposes.

This researcher, then, sought not only to rank student needs as submitted by five selected groups of people, but also analyzed the rankings with the intention of demonstrating different techniques of using the collected data.

Table 2. Summary of Rankings by Group.

Student Needs Listed by Overall Ranked Order	Administrators Mean	Rank	Board Members Mean	Rank	Parents Mean	Rank	Students Mean	Rank	Teachers Mean	Rank
Good Character & Self-Respect.	3.67	6	4.08	1	4.16	2	2.83	7.5	3.83	2
Pride in Work & Self-Pride	3.83	2	3.67	4	3.42	4.5	3.50	4	3.75	3.5
Reading/Writing/Speaking/Listening	3.75	4.5	3.67	4	4.33	1	2.75	10	3.58	5.5
Learning Now & in the Future	3.83	2	3.75	2	3.42	4.5	3.58	3	3.50	7.5
Examine & Use Information	3.83	2	3.67	4	3.00	8	2.75	10	4.17	1
Get Along w/People w/Whom We Work/Live	3.75	4.5	3.42	6	3.17	6	3.25	5	3.50	7.5
Get Along w/People Who Think/Act Differently .	3.08	8	2.92	8	3.08	7	4.08	1.5	3.75	3.5
Gain a General Education	3.33	7	3.25	7	3.75	3	2.75	10	3.58	5.5
Value a Multi-Cultural Experience	2.25	16.5	2.42	13	2.50	10.5	4.08	1.5	3.00	10
Understand Changes in the World	2.83	10.5	2.50	11	2.25	12.5	3.00	6	3.42	9
Be a Good Citizen	3.00	9	2.67	9	2.75	9	1.67	20	2.75	12.5
Appreciate Beauty & Culture in the World . . .	2.50	12	2.50	11	2.17	14.5	2.83	7.5	2.83	11
Practice Democratic Ideas & Ideals	2.83	10.5	2.33	14	2.50	10.5	2.25	14.5	2.75	12.5
Being American in a Foreign Country	2.25	16.5	2.50	11	2.25	12.5	2.33	12.5	2.58	14
How to Use Leisure Time	2.33	15	1.92	17.5	1.83	19	2.00	17	2.42	15
Manage Money/Property/Resources	2.50	12	1.75	19.5	2.17	14.5	2.17	16	1.83	20.5
Re-entry to Living in the U.S.	2.00	20	1.92	17.5	1.92	17	2.25	14.5	2.08	17
Family Living Skills	2.08	19	2.25	15	1.83	19	1.75	18.5	1.92	19
Information to Make Job Selections	2.17	18	2.00	16	1.83	19	1.75	18.5	2.00	18
Adjust to a Mobile Life	1.83	21	1.58	21.5	1.67	21.5	2.33	12.5	2.17	16
Practice Ideas of Health & Safety	2.50	12	1.75	19.5	1.67	21.5	1.42	21	1.83	20.5
Skills to Enter a Specific Field of Work . . .	1.50	22	1.58	21.5	2.00	16	1.33	22	1.58	22

Collected Data

As seen in Table 2, there was general agreement among the five respondent groups in their rankings, though there are certain differences in the priorities within ranks. For analytic purposes, the midpoint of the mean scores of the total ranking (2.66) was chosen to establish a decision point to separate the more important from the less important needs. In this manner it can be seen that there is complete agreement among the five respondent groups with the placement of the first eight needs in the top ten. Likewise there is total agreement with the placement of the last ten needs in the less important category.

The area of disagreement occurs among those needs ranked nine, ten, and the tie for eleven. Among those, only three would appear to be sufficiently disparate to warrant noting.

Table 3. Disagreement in Placement of Needs Into More Important and Less Important Categories.

Overall Ranking	Administrators	Board Members	Parents	Students	Teachers
9	16.5	13	-	-	-
10	-	11	12.5	-	-
Decision Point - - -					
11.5	9	9	9	-	-
11.5	-	-	-	7.5	-

Administrators placed the ninth ranked need in sixteenth place; the students ranked the eleventh place need in seventh place, while the board members put the ninth ranked need in thirteenth place.

To look more closely at these data to get a measure of relationship between the ranks, a rank order correlation using a Spearman rho formula was calculated. The students' ranked list of needs was compared with each of the other four groups. Statistical significance was found at the .01 level in all cases. A true relationship, that is, concurrence of opinion among all the groups, may be accepted with confidence.

Table 4. Comparison of Students' Ranking With the Other Four Groups.

	r	t - statistic
Students vs. Administrators	.57	3.102
Students vs. Board Members	.67	4.036
Students vs. Parents	.64	3.725
Students vs. Teachers	.77	5.397
df = 20; .01 = 2.845	.05 = 2.086	

Using the same information obtained from Table 4, further substantiation of general concurrence of ranking may be noted by squaring the obtained r's. The result was an approximation of the degree of concurrence. Thus:

$.57^2 = .3249$; $.67^2 = .4489$; $.64^2 = .4096$; $.77^2 = .5929$

It was found that there existed an overlapping of opinion in the rankings by groups as follows:

1. Students and Administrators -- 32 percent
2. Students and Board Members -- 45 percent
3. Students and Parents -- 41 percent
4. Students and Teachers -- 59 percent

Ranking By Dimensions

It will be remembered that the original list of educational goals as composed by PDK numbered eighteen (See page 28ff). To those were added four needs that were specifically related to overseas students, thus constituting an overseas dimension. Upon examination of the original eighteen, it appeared that they, too, fell into four readily classifiable dimensions. The five dimensions did not constitute a priority ranking, but rather they serve as a classification system that allowed additional analysis as well as provided a convenient method for discussing results that will follow in Chapter V. The Classification System and its rankings can be seen on Table 5.

Using the mean score of each group on each of the five dimensions it was observed that all the respondents are in accord in rating the academic dimension as first priority, with the socio-political being second. With the exception of the administrators who ranked it fourth, the management dimension was considered last, as is shown on Table 6.

Table 5. Classification of Need Dimensions and Ranking by Groups.

Need Item	Student Needs Classified by Dimension	Overall	Administrators	Bd. Members	Parents	Students	Teachers
	ACADEMIC DIMENSION						
4	Reading/Writing/Speaking/Listening	3.5	4.5	4	1	10	5.5
13	Learning Now and in the Future	3.5	2	2	4.5	3	7.5
7	Examine & Use Information	5	2	4	8	10	1
22	Gain a General Education	8	7	7	3	10	5.5
	SOCIO-POLITICAL DIMENSION						
9	Get Along w/People w/Whom We Work & Live	6	4.5	6	6	5	7.5
2	Get Along w/People Who Think/Act Differently	7	8	8	7	1.5	3.5
3	Understand Changes in the World	10	10.5	11	12.5	6	9
1	Be a Good Citizen	11.5	9	9	9	20	12.5
6	Practice Democratic Ideas & Ideals	13	10.5	14	10.5	14.5	12.5
	PERSONAL DIMENSION						
21	Develop Good Character and Self-Respect	1	6	1	2	7.5	2
19	Pride in Work & Feeling of Self-Worth	2	2	4	4.5	4	3.5
17	Appreciate Beauty & Culture in the World	11.5	12	11	14.5	7.5	11
8	Practice Skills of Family Living	18	19	15	19	18.5	19
16	Practice Ideas of Health & Safety	21	12	19.5	21.5	21	20.5
	OVERSEAS DIMENSION						
20	Learn the Value of a Multi-Cultural Experience	9	16.5	13	10.5	1.5	10
10	Being American in a Foreign Country	14	16.5	11	12.5	12.5	14
15	Re-entry to Living in the U.S.	17	20	17.5	17	14.5	17
5	Adjust to a Mobile Life	20	21	21.5	21.5	12.5	16
	MANAGEMENT DIMENSION						
14	How to Use Leisure Time	15	15	17.5	19	17	15
12	Manage Money/Property/Resources	16	12	19.5	14.5	16	20.5
18	Information Needed to Make Job Selection	19	18	16	19	18.5	18
11	Develop Skills to Enter Specific Field of Work	22	22	21.5	16	22	22

Table 6. Ranking by Group By Dimension.

Need Dimension	Overall Ranking	Administration	Board Members	Parents	Students	Teachers
Academic	1	1	1	1	1	1
Socio-Political	2	2	2	2	2	2
Personal	3	3	3	3	4	3
Overseas	4	5	4	4	3	4
Management	5	4	5	5	5	5

Another difference can be seen. While the academic dimension of needs was agreed upon as being the highest priority, two needs within the personal dimension received the highest overall priority.

Academic Dimension

1. From Table 5 it can be seen that the adult respondents (administrators, board members, parents, and teachers) assigned a considerably higher priority to the basic skills than did the students. In fact, for the parents, the development of basic skills was their highest priority.

2. The school people (administrators and teachers) considered the need to know how to examine and use information as their highest priority. The parent group of both board members and parents placed it lower while the students placed it yet further down the list of priorities.

3. Parents placed the acquisition of basic skills and gaining a general education in a higher category than any of the others.

4. Teachers designated a lower priority to the need to learn now and in the future than did any other group.

Socio-Political Dimension

General agreement was found within this dimension with one exception--the students ranked the need to be a good citizen close to their lowest priority in twentieth place, while the adults saw it as tied for eleventh.

Personal Dimension

1. Board members, parents, and teachers agreed in the placement of the development of good character and self-respect in first or second priority while administrators and students ranked the same need in sixth and seventh place respectively.

2. Students rated the need to appreciate beauty and culture in the world higher than did any of the adult groups.

3. Concern for the need to understand and practice ideas of health and safety ranked among the lowest needs for each of the groups but the administrators who saw it as twelfth in rank.

Overseas Dimension

Greater discrepancies between the student and adult groups occurred in the overseas dimensions than in any of the other dimensions.

1. The students ranked as foremost in importance the need to learn the value of multi-cultural experience as well as the need to respect and get along with people who think, dress, and act differently. These two needs are probably closely interrelated but are separated in dimension because of the arbitrariness in the researcher's division of sub-groups.

2. Student concern for adjusting to a mobile life received considerably higher priority than it did for administrators, board members and parents. Students ranked mobility higher than did teachers, but the difference was not so great as it was for the other three groups.

Management Dimension

Uniform concurrence of low priority occurred in the management dimension except that administrators placed higher priority on management of money, property, and resources than did the others, while parents showed greater concern for the need to develop skills to enter a specific field of work.

Simple observation of the rankings within each of the dimensions does demonstrate that there are differences of ranked needs. As has been observed within the personal dimension, for example, the board members, parents, and teachers ranked as first and second the need to develop good character and self-respect, while the students ranked the same need as tied for seventh. How important is that difference and how important are the other differences that can be noted among the five respondent groups?

To determine this, a one-way analysis of variance was computed to disclose whether there was a significant difference among them. Table 7 shows that, in all cases, no differences were found at the .05 level of significance.

The application of both the Spearman rho and the one-way analysis of variance to the collected data demonstrated that there

Table 7. Analysis of Variance for Difference Among the Dimensions.

Need Dimension	Source	SS	df	ms	F	p
Academic	Total	763	59	-	-	-
	Between Groups	79	4	19.75	1.59	>.05
	Within Groups	684	55	12.43	-	-
Socio-Political	Total	1308	59	-	-	-
	Between Groups	52	4	13.00	.559	>.05
	Within Groups	1256	55	22.83	-	-
Personal	Total	1428	59	-	-	-
	Between Groups	71	4	17.75	.719	>.05
	Within Groups	1357	55	24.67	-	-
Overseas	Total	1211	59	-	-	-
	Between Groups	69	4	17.25	.830	>.05
	Within Groups	1142	55	20.76	-	-
Management	Total	704	59	-	-	-
	Between Groups	13	4	3.25	.258	>.05
	Within Groups	691	55	12.56	-	-

df = 4, 55; F @ .05 = 2.61

is no significant difference among the groups. Yet, the fact remains that there appears to be a difference in priorities across the groups on some of the needs. This apparent contradiction may be the result of the fact that the use of rankings as a method of determining priorities has the effect of creating the appearance that the lowest rated needs are of little consequence. Such, of course, is not the case. Ranking indicates a higher priority when respondents are forced to choose among the given needs. What ranking does not allow for is an indication of how important any one of the needs might be. Thus, the students' composite placement of the need to develop skills

in reading, writing, speaking and listening, as their tenth priority should not imply that they feel this need to be unimportant. It simply means that, forced to choose, the students placed higher priorities on other needs. The difference in importance between needs ranked first and tenth could be slight, while the difference between ten and twelve, as an example, could be great. Ranking does not demonstrate this difference in importance.

One method of examining the difference is the application of the chi square test to each of the needs. To accomplish this, the groups were collapsed to three as follows:

Group I, combined administrators and teachers into a category called, "staff."

Group II, students.

Group III, combined board members and parents into a group called, "parents."

The preferences selected by the groups were then divided into a three dimensional range related to the respondents' choices on each of the needs. A frequency count was made of their votes according to the following scale:

Low -- Choices 0, 1, and 2
Medium-- Choice 3
High -- Choices 4 and 5

The basic chi square formula, $X^2 = \frac{\Sigma (O-E)^2}{E}$ was then applied to the resulting observed contingency table. Use of the chi square technique on each of the twenty-two needs yielded the following results:

Table 8. Contingency Coefficient Measure of Relationship Among Needs.

Item #	X^2	Item #	X^2	Item #	X^2
1.	2.04	8.	2.12	15.	2.95
2.	5.80	9.	2.18	16.	5.81
3.	5.57	10.	0.96	17.	6.35
4.	10.31*	11.	1.16	18.	0.98
5.	4.94	12.	0.68	19.	1.27
6.	7.41	13.	4.53	20.	8.66
7.	19.06*	14.	1.59	22.	4.46

* Significant at .05 level. df = 4; α .05 = 9.50

Two needs (Learn skills in reading, writing, speaking, and listening; and, Learn how to examine and use information), were identified as having ranks which differed significantly at the .05 level of confidence, which means that staff, parents, and students differed significantly in their placement of these two needs. An examination of Table 9 shows the derivation of chi square for these two needs and indicates where the difference lies.

In each case, it was the student group that disagreed with the staff and parent group. The need to learn how to examine and use information received more high responses from staff and parents, while the need to learn basic skills received a considerably lower frequency of response from students.

As discussed previously, this difference between groups cannot be inferred to mean a lack of interest in the specific need on the part of the student group, but it can serve to demonstrate a difference of priority between the students and adult groups.

Table 9. Chi Square Derivation of Need Items #4 and #7.

Need Item 4: Learn Skills in Reading, Writing, Speaking & Listening.

	LOW			MEDIUM			HIGH		
	O	E	$\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$	O	E	$\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$	O	E	$\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$
Group 1 (staff)	6	6.0	0.0	3	4.8	.68	15	13.2	.25
Group 2 (students)	6	3.0	3.0	4	2.4	1.07	2	6.6	3.21
Group 3 (parents)	3	6.0	1.5	5	4.8	.01	16	13.2	.59

Need Item 7: Learn How to Examine and Use Information.

	LOW			MEDIUM			HIGH		
	O	E	$\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$	O	E	$\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$	O	E	$\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$
Group 1 (staff)	3	5.5	1.14	2	5.2	1.97	19	13.2	2.55
Group 2 (students)	4	2.8	.51	7	2.6	7.45	1	6.6	4.75
Group 3 (parents)	7	5.5	.41	4	5.2	.28	13	13.2	.00

Multivariate Analysis of Variance

One last inspection of the data was undertaken to determine whether significant differences might be found about the means. Multivariate analysis of variance was chosen to accomplish this task for three reasons. First, the computer facilities at Michigan State University were available with a prepared program for this standard research technique.[1] Second, observed effects may be accepted with reasonable confidence as not being due to outside or "nuisance" factors. Third, such a design offers the potential for extended interpretative capabilities.

A summary of the findings of the analysis is shown in Table 9. The F-ratio for the test of no difference among the twenty-two needs was .8874. A p of less than .7257 was found. It may be concluded that no difference exists among groups.

Statistically, the finding of no difference is the terminal point in the analysis. Practically, however, the observation is offered that needs four, seven, and twenty (Learn how to examine and use information; Learn skills in reading, writing, speaking, and listening; Learn the value of multicultural experience) did achieve p-values that were not only low, but were markedly different from all the others. These bear a noteworthy relationship to the chi square values reported on page 72.

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[1]The program selected to analyze the data was Jeremy Finn, Multivariance: Univariate and Multivariate Analysis of Variance, Co-Variance and Regression (Fortran IV) 4th ed. (Buffalo: State University of New York, June, 1968).

Table 10. Analysis of Variance Table for Differences Among Groups.

F-Ratio for Multivariate Test of Equality of Mean Vectors = .8874
D.F. = 88 & 136.9199; p Less Than .7257

Tests for differences among groups on student needs:

Need Item	Mean Square	Error	F[a]	p<
1	3.2250	1.6395	1.1998	.3214
2	3.0667	1.3067	1.7959	.1428
3	2.4417	1.3872	1.2689	.2934
4	3.8583	1.2845	2.3384	.0666
5	1.2500	1.2904	.7507	.5619
6	.7750	1.6940	.2701	.8961
7	4.1833	1.1774	3.0175	.0255
8	.4833	1.4142	.2417	.9135
9	.6250	1.3217	.3578	.8376
10	.2750	1.6129	.1057	.9801
11	.7250	1.2898	.4358	.7822
12	1.0833	1.3635	.5827	.6765
13	.3583	1.3932	.1846	.9455
14	.8083	1.2661	.5043	.7328
15	.2333	1.4832	.1061	.9800
16	1.9583	1.0829	1.6699	.1702
17	.9333	1.4585	.4387	.7801
18	.3167	1.1248	.2503	.9083
19	.3583	1.2828	.2178	.9275
20	6.6417	1.3422	3.6867	.0100
21	3.4000	1.4307	1.6610	.1723
22	1.7500	1.2957	1.0424	.3939

Alpha = .05

Unsolicited Responses

Is usable information received from individuals who have to respond to a preordained list of statements? Based on the responses on the open-ended portion of the survey instrument, it appeared that the respondents understood the process. No comments were received indicating a lack of clarity, but an examination of the comments that were made may offer some insights about how the statement of needs was interpreted. Initially, a summary of which groups volunteered comments shows high student interest.

Table 11. Percentage of Voluntary Comments by Group.

Group	Number of Returns	Number of Comments	Percent
Administrators	12	1	8
Board Members	12	4	33
Parents	12	2	17
Students	12	8	67
Teachers	12	2	17
Total	60	17	28

Comments, reproduced exactly as written, were as follows:

Administrators

1. Out of twelve seniors sampled, nine indicated questions concerning career choices and further education were the most important unanswered questions for them.

Board Members

1. Adolescents, wherever they live, have most of these needs, in my opinion. I have given five crosses to those needs which may be of particular value to the overseas student.

   Two other needs I would add are a greater need for security and structure, available largely in family and school only in a foreign culture, and a greater need to know another language than his own.

2. The survey was difficult for me to answer. I find the questions too strongly focused on social aspects or learning experiences and substantially lacking on academic content emphasis. I thought Dewey was dead!

3. In item "Understand and practice Democratic Ideas and Ideals", a person must accept or learn about the responsibilities that go with the rights and privileges of our American democracy.

4. Questions are put according to criteria of present educational community. I feel that our present technological culture, reflected in our education, has so emphasized specialization and compartmentation, that a special effort should be made in our educational institutions to impart the need always to relate to the whole. We need also an understanding of selection of objectives; approaches to problem solving; planning and action.

Parents

1. I agree generally with the questions--but do think you're getting to the children about 10 years late.

2. Related to several of the above but worthy of specific mention is the importance of learning the foreign languages that overseas living exposes the student to. This is the key to many other things, yet many American teenagers overseas tend to live in "American Ghettos" which effectively insulate them from the local culture, language, and value system.

   Some items are rated low not because they are seen as unimportant but because they seem to be almost automatic and need little special attention. All items seem important. Those rated lowest seem to take care of themselves fairly well.

Students

1. I don't think it is possible to be an American! You must do what you think or believe to be right, regardless of where you come from.

   It is absolutely impossible to understand or practice democracy in a private school. For a private school is based upon the 'reserve the right,' idea. The majority does not rule what so ever. Thus in light of this, students become more disillusioned with the system of democracy. Instead they are more likely to become more aware of the way the school (private) is run or set up--dictatorship or totalitarian, possibly communism--certainly not democratic.

2. Somehow, I don't feel that "temporary warm friendships" will be a gain. I believe that any friendship suffers in parting and once at the level of warm can't or shouldn't be "temporary".

3. Under the statement Learn how to be a good manager of money, property and resources, the need statement "Develop skills in management of natural and human resources" is highly important in today's world. I feel that students in overseas schools should be made more aware of this. If this were a separate statement I would give it five marks.

   I think that "understanding of the process of successful entrance and attendance in college" is very important for higher secondary students. As a senior, I would like to see this listed as a separate point.

4. In an American school overseas, tact is a very important factor of international living. Diplomacy might be the correct word. You have to be willing to accept the other person's opinions without making him feel too different. If he acts differently, you have to take it as it is and not laugh or chide. That's what makes life overseas so interesting and meeting new people so exhilarating.

   Also, it's important to mix in with everybody and not stick with one group or clique. If you stay with your own kind, (be it the same nationality, religion, or interests) you rarely get to meet those wonderful people around you.

5. In the foreign countries I have lived, the native people have been very receptive and friendly. This friendliness is sometimes taken advantage of by foreigners and in time, develops the arrogant American.

6. Develop working knowledge of parliamentary procedure or other form of group decision making.

   Develop active interest and awareness of religious differences (as well as cultural).

7. These answers ought to vary from country to country and in each country, from person to person. I answered in my opinion though I feel that other people in this high school may feel other things are more important. For example, new people here would probably find language is their obstacle where I have lived here long enough to be fluent in _____. I'm basically worried about how to readjust to the American style of living independently.

   _____ is a fairly easy country for Americans to adjust to since it's easy to feel close to the people here. Many of this country's problems are similar to those in the U.S. I'm mostly concerned about how the impact of returning to my home country will affect me.

   One question that may prove useful to a survey such as this one would be: What is your main obstacle in your overseas country.

8. What Americans must realize is that they will not be exalted among other people of the world. What many of us (Americans) don't realize is that not everything American is necessarily good. One can appreciate the value of an experience--such as living abroad--more than the average American student can appreciate the institutions he participates in. Living abroad is good if one keeps his Americanism in perspective and takes some insights as to why democracy doesn't exist in every country of the world.

Teachers

1. Most interesting! Great perception has been shown in this survey.

2. Become as fluent as possible in at least one foreign language.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

Historically, the end of World War II heralded a new era--an era characterized by change. While change had always been a part of human society, what was new and different was the rapidity of change. Whereas telecommunications could bring people together in one instant, jet transportation could separate them again in the next. The direct influence of colonialism declined and in its place new nations struggled with their independence and self-identity. Technical and economic assistance flowed from developed countries, serving to midwife the arrival of newly born nations. Industrial organizations seized fresh opportunities to market their products across international boundaries. A mass of people, glacier-like, broke free and became an avalanche of movement.

In their concern about gross national product, import-export balance, trade agreements, political and ideological advantage, nations sent their representatives to new and different lives throughout the world. Almost unnoticed in the sudden shift was the fact that transient people brought along with them their families. What happens to the dependents of the Japanese automaker who moves from Tokyo to Tucson?

To the family of the Venezuelan oil man moving from Maracaibo to Manhattan? To Americans severing traditional ties with Tahoe for Taipai?

The author of this study sought answers to such questions, though on a far less grandiose scale. The direction that the research took was based upon the logic that those people who leave the familiarity of their native environment might be expected to have a different set of behavioral needs than if they had remained at home and different from those people indigenous to the country of their new residence.

One way of addressing the questions, "What happens to dependents?" and, "Do they have special needs?" would be to investigate one small segment of that population. The author observed that in the case of Americans assigned overseas, they not only take along their families, but, in effect, their schools go along too. In the American tradition of child-rearing, the schools share in the responsibility of the children's upbringing. It seemed reasonable, then, to use the schools as a means of studying one portion of the overseas population--the students--and to investigate their needs.

Summary

To establish a sample, respondents were chosen from among those residing throughout the world, which was divided into five geographic regions. To reduce the possibility of responses being distorted by environmental or school considerations, sites were geographically far apart within each of the five regions and schools were equally distributed according to size. To determine who might best be

conversant with students and their needs, five groups of people were deemed most likely candidates:

1. School administrators, whose job it is to build a program around the needs of students.
2. Board of education members, who determine policies in view of student needs.
3. Parents of students.
4. Students themselves.
5. Teachers, whose prime function is based upon an understanding of individual needs.

A search of the literature uncovered little research related to the needs of overseas school-attending youth. Concurrence among researchers as to a definition of needs was not found, but most generally needs have been used interchangeably with educational goals. Phi Delta Kappa was found to have a current and well-tested goals assessment process which included eighteen basic statements defining educational goals. An additional set of four needs was identified by administrators presently assigned to overseas schools. The combined total of twenty-two needs was circulated among the 100 selected respondents, who were requested to indicate their preferences through a paring process that resulted in a five point Likert-type scale. Respondents from thirteen of the twenty schools (65 percent) replied. Four of the replies omitted survey documents from one of their respondents, while one respondent's return was rejected for failure to follow directions. The resulting number of usable documents amounted to sixty (twelve each from five groups) or a 60 percent response.

The concern of the author was not to determine whether students have needs, but rather with the relative importance that individuals place on specific needs within a preordained needs system. Such importance would seemingly be reflected in a priority ranking of needs from more important to less important. What had been anticipated was that there would, indeed, be differences of opinion; that the differences would be reflected in a high priority placement of the needs within the overseas dimension and that student opinions would vary markedly from the four other groups.

Mean ratings were used to rank needs in degrees of more and less importance. It was found that, in general, there was concurrence among the groups in the separation between more and less important. Despite the overall agreement in ranking, it was noted that there were differences between groups in the priority given to certain needs, as for example, the students' ranking tenth what the total group placed third; the students' ranking in a tie for first what the total group considered seventh and ninth; or the parents' ranking sixteenth what the others put last. Other inter-group discrepancies were visible as when the students listed first what the administrators placed sixteenth and the teachers placed tenth. To test the significance of the observed differences, the most robust test applied was the multivariate analysis of variance. No statistical difference was found at the .05 level of confidence.

To determine whether there was a difference across groups, a chi square test was applied to the frequency of the low, medium and high

responses given by staff, student, and parent groups. Students rated the need to learn skills in reading, writing, speaking, and listening significantly lower than the staff and parent groups. On the other hand, staff and parents rated the need to learn how to examine and use information significantly higher than students.

The matter of whether students as a group differed from the other four groups was examined by means of the Spearman rho formula. A true relationship, that is, concurrence of opinion, was found at the .01 level of confidence.

The twenty-two needs could be conveniently divided into five groupings called, "dimensions," i.e., academic, socio-political, personal, overseas, and management. When listed by rank, concurrence occurred except that administrators ranked the overseas dimension lower (fifth) than the other groups, while the students ranked it higher (third). A one-way analysis of variance was applied to the dimensional rankings. No significant differences were found.

From the various rankings which were observed there appeared to be differences among the groups, but when statistical tests were applied, no differences were found using the .05 level of confidence. Some doubt remains about the differences observed in three of the needs:

Learn skills in reading, writing, speaking and listening.

Learn how to examine and use information.

Learn the value of multi-cultural experience.

Students did differ perceptibly from the other groups in their rating of these three needs. Explanation of the apparent discrepancy might be attributable to the ranking process itself which forces choice without allowing the respondents to specify the degree of importance they place on their choices.

Conclusions

1. The overriding conclusion that must be reached is that, at the .05 level of confidence and among the five groups used in this study, there is no statistically significant difference in the ranking of student needs. A finding of no statistical difference, of course, is a positive finding, hence the study might be terminated at this point with the simple statement that there is no difference. Yet, it may be anticipated that the weight of contrary expectations to the finding calls for some discussion of the question, "Why was there no difference?"

2. On the basis of the so-called "generation-gap" alone, one might have expected that students should have differed considerably from the adults. Open to doubt, however, is the validity of the existence of a generation-gap. The fact that students did, in general, agree with adults might well call into question whether, in the overseas setting, such a "gap" exists. In conversations with overseas administrators prior to the start of this study, the author found that they were willing to predict that any study of overseas school-attending high school youth would uncover two all-pervasive concerns. One would

relate to the students' deep worry about returning to permanent residence in the United States. The other would be their compelling anxiety about being accepted into college and their fear of adjusting to its rigors once accepted. The evidence from this study clearly indicates neither of these needs to be of significant priority.

If the finding of no significance is to be doubted, perhaps the first place to look is at the research method. It is to be reiterated that from the sample and size of response no statistical inferences about a larger population may be drawn. What has been reported can only be looked upon as a measure of the opinions of the respondents. The size of the response, however, points to a warning that must be given to subsequent researchers who may wish to work within the same or a similar milieu. The problem of having to depend upon the mail is intense. Textbooks persistently warn researchers of their being overly-optimistic about responses, but in the instance of this study, the personal assurance on the part of the overseas administrators of their desire to participate, went beyond a cursory non-commital agreement. They do want to have some data to assist in their judgments. As specific examples of the mail problems, three vignettes apply:

1. A letter was received from one of the administrators in the sample two weeks after the data had been analyzed. In it was his voting summary sheet and an explanation that the research packet, originally mailed from the United States on April 22nd, did not reach him until June 20th when school had closed.

2. One of the respondents is a close personal associate of the researcher of twenty-five years standing. He is one of the many who encouraged this particular study. It is incomprehensible that his school's response has not been forthcoming for lack of interest.

3. A medical officer in the United States Department of State, whose responsibility it is to work with overseas youth, sent an appeal through the diplomatic pouch (which is notorious for its delay) to non-respondents offering his support to this study and urging quick response. Neither he nor the author has yet to receive replies.

Thus, while the response was less than anticipated there is no reason to reject the finding of no difference.

3. The research instrument itself and the ranking process may have affected the results, but it would be conjectural to say whether such affect may have been positive or negative. Some discussion of the instrumentation may be helpful.

Based upon the unsolicited responses on the open-ended portion of the survey instrument, it appeared that the respondents understood the process. No comments were received indicating lack of clarity, but an examination of the remarks that were made may offer some insights about how the statement of needs was viewed. Interpretations or judgments related to the specific comments themselves are left to the reader. Insofar as they help in an evaluation of the survey instrument, three observations can be made. First, the need to learn a foreign language received an almost subliminal placement on the survey form as part of the larger need to appreciate beauty and culture in the world. In view of the fact that most of the respondents are living in a country wherein English is not the

official language, the need to know that language is a pragmatic problem. It would seem safe to assume that had language learning received greater emphasis through its placement on the form, it may have been given a high priority. Second, there was some indication that since all of the needs were important, some individuals may have rated the needs on the basis of how well they were being met rather than how important they were, e.g., "Some items are rated low not because they are seen as unimportant but because they seem to be almost automatic and need little special attention." Third, some of the items listed as "similar" needs beneath the principal needs statements may not have been seen as amplifying but rather as distorting.

Whether or not the survey instrument itself created problems of response is unclear. Lacking any specific critical comments to the contrary, the instrument will be assumed as having been adequate to appraise student needs.

4. It must be borne in mind that although four specific needs were designed to be particularly appropriate to overseas residence, the other eighteen were designed specifically for Stateside use. It is not inconceivable that some of the eighteen, looked at from the overseas perspective, could lead to misinterpretation. It should also be noted that the PDK assessment process calls for group meetings to discuss the implications of the statements as well as to gain general agreement of meaning of the similar needs before any of the paring takes place. As an example, the two lowest ranked needs were: To Practice and Understand the Ideas of Health and Safety, and to Develop

Skills to Enter a Specific Field of Work. Of the former it will be noted that the intended explanatory needs suggest effective physical fitness programs, and a concern for public health and safety, which may appear to have their end in galvanizing community action. Americans, as guests in foreign countries, do not exert influence on community action which might be interpreted as interfering in local affairs. A low priority on the health and safety need, therefore, should not imply that Americans are unconcerned about health--especially diseases; or safety--specifically as it might apply to political turmoil. During the course of this study, for example, the school in Vientiane, Laos, was closed following the shake-up of the coalition government by the Pathet Lao. Three years ago, a coup resulted in the closing of the school in Kampala, Uganda. Even as this is being written, political unrest has brought about fighting and/or death in such cities as Athens, Beirut, and Tehran. Health and safety, as described on the form may be quite different from the health and safety as understood by the overseas residents.

In like manner, preparation for entering a specific field of work as it appears on the survey form suggests that employment is an immediate goal upon the completion of high school. Matriculation in college is more of an immediate goal for overseas youth than specific work. Not so much what will be studied at college as getting into college is what counts. The danger of misinterpretation lies in equating lack of interest in specific work with the importance of career education. In view of current Stateside interest, as well as

emphasis from the Department of Health, Education and Welfare, it is appropriate to suggest that low priority given to both the need to prepare for a specific field of work as well as the need to gain information needed to make job selections, might be contrary to the purposes of the A/OS requirement that the overseas schools be exemplars of current United States educational thinking and practices. More importantly it could be evidence of the postponement of career considerations that will not become easier in college. The low priority of this need might well be one of those items that "seem to be almost automatic and need little special attention." But do they?

Recommendations

1. Subsequent researchers should give consideration to alternate methods of collecting data other than by mail. Visitations are costly and would require special underwriting. Should the use of the mail be the only alternative, an extended time line would be advisable. Again, it can be costly, but telephone follow-ups would serve to improve results. Another practical suggestion would be to include in all contacts a form, to be returned to the researcher, to indicate that the research materials have been received.

2. Consideration ought to be given to another refinement of the modified PDK process used in this study. Other systems of assessment, modified for overseas use, would also be acceptable. Specifically, the methods proposed by Coffing[1] or by Hoepfner[2] would work well but

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[1]Coffing, A Needs Analysis Methodology.

[2]Hoepfner, National Priorities.

have improved chances for success when the researcher directs them personally on site.

3. In view of the rate of turnover in the overseas schools, A/OS ought to conduct or contract to have conducted cyclical repetitions of an assessment of student needs.

4. The process and findings of this study could have valuable application at each of the 139 A/OS-assisted schools, if the school personnel would use the material for their own assessment of their students' needs. Those wishing to conduct such an appraisal will find the Costar follow-up study plan[4] ideal. Particularly appropriate would be not just the delineation of needs, but the delegation of the responsibility of meeting those needs that could be just as well accomplished by others as by the school. In the final analysis, the investigation of student needs, the establishment of goals, the assignment of groups to be responsible for analyzing and meeting the needs, would have the wholesome effect of focusing attention on the students with the consequent hope that plans would evolve from such a coordinated effort that would fill a void that now exists.

General Implications

In a social science research effort, it is sometimes difficult to determine what is a proper balance between statistical and practical

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[3]Costar, The Follow-up Study.

significance. In this present study, the author found little statistical significance, other than high correlation of opinion both within and among the five groups. A statistician might stop at that point. Yet, there is the possibility that too great an adherence to statistical procedures might obscure some signposts that could well point the way to meaningful observations of a practical nature or could suggest areas of additional study.

In a post hoc review of the data, the author compiled a series of comparative rankings which can be found in Appendix D.[3] The discovery, in the original design, of concurrence of opinion among groups lead to the question of whether that agreement would hold up in schools of different sizes and/or different proportions of American and non-American enrollment. Schools with the highest proportion of United States student enrollment (Tehran, 100%; London, 95%; Athens, 87%; Singapore, 85%; Buenos Aires, 76%) and the highest proportion of non-United States student enrollment (San Salvador, 74%; Manila, 52%; Brasilia, 50%; Mexico City, 48%; Jakarta, 47%) were chosen for further examination. Since students and administrators had the lowest level of concurrence (see page 64), they were tested by means of the Spearman rho formula. It was found that, at the .05 level of confidence, students

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[4]Following the completion of the statistical analysis, partial returns from two schools were received with notes stating that the missing documents would be forthcoming. Complete returns were received from another school. All usable returns were added to the originals and a new computation was completed. The additions did not alter any of the original findings as reported in Chapter IV.

agreed with students (r = .74; t-statistic = 4.97) and administrators agreed with administrators (r = .52; t-statistic = 2.39), but in a comparison between students and administrators a difference occurred. Whereas there was a significant correlation of opinion between the students and administrators in those schools with the highest non-United States student enrollment (r = .50; t-statistic = 2.59), there was no significant correlation between students and administrators in schools with the highest proportion of United States student enrollment (r = .35; t-statistic = 1.69).

Table 12. Comparison of Students and Administrator Groups in Schools with Highest U.S. and Highest Non-U.S. Enrollment.

Highest U.S. Enrollment	Highest Non-U.S. Enrollment	r	t-statistic
Administrators	Administrators	.52	2.392
Students	Students	.74	4.969
	Students vs. Administrators	.50	2.586
Students vs. Administrators		.35	1.686
	df = 20 .05 = 2.086		

The immediate inference to be drawn might well be that the greater the United States student population, the more likelihood there will be that the relationships among individuals will approximate that of Stateside schools where differences of opinions may be expressed more openly.

Implications for Overseas School Administrators

A further analysis of the data using additional statistical methods might uncover, as shown immediately above, some significant differences. In the end, however, each school leader is going to have to decide how the evidence provided by this study will have practical application to the uniqueness of his/her individual school. The author has advanced the argument that diversity of operations and imposition of outside constraints renders each school different from others, yet he uses normative data to measure the diversity. The obvious contradiction may be explained by the fact that neither the schools themselves nor their administrations have been assessed. What is suggested is that the very ambiguities of operation, distinctions of pressures and differing styles of administration are precisely the factors that must be considered at each school--if student needs are to be met. Thus, a problem arises if students consider important (as they did) the need to "learn how to respect and get along with people who think, dress and act differently," while, at the same time, they are residing in a culture that tends to reject that same value as being an intrusion on their desire for separateness. On the other hand, a nation that seeks to embrace strangers, desiring to encourage cross-cultural interaction would be rendering a valuable assist to the schools attempting to meet this specific student need.

Each school leader might seek to analyze the concept of whether perceptions of the perceivers came about as a result of their role or their observations. Did they report what they felt, or what they thought others expected them to feel? Perceptions do not necessarily predict behavior. Teachers who rank first the need to "learn how to examine and use information," might well be expressing more the expectations of their role as teachers than a real need of students. Likewise, parents who rank first the need to "learn skills in reading, writing, listening and speaking," might be reflecting their own interest in basic skills and their own desire for their students' matriculation in college than they are expressing what is an actual student need. Subsequent study of the material presented in this research might call for a delineation that would separate perceived needs from accomplished needs. An example:

		1	2	3	4	5
Learn How to Adjust to a Mobile Life	Should be					
	Is					
Learn How to Use Leisure Time	Should be					
	Is					

The relationship of perceptions based upon role can be examined by comparing those needs in which there was a difference in preference of more than one mean score and analyzing the widest discrepancy of opinion within that need. In the present study, eight such needs were identified.

Need Item	Adminis-trators	Board Members	Parents	Students	Teachers
1	3.00			1.67	
2		2.92		4.08	
3			2.25		3.42
4			4.33	2.75	
7				2.75	4.17
20	2.25			4.08	
21			4.16	2.83	
22			3.75	2.75	

It may be observed that board of education members differed from the others only on one need. That disagreement was greatest with students on the need to "learn how to respect and get along with people who think, dress and act differently. Students deal, on a day to day basis, with new and different people, cultures and environments. It is to be expected that they would have a high degree of concern about adjustment. Board members, in their daily non-board activities, are more likely to be working with the status quo--with people much like themselves in job orientation. Thus board members rate higher the need to get along with people with whom they work.

Administrators differed from the other groups in their perceptions of two needs. These differences were most extreme with the students. In the case of the need to "learn how to be a good citizen," the administrators considered it more important than did the students, but the students rated the need to "learn the value of a multi-cultural experience," higher than the administrators. These choices, from the viewpoint of role, would indicate that the administrators, in preparing students for American citizenship, might minimize the need for a multi-cultural experience. The students, who spend so much of their lives

beyond the boundaries of the United States, do not necessarily feel the same attachment to America that the administrators do. Periodic return to the United States by the students may be insufficient to establish a strong sense of American identity. Their rotation among other nations, or even their lengthy residence in the same country, brings about a need to adjust to different cultures. Students may assume their Americanism, therefore, they place greater importance on their interaction with peoples among whom they rotate.

The teachers' areas of greatest disagreement were two--one with parents on the need to "learn about and try to understand changes that take place in the world," and with students on the need to "learn how to examine and use information." The disparity between the parents and teachers is understandable in terms of the parents wanting to have their children reflect what the parents liked about the United States. This is a past-orientation. The teachers are apt to be future-oriented in that what they teach has as much, if not more, application in the future as the past. The difference between the teachers and students is harder to reconcile unless it reflects the teachers' concern with daily role.

Aside from those already discussed, three additional disparate views between the students and the other groups were most pronounced with parents. These were: (1) learn skills in reading, writing, speaking and listening, (2) develop good character and self-respect, and (3) gain a general education. In all three cases, parents rated each need higher than did the students. Parents, living

overseas as a result of a job assignment, do not see their residence as permanent. One day they do expect to return to the United States. They also expect that their students will return to the United States for college. Their immediate concern for college entrance is reflected in their desire to have the schools be academically oriented. They worry if the school is not accredited; they hope for high student scores on the College Board exams. This is not to say that the students are not similarly concerned. They simply place higher priority on other, and perhaps more immediate, needs.

Other possibilities exist for understanding the fact that students concurred more with teachers than administrators. Most obvious would be that closer day-to-day relationships are possible between students and teachers. Generally, class loads in the overseas schools are extremely low. Teachers have greater opportunity for close interaction with students, hence greater individual attention can be extended. On the other hand, overseas administrators are known to have an unusually heavy responsibility for non-instructional problems that steal time from their activities at school. Such distractions as teacher housing, procurement of visas and work permits, long range requisition of supplies, meetings with local ministries, as well as currency and language adaptations add a burden to the administrators that keeps them from establishing close relationships with students. The recruitment process of finding and importing Stateside teachers is another factor that usurps extensive time. One complete month's absence from the school is not unusual. In

deference to the administrators, it should be pointed out that even though unusual distractions may keep them from building close direct contacts with the students, the fact that teachers do have close relationships might well be a reflection of the administrators' success in absorbing and solving time-consuming problems that free the teacher to spend time with students. The apparent result is that teachers receive a higher correlation in a survey, but the actual result is that administrative action provides, through the teacher, for student needs to be met.

General concurrence of opinion among students, board members and parents in the overseas setting is not unusual. Children, at an early age, learn to associate well in adult groups. The absence of college-aged Americans leaves peer groups and adults as the principal option for teen-ager's association. The lack of traditional American social outlets, especially the use of an automobile, reduces adolescent choices to participation in adult activities. The family unit tends to be closer with vacation and leisure time being accepted as part of normal family living. Traditional social and moral values characterize overseas American living. With ties to adults closer than occurs in the United States, it is reasonable to expect close correlation in the perception of needs.

One observation, previously made, must be reiterated. This study was restricted to the assessment of overseas American high school-aged students as perceived by Americans. The growing number of non-United States students attending A/OS-assisted schools may have

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One observation, previously made, must be reiterated. This study was restricted to the assessment of overseas American high school-aged students as perceived by Americans. The growing number of non-United States students attending A/OS-assisted schools may have

an impact on the methods that will be required to meet the needs of United States students. The curriculum may have to be expanded to include more planning to account for host country and third country students' needs. The exclusive concern with entrance into United States colleges may have to be modified to include entrance into host country colleges. Lack of interest in preparation for specific work, which persistently ranked lowest in this study, may have to be re-considered in view of some of the HCN's desire to enter their own labor market immediately upon graduation. What will have to occur will be a regular review of American student needs, as well as the needs of others, and careful consideration of precisely what student needs are the direct and sole responsibility of the schools and what needs can be more appropriately assumed by others.

Theoretical Considerations

In the introduction to Future Shock, Toffler discusses the difficulty of making credible and/or acceptable his predictions about the future:

> The inability to speak with precision and certainty about the future, however, is no excuse for silence. Where 'hard data' are available, of course, they ought to be taken into account. But where they are lacking, the responsible writer--even the scientist--has both a right and an obligation to rely on other kinds of evidence, including impressionistic or anecdotal data and the opinion of well-informed people.[5]

He suggests that it might be more important to be imaginative and insightful than to be one hundred percent right. "Theories do

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[5]Toffler, Future Shock, p. 5.

not have to be 'right' to be enormously useful. Even error has its uses."[6]

The writer of this present study has felt similar pangs of concern since so much of the information about overseas schools is more opinionated than factual. Useem puts it another way in the preface to her Third Culture Children: An Annotated Bibliography:

> The bibliography is spotty, but it is not because we haven't tried. Much of it has come from circuitous routes--ranging from magazines left in airports to trying to gather proceedings of conferences held in out-of-the-way places. Most of the pertinent material in this area simply has not been published--it remains buried in the memories of individuals, penned in diaries and letters, written in term papers, dittoed in school board minutes, and filed in reports to home offices, or recorded in the privileged notes of psychiatrists and psychologists.[7]

In this brief statement, Useem has summarized a fundamental problem encountered by those who seek to understand something about the lives of adolescents living beyond the boundaries of the United States. There simply is no central source of information. Yet in casual conversations, personal letters, and conferences among overseas educators, a common concern is regularly reiterated: How and when will some arrangement be made to provide some basic data that will assist those who must plan and make sound judgments about the needs of overseas American youth?

Presently, the schools offer the sole source of information, but each school is unique. Its operation is so dominated by local

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[6]Ibid., p. 6.

[7]Useem, Third Culture Children, p. i.

conditions that comparative analysis about how it meets its students' needs is at best abstruse. The very uniqueness of the schools renders questionable comparative judgments about its clientele. An enigma is evident--those interested in developing the schools' potential for meeting student needs seek pertinent information that might assist them in organization and planning, yet they are quick to point out that their dissimilar problems prevent comparative appraisal.

Hoepfner, et al., faced a similar dilemma in reporting their National Priorities for Elementary Education:

> The authors assumed that the more piecemeal approach to analysis, both more feasible and understandable, would not fail to uncover the major findings of interest to educators. While this belief is still held, sophisticated researchers may question the comprehensiveness of the reported findings.[8]

Bearing in mind Toffler's, Useem's, and Hoepfner's observations that what data exist are hard to come by, that what does exist ought to be presented and relied upon despite reservations that may be raised by sophisticated researchers, the author presented his findings and analyses not as absolute differences nor similarities in needs preferences, but rather as a base for consideration of the relationships among rhetorical, theoretical, and observable needs. More than anything, it represents a beginning.

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[8]Hoepfner, National Priorities, p. 65.

APPENDIX A

STUDENT POPULATION DISTRIBUTIONS AND ENROLLMENT

Appendix A

Distribution by Citizenship Group of Students Enrolled
in American-Sponsored Overseas Schools by Region

Region	Year	No. of Scls.	U.S. Citizens		NON-U.S. CITIZENS						Total Enrollment
					Host Country Citizens		Third Country Citizens		Total Non-U.S.		
			Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
So. & Cent. Amer.	1965-6	44	7,888	35.0	*	*	*	*	14,625	65.0	22,513
	1971-2	49	9,553	31.1	18,199	59.1	3,008	9.8	21,207	68.9	30,760
	1974-5	47	9,382	28.4	19,823	60.0	3,819	11.6	23,642	71.6	33,024
Europe	1965-6	26	5,659	74.3	*	*	*	*	1,962	25.7	7,621
	1971-2	31	6,559	62.8	1,346	12.9	2,542	24.3	3,888	37.2	10,447
	1974-5	36	8,721	61.8	2,082	14.8	3,301	23.4	5,383	38.2	14,104
Africa	1965-6	18	1,674	54.9	*	*	*	*	1,374	45.1	3,048
	1971-2	18	1,894	41.9	700	15.2	2,017	43.7	2,717	58.9	4,611
	1974-5	13	1,421	34.3	477	11.5	2,243	54.2	2,720	65.7	4,141

	1965-6	22	3,672	72.2	*	*	*	*	1,413	27.8	5,085
Near East & So. Asia	1971-2	22	6,334	66.4	1,006	10.6	2,196	23.0	3,202	33.6	9,536
	1974-5	24	5,752	66.0	598	7.9	2,361	27.1	2,959	34.0	8,711
	1965-6	11	6,189	78.7	*	*	*	*	1,671	21.3	7,860
East Asia	1971-2	15	10,732	77.6	740	5.3	2,365	17.1	3,105	22.4	13,837
	1974-5	19	9,855	70.6	1,045	7.5	3,060	21.9	4,105	29.4	13,960
	1965-6	121	25,082	54.4	*	*	*	*	21,045	45.6	46,127
TOTALS	1971-2	135	35,072	50.7	21,991	31.8	12,128	17.5	34,119	49.3	69,191
	1974-5	139	35,131	47.5	24,025	32.5	14,784	20.0	38,809	52.5	73,940

* Data not given for 1965-6.

Sources:

1965-6 from: American Association of School Administrators, The Mission Called O/OS. (Washington, D.C.: AASA, 1966), p. 14.

1971-2 from: Luebke, "American-Sponsored Overseas Schools," p. 12.

1974-5 from: Department of State, Fact Sheet.

Distribution by Citizenship Group of Students Enrolled
in Schools From Which Sample Was Drawn

Region	City	U.S. Citizens		NON-U.S. CITIZENS						Total Enrollment
				Host Country Citizens		Third Country Citizens		Total Non-U.S.		
		Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
So. & Cent. Amer.	Buenos Aires	274	75.5	22	6.0	67	18.5	89	24.5	363
	Brasilia	197	50.3	90	23.0	105	26.7	195	49.7	392
	San Salvador	379	26.2	941	65.0	127	8.8	1,068	73.8	1,447
	Mexico City	1,308	52.0	1,080	42.9	128	5.1	1,208	48.0	2,516
	TOTAL	2,158	45.7	2,133	45.2	427	9.1	2,560	54.3	4,718
Europe	London	1,533	94.9	6	0.4	76	4.7	82	5.1	1,615
	Athens	1,730	86.5	33	1.7	237	11.8	270	13.5	2,000
	Duesseldorf	185	61.2	35	11.6	82	27.2	117	38.8	302
	Madrid	366	68.0	54	10.0	118	22.0	172	32.0	538
	TOTAL	3,814	85.6	128	2.9	513	11.5	641	14.4	4,455
Africa	Addis Ababa	397	60.7	97	24.4	59	14.9	156	39.3	397
	Monrovia	297	58.2	79	15.5	134	26.3	213	41.8	510
	Cairo	234	53.2	0	0.0	206	46.8	206	46.8	440
	Kinshasa	289	54.7	36	6.8	203	38.5	239	45.3	528
	TOTAL	1,061	56.6	212	11.3	602	32.1	814	43.4	1,875
Near East & So. Asia	Tehran	2,437	100	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2,437
	Lahore	62	31.5	57	28.9	78	39.6	135	63.5	197
	Beirut	694	75.6	5	0.5	219	23.9	224	24.4	918
	New Delhi	238	69.6	3	0.9	101	29.5	104	30.4	342
	TOTAL	3,431	68.1	65	1.7	398	10.2	463	11.9	3,894
	Manila	1,047	48.5	386	17.9	724	33.6	1,110	51.5	2,157
	Singapore	1,532	85.1	9	0.5	259	14.4	268	14.9	1,800
	Jakarta	790	52.7	0	0.0	710	47.3	710	47.3	1,500
	Nagoya	96	47.8	86	42.8	19	9.4	105	52.2	201
	TOTAL	3,465	61.2	481	8.5	1,712	30.3	2,193	38.8	5,658
	ALL REGIONS	13,929	67.6	3,019	14.7	3,652	17.7	6,671	32.4	20,600

APPENDIX B

CORRESPONDENCE AND DIRECTIONS SENT TO RESPONDENTS

TO : AAIE CONFEREES FROM OVERSEAS SCHOOLS 02/19/75

FROM : T. F. Kelly (Former Superintendent, ACS, Monrovia, Liberia; Presently Ph.D. Candidate, MSU)

SUBJECT: Needs Assessment of American Students in A/OS Schools

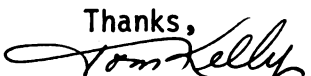
If you would like to contribute just one idea to a proposal that could provide you with some data that would have impact on your future planning, please read on. It should only take about two or three minutes of your time.

I am preparing a study designed to assess the future needs of high school students who are dependents of U.S. citizens and attending A/OS-assisted schools. To accomplish this goal I will use the Delphi Technique in the following way:

1. AAIE Conferees representing overseas schools will write what they feel to be the single most important high school student need to be met in the next five years.
2. A composite list of these suggestions will be sent to a stratified sample of A/OS-assisted schools.
3. The list will be refined and voted upon twice and, in the end, we will have a ranked list of the views of administrators, teachers, parents, students, and board members that will forecast the needs of one segment of your school population.

It is assumed that the finished list will be a valuable tool as you plan the future of your school. I'll be around during the conference to answer any questions you may have, but for now, won't you please complete the following statement?

Thanks,



Tom Kelly

- -

(Return to me or to A/OS Headquarters Room 548, Statler Hilton)

Like students everywhere, high school-aged dependents of U.S. citizens living overseas, have specific needs. Among the needs of the overseas students attending A/OS-assisted high schools, the one most important need that must be singled out for attention during the next five years (1975-1980) will be to . . .

_____

_____

_____

(Title of Your Present School Role, e.g., Superintendent, Principal, Board Member)

Check the region in which your school is located:

___ Africa; ___ Europe; ___NESA; ___ E. Asia; ___ Cent/So. Amer.

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

Institute for International Studies
College of Education

East Lansing . Michigan
48824 . USA

April 22, 1975

Dear

I can't believe that two months have gone by since we spoke together in Dallas!

As you will recall when we discussed my proposal to appraise the needs of American kids in the overseas schools, I said that I would have material waiting for you when you returned home from the AAIE conference. Several problems came up that necessitated a change in the research design--but not in the topic.

The result is that there will now be a lot less for you to do than we originally agreed upon, but the resulting delay threatens the completion of the study on schedule.

You can bail me out if you can get this survey instrument to the respondents and back to me as fast as possible. It's asking a hell of a lot, I know, but you can't imagine how grateful I will be if you can come through for me.

Appreciatively,

Thomas F. Kelly

Thomas F. Kelly

DIRECTIONS TO CHIEF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS FOR DISTRIBUTION AND RETURN OF SURVEY INSTRUMENTS

First of all, let me remind you that my goal is to appraise the needs of overseas American high school-aged students by soliciting the opinions of administrators, board members, parents, students and teachers. To accomplish this, Americans have to be the respondents.

To select the subjects, proceed as follows:

1. Enclosed are five envelopes, the contents of which are the same except for color coding. One is addressed to you. The others are for the: 1) Board of Ed chairman, 2) President of your PTO or like group, 3) President of your teachers' association, and 4) President of the senior class.
2. If each group exists at your school and is headed by an American, you simply have to get the envelopes out to the proper people and urge their quick return to you for mailing.
3. If non-Americans are leaders, select the next ranking person who is American.
4. In the absence of organizations representing the named groups, proceed as follows. To get a:

   Parent--Select one who has demonstrated the most consistent and cooperative concern for high school kids and the school.

   Teacher--Choose one from the high school (9-12) whose experience in overseas education, in your judgment, qualifies that person as being most aware of the needs of U.S. kids.

   Student--Pick an American senior in any student-elected position, or the senior who, you feel, is the outstanding spokesman for the students.
5. None of the respondents should be related.
6. Collect both the "Voting Summary Sheet," and the "Statement of Needs," instruments from all the respondents, including your own, and mail them to me in the enclosed envelope.

I don't anticipate that selection of the respondents will be difficult, but urging their prompt response, collecting the survey forms, and getting them to me will be the biggest imposition on your time. I can only hope your enthusiasm for this project will excuse the last minute pressure. My thanks!

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

Institute for International Studies
College of Education

East Lansing . Michigan
48824 . USA

April 22, 1975

Dear

For a long time now, many of use who are vitally interested in the needs of overseas students have often discussed among ourselves the importance of actually finding out more about these students and their needs. Unfortunately, vast distances and complex networks tend to discourage the collection of the information that we would like to have.

I am attempting to do something about the situation, if only in a small way, by trying to determine what are the needs of American high school-aged students who live overseas. To do so, I am asking for the opinions of those, like yourself, who are in a position to know the most about the subject. May I count on your help to assist in this study?

The procedure is simple and should only take a few minutes of your time. Attached is a Statement of Needs formulated by researchers in California and modified by me to include suggestions offered by overseas school administrators. It has been used by thousands of people, so is thought to be quite complete. Keep in mind that we are concerned with the needs of adolescents. We are not trying to determine, in this study, whose responsibility it is to meet the needs.

You are asked to do four things:

1. Read the Directions for Completing the Needs Appraisal Survey

2. Following the directions, express your opinion by checking the appropriate boxes on the Statement of Needs form. Space has been provided for you to add any needs that you think may have been missed.

3. Transfer your choices to the Summary Voting Sheet.

4. Return the completed forms immediately to the administrator who gave them to you. This is vital so that the returns get back to me in time for inclusion in the study.

That's all there is to it! In the end, the results gathered from around the world, can be of untold value to those who have to make decisions that involve students.

Won't you take time, right now, to participate?

Sincerely yours,

Thomas F. Kelly

Thomas F. Kelly

DIRECTIONS FOR COMPLETING THE NEEDS APPRAISAL SURVEY

1. Read the "Statement of Needs." As you read each need statement carefully, read the similar needs listed beneath it. The similar needs are important for understanding the need statement.
2. Place an "X" in the box labeled #1 for each statement that you feel is important.
3. Reread the need statements. For the needs you believe to be more important than those already marked, add an "X" in the column labeled #2.
4. Read the need statements that have two (2) "X's" beside them. For those needs that you believe to be much more important than the others, place an "X" in the column labeled #3.
5. Read the need statements that have three (3) "X's" beside them. For those needs you believe to be much more important than the others, place an "X" in the column labeled #4.
6. Read the need statements that have four (4) "X's" beside them. For those needs you believe to be of extreme importance, place an "X" beside them in the column labeled #5.
7. Review your choices and keep in mind the following:

    a. At least one need statement must have five (5) "X's" beside it.

    b. It is not necessary for a need statement to have an "X" beside it.

8. When you have completed all 22 need statements, transfer your "X's" to the "Voting Summary Sheet." This will give you an opportunity to rearrange your original choices if you wish and will give you the chance to check for accuracy.
9. Return your completed "Voting Summary Sheet," and "Statement of Needs," forms to the administrator who gave them to you. Time is crucial, so please do your best to return the forms right away.

APPENDIX C

NEEDS APPRAISAL INSTRUMENT AND VOTING SUMMARY SHEET

STATEMENT OF NEEDS
OF AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOL-AGED STUDENTS
ATTENDING OVERSEAS SCHOOLS
(Not listed in any order of importance)

LEARN HOW TO BE A GOOD CITIZEN 1 2 3 4 5

Such as: Develop an awareness of civic rights and responsibilities. Develop attitudes for productive citizenship in a democracy. Develop an attitude of respect for personal and public property. Develop an understanding of the obligations and responsibilities of citizenship.

LEARN HOW TO RESPECT AND GET ALONG WITH PEOPLE WHO THINK, DRESS, AND ACT DIFFERENTLY 1 2 3 4 5

Such as: Develop an appreciation for and an understanding of other people and other cultures. Develop an understanding of political, economic and social patterns of the rest of the world. Develop awareness of the interdependence of races, creeds, nations, and cultures. Develop an awareness of the processes of group relationships.

LEARN ABOUT AND TRY TO UNDERSTAND THE CHANGES THAT TAKE PLACE IN THE WORLD 1 2 3 4 5

Such as: Develop ability to adjust to the changing demands of society. Develop an awareness and the ability to adjust to a changing world and its problems. Develop understanding of the past, identify with the present, and ability to meet the future.

LEARN SKILLS IN READING, WRITING, SPEAKING AND LISTENING 1 2 3 4 5

Such as: Develop ability to communicate ideas and feelings effectively. Develop skills in oral and written English.

LEARN HOW TO ADJUST TO A MOBILE LIFE 1 2 3 4 5

Such as: Develop an understanding of the process that leads to frequent transfers. Develop techniques for living without a feeling of permanence. Establish warm friendships that may be temporary.

UNDERSTAND AND PRACTICE DEMOCRATIC IDEAS AND IDEALS

1 2 3 4 5

Such as: Develop loyalty to American democratic ideals. Develop patriotism and loyalty to ideas of democracy. Develop knowledge and appreciation of the rights and privileges in our democracy. Develop an understanding of our American heritage.

LEARN HOW TO EXAMINE AND USE INFORMATION

1 2 3 4 5

Such as: Develop ability to examine constructively and creatively. Develop ability to use scientific methods. Develop reasoning abilities. Develop skills to think and proceed logically.

UNDERSTAND AND PRACTICE THE SKILLS OF FAMILY LIVING

1 2 3 4 5

Such as: Develop understanding and appreciation of the principles of living in a family group. Develop attitudes leading to acceptance of responsibilities as family members. Develop an awareness of future family responsibilities and achievement of skills in preparing to accept them.

LEARN TO RESPECT AND GET ALONG WITH PEOPLE WITH WHOM WE WORK AND LIVE

1 2 3 4 5

Such as: Develop appreciation and respect for the worth and dignity of individuals. Develop respect for individual worth and understanding of minority opinions and acceptance of majority decisions. Develop a cooperative attitude toward living and working with others.

UNDERSTAND THE PRESSURES OF BEING AN AMERICAN IN A FOREIGN COUNTRY

1 2 3 4 5

Such as: Develop an understanding of the lack of privacy and/or anonymity that comes with being an American. Develop an awareness of the responsibilities of being seen as a representative of the United States. Develop a knowledge of and willingness to follow host country laws and customs.

DEVELOP SKILLS TO ENTER A SPECIFIC FIELD OF WORK

1 2 3 4 5

Such as: Develop abilities and skills needed for immediate employment. Develop an awareness of opportunities and requirements related to a specific field of work. Develop an appreciation of good workmanship.

LEARN HOW TO BE A GOOD MANAGER OF MONEY, PROPERTY, AND RESOURCES

1 2 3 4 5

Such as: Develop an understanding of economic principles and responsibilities. Develop ability and understanding in personal buying, selling, and investment. Develop skills in management of natural and human resources and man's environment.

DEVELOP A DESIRE FOR LEARNING NOW AND IN THE FUTURE

1 2 3 4 5

Such as: Develop intellectual curiosity and eagerness for lifelong learning. Develop a positive attitude toward learning. Develop a positive attitude toward continuing independent education.

LEARN HOW TO USE LEISURE TIME

1 2 3 4 5

Such as: Develop ability to use leisure time productively. Develop a positive attitude toward participation in a range of leisure time activities--physical, intellectual, and creative. Develop appreciation and interest which will lead to wise and enjoyable use of leisure time.

DEVELOP SKILLS NEEDED FOR RE-ENTRY TO LIVING IN THE UNITED STATES

1 2 3 4 5

Such as: Develop background to be able to adjust to social changes occurring in the U.S. Develop knowledge of specific information about current economic and political climate. Develop an understanding of the process of successful entrance and attendance in college.

PRACTICE AND UNDERSTAND THE IDEA OF HEALTH AND SAFETY

1 2 3 4 5

Such as: Establish an effective individual physical fitness program. Develop an understanding of good physical health and well being. Establish sound personal health habits and information. Develop a concern for public health and safety.

APPRECIATE CULTURE AND BEAUTY IN THE WORLD

1 2 3 4 5

Such as: Develop abilities for effective expression of ideas and cultural appreciation (fine arts). Cultivate appreciation for beauty in various forms. Develop creative self-expression through various media (art, music, writing, etc.). Develop special talents in music, art, literature, and foreign languages.

GAIN INFORMATION NEEDED TO MAKE JOB SELECTIONS

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

Such as: Promote self-understanding and self-direction in relation to occupational interest. Develop the ability to use information and counseling services related to the selection of a job. Develop a knowledge of specific information about a particular job. Develop a knowledge of specific information about a particular vocation.

DEVELOP PRIDE IN WORK AND A FEELING OF SELF-WORTH

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

Such as: Develop a feeling of pride in achievements and progress. Develop self-understanding and self-awareness. Develop a feeling of positive self-worth, security, and self-assurance.

LEARN THE VALUE OF MULTI-CULTURAL EXPERIENCE

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

Such as: Develop an understanding of the changing image of Americans as perceived by non-Americans. Develop the ability to judge people according to their standards and cultural mores. Develop an awareness of the local culture by active participation in it.

DEVELOP GOOD CHARACTER AND SELF-RESPECT

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

Such as: Develop moral responsibility and a sound ethical and moral behavior. Develop capacity to discipline self to work, study, and play constructively. Develop a moral and ethical sense of values, goals, and processes of free society.

GAIN A GENERAL EDUCATION

1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐

Such as: Develop background and skills in the use of numbers, natural sciences, math and social studies. Develop a fund of information and concepts. Develop special interests and abilities.

OTHER

Please add any suggestions that you feel have been overlooked. Or if you have any other comments that you would like to make, feel free to do so.

When finished, please transfer your choices to the Summary Voting Sheet.

VOTING SUMMARY SHEET

Directions: Transfer to this sheet the choices you made on the Statement of Needs form by placing "X's" in the appropriate columns.

NEEDS STATEMENTS	RATINGS				
	1	2	3	4	5
LEARN TO BE A GOOD CITIZEN					
LEARN HOW TO RESPECT AND GET ALONG WITH PEOPLE WHO THINK, DRESS, AND ACT DIFFERENTLY					
LEARN ABOUT AND TRY TO UNDERSTAND THE CHANGES THAT TAKE PLACE IN THE WORLD					
LEARN SKILLS IN READING, WRITING, SPEAKING AND LISTENING					
LEARN HOW TO ADJUST TO A MOBILE LIFE					
UNDERSTAND AND PRACTICE DEMOCRATIC IDEAS AND IDEALS					
LEARN HOW TO EXAMINE AND USE INFORMATION					
UNDERSTAND AND PRACTICE THE SKILLS OF FAMILY LIVING					
LEARN TO RESPECT AND GET ALONG WITH PEOPLE WITH WHOM WE WORK AND LIVE					
UNDERSTAND THE PRESSURES OF BEING AN AMERICAN IN A FOREIGN COUNTRY					
DEVELOP SKILLS TO ENTER A SPECIFIC FIELD OF WORK					
LEARN HOW TO BE A GOOD MANAGER OF MONEY, PROPERTY AND RESOURCES					
DEVELOP A DESIRE FOR LEARNING NOW AND IN THE FUTURE					
LEARN HOW TO USE LEISURE TIME					
DEVELOP SKILLS NEEDED FOR RE-ENTRY TO LIVING IN THE U.S.					
PRACTICE AND UNDERSTAND THE IDEAS OF HEALTH AND SAFETY					
APPRECIATE CULTURE & BEAUTY IN THE WORLD					
GAIN INFORMATION NEEDED TO MAKE JOB SELECTIONS					
DEVELOP PRIDE IN WORK & A FEELING OF SELF-WORTH					
LEARN THE VALUE OF MULTI-CULTURAL EXPERIENCE					
DEVELOP GOOD CHARACTER AND SELF-RESPECT					
GAIN A GENERAL EDUCATION					
OTHER					

As soon as completed, return forms to administrator who gave them to you.

APPENDIX D

POST HOC DATA ANALYZING STUDENT AND ADMINISTRATOR OPINIONS BY MEANS OF THE SPEARMAN RANK-ORDER CORRELATION

RANKINGS BY ADMINISTRATORS
COMPARED WITH TOTAL SAMPLE

Need Item	A (N = 60) Rank	B (N = 12) Rank	C (N = 5) Rank	D (N = 5) Rank
1	11.5	9	2	15*
2	7	8	10.5	1
3	10	10.5	13.5	11.5
4	3.5	4.5	1	5
5	20	21	20	21.5
6	13	10.5	3.5	21.5*
7	5	2	7.5	2.5
8	18	19	13.5	15
9	6	4.5	5.5	5
10	14	16.5	16	11.5
11	22	22	22	20
12	16	12	18	7.5*
13	3.5	2	5.5	7.5
14	15	15	16	18
15	17	20	20	18
16	21	12	10.5	9
17	11.5	12	9	18*
18	19	18	20	15
19	2	2	3.5	5
20	9	16.5	16	11.5*
21	1	6	7.5	2.5
22	8	7	12	11.5*

Column A = Composite Ranking of All Respondents.

Column B = Ranking by All Administrators.

Column C = Ranking by Administrators From Five Schools w/Highest U.S. Enrollment (Tehran, 100%; London, 95%; Athens, 87% Singapore, 85%; Buenos Aires, 76%).

Column D = Ranking by Administrators From Five Schools w/Highest Non-U.S. Enrollment (San Salvador, 74%; Manila, 52%; Brasilia, 50%; Mexico City, 48%; Jakarta, 47%).

*In statistical tests, significant correlation of ranking was found. Obvious observed differences, however, would seem to warrant further analytic study not attempted in this present research.

SPEARMAN RANK-ORDER CORRELATION COMPARING
TWO GROUPS OF ADMINISTRATORS

Need Item	(A) Test	(B) Criterion	Diff.	D^2
1	2	15	-13	169
2	10.5	1	9.5	90.25
3	13.5	11.5	2	4
4	1	5	-4	16
5	20	21.5	-1.5	2.25
6	3.5	21.5	-18	324
7	7.5	2.5	5	25
8	13.5	15	-1.5	2.25
9	5.5	5	.5	.25
10	16	11.5	4.5	20.25
11	22	20	2	4
12	18	7.5	10.5	110.25
13	5.5	7.5	-2	4
14	16	18	-2	4
15	20	18	2	4
16	10.5	9	1.5	2.25
17	9	18	-9	81
18	20	15	5	25
19	3.5	5	-1.5	2.25
20	16	11.5	4.5	20.25
21	7.5	2.5	5	25
22	12	11.5	.5	.25
			$\Sigma D = 0$	ΣD^2 935.50

$$p = 1 - \frac{6\Sigma D^2}{N(N^2-1)} = 1 - \frac{5613}{10626} = .4718$$

$$t = rho\sqrt{\frac{N-2}{1-rho^2}} = .4718\sqrt{\frac{22-2}{1-.2226}} = 2.39$$

$df = 20$

$\alpha.05 = 2.086$

Column A = Ranking by Administrators From Five Schools With the Highest U.S. enrollment.

Column B = Ranking by Administrators From Five Schools With the Highest Non-U.S. enrollment.

RANKING WITH STUDENTS COMPARED
WITH COMPOSITE RANKING

Need Item	Composite A N = 60	All Students B N = 12	Highest U.S. Enroll C N = 5	Highest Non-U.S. D N = 5	Diff. Betw. C & D	D^2
1	11.5	20	17	22	-5	25
2	7	1.5	2	2	0	0
3	10	6	6	5	1	1
4	3.5	10	9	8	1	1
5	20	12.5	15	9.5	5.5	30.25
6	13	14.5	9	17	-8	64
7	5	10	12	7	5	25
8	18	18.5	17	17	0	0
9	6	5	9	3.5	5.5	30.25
10	14	12.5	13.5	14	-.5	.25
11	22	22	22	21	1	1
12	16	16	9	17	-8	64
13	3.5	3	3	6	-3	9
14	15	17	13.5	11.5	2	4
15	17	14.5	19	17	2	4
16	21	21	20	20	0	0
17	11.5	7.5	21	9.5	11.5	132.25
18	19	18.5	17	17	0	0
19	2	4	4.5	3.5	1	1
20	9	1.5	1	1	0	0
21	1	7.5	9	13	-4	16
22	8	10	4.5	11.5	-7	49
					$\Sigma D=0$	$\Sigma D^2=457$

$$p = 1 - \frac{6\Sigma D^2}{N(N^2-1)} = 1 - \frac{6 \times 457}{22(484-1)} = .7420$$

$$t = rho\sqrt{\frac{N-2}{1-rho^2}} = .7420\sqrt{\frac{22-2}{1-.5506}} = 4.969$$

$df = 20$

$\alpha.05 = 2.09$

SPEARMAN RANK-ORDER CORRELATION COMPARING STUDENT AND ADMINISTRATOR RANKINGS

In Schools With the Highest U.S. Enrollment

Need Item	Admin.	Students	Diff.	D^2
1	2	17	-15	225
2	10.5	2	8.5	72.25
3	13.5	6	7.5	56.25
4	1	9	-8	64
5	20	15	5	25
6	3.5	9	-5.5	30.25
7	7.5	12	-4.5	20.25
8	13.5	17	-3.5	12.25
9	5.5	9	-3.5	12.25
10	16	13.5	2.5	6.25
11	22	22	0	0
12	18	9	9	81
13	5.5	3	2.5	6.25
14	16	13.5	2.5	6.25
15	20	19	1	1
16	10.5	20	-9.5	90.25
17	9	21	-12	144
18	20	17	3	9
19	3.5	4.5	1	1
20	16	1	15	225
21	25	9	-1.5	2.25
22	12	4.5	7.5	56.25
			$\Sigma D=0$	1146.00

$$p = 1 - \frac{6\Sigma D^2}{N(N^2-1)} = 1 - \frac{6 \times 1146}{10626} = 1 - \frac{6876}{10626} = .3529$$

$$t = rho\sqrt{\frac{N-2}{1-rho^2}} = .3529\sqrt{\frac{20}{1-.1245}} = 1.687$$

$Df = 20$

$\alpha.05 = 2.086$

SPEARMAN RANK-ORDER CORRELATION COMPARING
STUDENT AND ADMINISTRATION RANKING

In Schools With the Highest Non-U.S. Enrollment

Need Item	Admin.	Students	Diff.	D^2
1	15	22	-7	49
2	1	2	-1	1
3	11.5	5	6.5	42.25
4	5	8	-3	9
5	21.5	9.5	12	144
6	21.5	17	4.5	20.25
7	2.5	7	-4.5	20.25
8	15	17	-2	4
9	5	3.5	1.5	2.25
10	11.5	14	-2.5	6.25
11	20	21	-1	1
12	7.5	17	-9.5	90.25
13	7.5	6	1.5	2.25
14	18	11.5	6.5	42.25
15	18	17	1	1
16	9	20	-11	121
17	18	9.5	8.5	72.25
18	15	17	-2	4
19	5	3.5	1.5	2.25
20	11.5	1	10.5	110.25
21	2.5	13	-10.5	110.25
22	11.5	11.5	0	0
			$\Sigma D=0$	885.00

$$p = 1 - \frac{6\Sigma D^2}{N(N^2-1)} = 1 - \frac{6(885)}{10626} = 1 - .4997 = .5003$$

$$t = rho\sqrt{\frac{N-2}{1-rho^2}} = .5003\sqrt{\frac{20}{1-.2503}} = 2.586$$

$Df = 20$

$\alpha.05 = 2.086$

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