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# A COMPARISON OF THE STUDENT TEACHING EXPERIENCE OF MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY STUDENT TEACHERS ASSIGNED TO OVERSEAS AMERICAN SCHOOLS WITH THAT OF MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY STUDENT TEACHERS ASSIGNED TO PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN MICHIGAN

By

Hugh P. Brady

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ABSTRACT

A COMPARISON OF THE STUDENT TEACHING EXPERIENCE OF MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY STUDENT TEACHERS ASSIGNED TO OVERSEAS AMERICAN SCHOOLS WITH THAT OF MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY STUDENT TEACHERS ASSIGNED TO PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN MICHIGAN

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The primary purpose of this study was to compare the effects of the presence of student teachers of Michigan State University assigned to overseas American schools with the effects of the presence of student teachers of Michigan State University assigned to public schools in Michigan. The secondary purpose of this study was to identify and measure some of the changes in attitudes and values of student teachers of Michigan State University assigned to overseas American Schools located in England, Italy and Holland.

The subjects were two groups of student teachers and supervising teachers of Michigan State University. One group comprised the total population of 575 student teachers and their supervising teachers assigned to public schools in Michigan during the fall term 1969. The other group was made up of 60 student teachers and their

supervising teachers who were assigned to overseas American schools in England, Italy and Holland during 1970-71.

The survey instrument used in this study was originally designed to determine the impact of student teaching programs upon cooperating public schools in Michigan. From the original instrument which contained 80 questions, the writer selected 18 questions to help test the five hypotheses designed for this study.

In addition to the student teaching questionnaire, the student teachers assigned to schools in Italy and Holland were asked to complete a sociological questionnaire. The questionnaire was designed by the writer to identify and measure changes in attitudes and values the student teachers might have undergone as a result of their sojourn overseas.

Individual student teachers and groups of student teachers from the three overseas schools were subjected to a series of taped interview questions designed to measure some of the effects that overseas studying and living had on the lives of the student teachers.

Finn's Multivariate Analysis of Variance was the statistical design used to test the first three hypotheses. Chi square was the statistical tool used to test hypotheses four and five. The reliability of the questions used to form the five hypotheses was calculated by the Hoyt Estimate of Reliability.

The multivariate analyses of variance failed to reject the following null hypotheses:

1. There are no differences in the effect on specific instructional activities due to the presence of Michigan State University student teachers in overseas American schools compared to the presence of Michigan State University student teachers assigned to public schools in Michigan.

2. There are no differences in contributions to specific aspects of the school program when student teachers of Michigan State University assigned to overseas American schools are compared to student teachers of Michigan State University assigned to public schools in Michigan.

3. There are no differences in the amount of time the supervising teacher spends on professional duties due to the presence of a student teacher whether this student teacher is assigned to overseas American schools or public schools in Michigan.

The Chi square test of significance used for hypotheses four and five (listed below) did indicate some statistically significant results but not in any consistent manner.

4. There are no differences in the amount of time the supervising teachers were able to spend on specific classroom activities due to the presence of a student teacher whether this student teacher was assigned to overseas American schools or to public schools in Michigan.

5. There are no differences in the contribution to the professional growth of the supervising teacher by the student teacher in overseas American schools compared to that in public schools in Michigan.

On the basis of the statistical evidence accumulated by the student teaching questionnaire for this study,

none of the five null hypotheses related to this investigation could be rejected.

The sociological questionnaire revealed that student teachers assigned to both Italy and Holland felt that compared to Americans, the host nationals are friendlier, more serious minded, more culturally oriented and more traditional. Both groups felt Americans are more sophisticated, more industrious, more competitive, and more morally upright. The Rome group saw Italians as less well informed but more conservative than Americans, while the student teachers in Holland saw the Dutch as better informed and less conservative than Americans.

The taped interviews indicated that the student teachers were impressed with Italian family life. They found a female could walk unescorted in the major cities of Europe in the evenings. They found European cities were cleaner and more modern than they expected. The interviews indicated that the student teachers felt: that Europeans were friendlier and more helpful than Americans would be to foreigners; that public demonstrations, however spontaneous they might be, were well controlled and orderly; and that national leaders of European countries could appear in public without great fear of bodily harm. Some of the student teachers actually experienced anti-American feelings for the first time.

A majority of the student teachers assigned overseas indicated that: they would have enjoyed living with

a host nation family; that food was wholesome and plentiful; and that Europeans view the material things in life as not as important as Americans.

Although changes in attitudes and values are very difficult to identify and measure, this study did indicate the beginnings of changes in attitudes, values, and preconceived notions regarding foreign cultures on the part of student teachers.

The writer concluded that:

1. The classroom student teaching experience appears to be not significantly different whether undertaken in a Michigan public school or in an overseas American school.
2. The overseas student teaching experience had a positive effect on the students in terms of understanding and appreciating their own and other cultures.
3. The student teachers who were exposed to an overseas student teaching experience became more flexible and open minded as a result of their overseas experience.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Sincere appreciation is expressed to the many persons whose contributions made this study possible.

The writer is especially grateful to Dr. W. Henry Kennedy, the thesis director and chairman of the doctoral committee, for his valuable guidance, encouragement, and assistance during the development of this study.

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Appreciation is extended to the Headmaster of the Overseas School of Rome, Dr. Stanley Haas, and of the International School of The Hague, Mr. John Griffin, and to the Supervising Principal of the American Dependents School at Lakenheath, England, Mr. Morris Crum, for their cooperation and assistance.

Recognition and sincere thanks are due the student teachers and supervising teachers in both the overseas schools and the public schools in Michigan, whose cooperation and participation were essential to the completion of this study.

Finally, appreciation is extended to my friends in Europe and the United States for their support, understanding, and patience throughout this doctoral study.

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# CHAPTER I

# THE PROBLEM

## Introduction

Increasing numbers of Americans are moving to foreign lands to live, work, and study. The reasons for this migration are as diverse as the migrants themselves: as the U.S. companies expand their overseas operations, larger numbers of American executives and technicians are required to work at these branches and subsidiaries; the high cost of living is driving some Americans to other countries with a lower cost of living; some Americans are relocating because they have become disenchanted with the "American way of life"; more students and university professors are studying and teaching abroad; and the surge of tourism has exposed foreign patterns of life to more Americans.

Shifts in value orientation and new assessments of one's self-image as a result of cross-cultural interactions and cultural diffusion are coming to the attention of

educators, sociologists and others in the behavioral sciences. Familiar these days to research workers, foreign student advisors, and other observers is the pehnomenon of "cultural shock" wherein the cross cultural person suffers from the loss of familiar signs and symbols. An additional problem is making important physical and psychological adjustments to both living and working roles.

During the period from 1959-1969 approximately 1,600,000 to 2,000,000 Americans have lived abroad at any given time. One-third of this group is composed of civilians engaged in work or service roles for the United States Government, business, international organizations and missionary and volunteer agencies, while two-thirds of the group are military personnel stationed at United States Army, Navy, Air Force or Department of State posts. Although in pre World War II years the United States Department of State accounted for a large portion of Americans in developed areas, today State Department employees account for less than 20 per cent of the total number of Americans residing overseas.[1]

In 1897, $1.6 billion were invested by business and industry outside the United States; in 1943, $7.9 billion; in 1950, $11.8 billion and by the late 1960's

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[1] "What Americans are Doing Abroad," U. S. News and World Report, Vol. LXXI, No. 2 (Washington, D. C., February 1, 1971), p. 23.

over $70 billion. About 3,200 U.S. corporations operate 15,000 foreign business enterprises, and the number is rising. Among major corporations abroad the number of American employees has been rising at a rate of 15 per cent a year. At the latest count there are 100,000 businessmen and 280,000 wives and children of businessmen living abroad.[2] American sponsors often accompanied by their families have both preceded and followed these investments into overseas areas. This situation has resulted in the establishment of American communities in widespread areas of the world, where economic development and institution building have high priorities with the American group and the host nation.

Notable characteristics of the overseas American community are its sheer mobility and the new sets of behavior patterns developed in their "home away from home" in the international setting. Americans living abroad are better educated, on average, than those at home. Most people of working age who leave this country are managers or professionals--lawyers, doctors, economists, scientists. Their children are growing up bilingual and in many cases attending a bilingual school. Parents may feel that a healthier educational climate prevails abroad than in the United States where student unrest, general permissiveness,

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[2] Ibid., p. 23.

oversized classes and large, impersonal campuses are not uncommon.

The voluntary exchanges and migrations of university students, missionaries, and foreign service personnel have a long history extending three decades before World War I. The movement of elementary and secondary age American dependents, however, has become a common occurrence only with post World War II movements of these families across broad areas of the globe.

The 1960 census of Americans overseas listed 250,000 children between the ages of six and eighteen as residents outside the continental limits of the United States. Approximately 80 per cent of this total were dependent children of armed forces personnel, mainly residing in developed countries such as: Germany, The United Kingdom, Italy, Spain, Holland, Greece, Japan, Belgium, the Philippines, and Okinawa.[3]

Throughout Europe, the Middle East, the Far East, Asia and South America, a large number of schools serving various segments of overseas American society, (i.e. military, business, retired government and military personnel, State Department, missionaries, employees of private foundations) have been established primarily to accommodate American students and secondarily, students

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[3]The Stars and Stripes (Darmstadt, Germany, December 2, 1970), p. 5. (U. S. Population up to 204.8 million.)

from the host nation or other nations on a space available basis. These schools patterned after public schools in the United States generally offer a standard American type of curriculum and usually encompass grades one through twelve. The overseas dependent high schools of the Department of Defense are accredited by the North Central Association, the largest American association for accreditation. The overseas international schools are generally not members of an American accrediting association. However, they pride themselves on the proportion of high school graduates accepted into American universities. The overseas dependent schools are sponsored by the Department of Defense with logistical support afforded by the United States Army European Headquarters in Heidelberg, Germany. The international schools operate as separate entities, each under a charter or sponsored by a private organization, while the Department of Defense maintains a central administrative headquarters for all of its European schools in Karlsruhe, Germany.

The faculties of both the overseas international and the dependents schools are basically staffed with American teachers who have trained and taught in public school systems for at least two years in the United States and have been hired through a recruitment process in the United States or while traveling overseas. Others are hired who have followed their husbands on their overseas assignments. A majority of the teachers are single,

Caucasoid, and from 25 to 55 years of age. As in public schools in the United States, females predominate in the elementary levels and males in the secondary schools. These teachers have served throughout most areas of the United States with a greater number coming from the East and West coasts. Host nationals are frequently hired to supplement the course offerings, usually in the foreign language areas.[4]

Student and teacher turnover is higher in overseas American schools than in American public schools. Elizabeth B. Bole in "American Schools Overseas" relates:

> It is perfectly possible to have a one hundred per cent turnover in the Board of Directors, an eighty per cent turnover in the administration, a sixty per cent turnover in the student body and faculty . . . all in the course of one or two years.[5]

The student body in the overseas American schools contains students who are from all sections of the United States, some of whom were born overseas, many with foreign born mothers, and some of whom, although they are American citizens, have never been in the United States. Many of these students have spent a greater portion of their young lives overseas than in the United States and may attend as many as five to eight schools in their first twelve years of formal education.

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[4]Elizabeth E. Bole, "American Schools Overseas," Vassar Alumnae Magazine, June, 1965, p. 14.

[5]Ibid., p. 17.

Americans returning from varied overseas areas and with backgrounds of cross-cultural experience, often bring unusual "problems" back with them to the United States. These "problems" may be the result of cultural change in the individual from his trip abroad, or changes in his home society occurring during his absence. Social factors, such as the prevailing climate of opinion, and the morale of the individual, can present distinct problems of adjustment to the returning person. Abrupt changes in the socialization process, resulting from shifting about from one primary association group to another may present considerable difficulty for the returning individual.

## Statement of the Problem

There has been little research on the effects of an overseas experience on the lives of teachers or students in the overseas American schools. Research studies dealing with personal adjustment problems, employment and work roles, relationships with host nationals and the world outlook of students and teachers who have studied and worked abroad are virtually unknown. What has seldom been measured and analyzed is the impact their intercultural experiences have made on the lives of globally-mobile people as they complete their education or fulfill their job roles in the overseas American schools. Studies are not available to indicate that an overseas experience might change the values and attitudes of a teacher, who

previous to her overseas experience had lived, studied and was employed in the place of her birth. Few of these teachers, some of whom have lived from five to fifteen years overseas, received any special training to better enable them to cope with the problems of overseas living. Very little is known of the effectiveness of the teaching strategies and instructional patterns learned in the United States and the effects of an overseas training experience on the teacher after she returns to the United States.

It is only in the last two years that student teachers have been assigned by an American university in large numbers, accompanied by a member of the university faculty, to overseas American schools for student teaching. These student teachers have been putting into practice what they have learned in American universities such as methodology, subject matter concepts, and innovations.

## Purposes of the Study

The primary purpose of this study was to compare the effects of the presence of student teachers of Michigan State University assigned to overseas American schools with the effects of the presence of student teachers of Michigan State University assigned to public schools in Michigan.

The secondary purpose of this study was to identify and measure some of the changes in values and attitudes of student teachers of Michigan State University assigned to overseas American schools, resulting from their

opportunity to interact with peoples of different nationalities and segments of the overseas American community.

## Need for the Study

Michigan State University has been involved in overseas student teaching programs since 1968 and since that time has conducted student teaching programs in Holland, Italy, Spain, England and Mexico. A few other universities have been sponsoring overseas student teaching programs since 1965.

The major justification that has been offered for such an international program of student teaching is that the overseas American schools can provide a laboratory for learning at least equivalent to that in stateside schools, and that in addition, spin-off benefits will accrue through providing the student teachers with the opportunity to gain an understanding of a foreign culture.

There is a need for evidence by which to judge whether assigning student teachers for training in overseas American schools is justified as a means of preparing student teachers for their life roles as public school teachers.

In addition, the findings obtained in this study should produce evidence to determine whether an overseas student teaching experience will be of value to the student teacher in terms of educational experience and exposure to a foreign background.

Finally, there is a need to determine whether overseas student teaching will help American universities fulfill their obligation to prepare teachers for service in the overseas American schools.

## Hypotheses

The hypotheses presented in this section appear in general research form. In Chapter III these hypotheses are operationalized and appear in testable form.

$H_1$ There are changes in instructional activities due to the presence of Michigan State University student teachers in overseas American schools compared to the presence of Michigan State University student teachers assigned to public schools in Michigan.

$H_2$ Greater contributions to the school program will result when student teachers at Michigan State University are assigned to overseas American schools as compared to when Michigan State University student teachers are assigned to public schools in Michigan.

$H_3$ Supervising teachers in overseas American schools spend a greater amount of time on professional activities due to the presence of student teachers of Michigan State University than do supervising teachers in Michigan public schools.

$H_4$ Supervising teachers in overseas American schools spend a greater amount of time on classroom activities due to the presence of Michigan State University student teachers than do supervising teachers in public schools in Michigan.

$H_5$ Student teachers contribute more to the professional growth of supervising teachers when assigned to overseas American schools compared to student teachers of Michigan State University assigned to public schools in Michigan.

In addition to these hypotheses, this study attempted to assess changes in worldmindedness, attitudes and values resulting from living in a foreign culture.

## Definition of Terms

Terms and phrases used to form the operational hypotheses and those which are used in a limited and specific sense in this study are defined as follows:

1. Student Teaching: That period of guided full-time experience in which the student takes increasing responsibility for the work with a group of learners over a period of consecutive weeks under the direction of a supervising teacher and participates in school and community experiences as a resident of the school community.
2. Supervising Teacher: A regular classroom teacher in whose classes university students observe, participate or do student teaching.
3. University Supervisor: An individual employed by the teacher education institution to work cooperatively with supervising teachers to assist the student teacher in deriving the greatest possible values from the student teaching experience.
4. Dependents Schools: Schools maintained by the United States Department of Defense for dependent children of military and civilian personnel stationed outside the continental limits of the United States.

5. International Schools: American schools which are established usually with United States Department of State aid for children of businessmen, professionals, government employees other than military personnel, and private citizens who make up other sections of American communities abroad.

6. Socialization Process: Among the many definitions which describe the process of socialization during childhood and adolescence, the definition given by Brim is broad enough in scope for this study:

> Socialization refers to the process by which people acquire the knowledge, skills and dispositions that make them more or less able members of our society. People move through a sequence of different positions in society, in accord with different stages of the life cycle. Changes in the demands upon them arise from their mobility both geographic and social and from the customs of their society which may vary during their lifetime.[6]

7. Cultural Shock: Cultural shock may be defined as a feeling of a temporary loss of familiar signs or symbols that people experience when entering a foreign country or upon returning to their native land after an extended overseas experience.

8. Mobility: Mobility is associated with geographical and cultural change. Berger points out that:

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[6]Orville G. Brim, Jr. and Stanton Wheeler, Socialization After Childhood (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1966), p. 132.

> The changes occur in the severing of interpersonal relations with family and friends and the removal of established mores, norms, and folkways with the simultaneous introduction of new social systems.[7]

9. Host Nation: The host nation may be defined as the country of the overseas assignment of the individual. The host national is a citizen of the country and is employed by the outside state working in the country.

10. Overseas Interaction: The Gullahorns define overseas interaction as

> The opportunity to establish enduring friendships with foreign citizens, to chat frequently with a variety of host nationals in casual transactions, to mingle with overseas students and teachers and to visit host nationals in their homes.[8]

11. Worldmindedness: Worldmindedness is described by Gleason as "the manifestation of a group of attitudes of overseas experienced people which reflect certain qualities of open mindedness concerning national identities and cultural values.[9]

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[7]Susan R. Berger, "The Effects of a Cross-Cultural Experience Upon the Personal and Social Adjustments of Selected American Elementary School Students" (unpublished Ed.D. thesis, Boston University, 1964), p. 22.

[8]John T. Gullahorn and Jeanne E. Gullahorn, "American Students Abroad: Professional versus Personal Development," The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 368 (November, 1966), p. 47.

[9]Thomas P. Gleason, "Social Adjustment Patterns and Manifestations of Worldmindedness of Overseas Experienced American Youth" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, 1969), p. 5.

12. Social Adjustment: Social adjustment describes the "on going activity by which a person attempts to satisfy his needs in terms of his roles and position in society."[10]

13. Cross Cultural Education: Cross cultural education is described as the "reciprocal process of learning and adjustment that occurs when individuals sojourn for educational purposes in a society that is foreign to them, normally returning to their own society after a limited period."[11]

14. Personal Adjustment: Personal adjustment is illustrated by the individual who:

> . . . lives and grows in such a way that he is actively aware, relatively satisfied and feels largely successful with his internal adjustment and as a result of this, he exhibits behavior that is generally approved by him and relatively acceptable to the outside world.[12]

15. Culture: Kroeber and Kluckhorn define culture as:

> . . . consisting of patterns, explicit and implicit, of and for behavior acquired and transmitted by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievement of human groups, including their embodiments in artifacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e., historically selected and derived) ideas and especially their attached values; culture systems may on the one hand be

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[10] P. Barrabee; E. L. Barrabee; and J. E. Finesinger, "A Normative Social Adjustment Scale," American Journal of Psychiatry, 112 (1955), p. 254.

[11] Brewster M. Smith, "Cross-cultural Education as a Research Area," Journal of Sociological Issues, 12 (1956), p. 3.

[12] Mason W. Mathews, "Successful Adjustment: A Frame of Reference," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 30 (1960), p. 671.

considered as products of action on the other as conditioning elements of further action.[13]

16. Third Culture:

> The patterns which are created, shared, and learned by men of two different societies who are . . . personally engaged in the process of linking their societies, or sections thereof, to each other.[14]

17. Values: "The goals learned from our society have come to be defined as values."[15]

## Limitations of the Study

The present cross continental research is concerned with a delimited population of overseas experienced teachers and students. The international mobile subjects were not randomly selected but comprised the total population of student teachers assigned to the three student teaching centers in The Netherlands (Holland), Italy and England.

Three groups of overseas American elementary and secondary school student teachers and their supervising teachers in the three countries provided one segment of the population responding to the two questionnaires and taped interviews.

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[13] A. L. Kroeber and Clyde Kluckhohn, Culture: A Critical Review of Concepts and Definitions (New York: Vintage Books, 1952), p. 357.

[14] John Useem, "Work Patterns of Americans in India," The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 368 (November, 1966), p. 147.

[15] Henry C. Smith, Personality Adjustment (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1961), p. 86.

The remainder of the population used in this study were elementary and secondary school student teachers and their supervising teachers assigned to public schools in Michigan.

The student teachers were assigned to overseas schools during spring and fall, 1970, and spring, 1971. The student teachers assigned to Michigan public schools were surveyed in fall, 1969.

The students selected for overseas student teaching assignments were chosen from a large group of Michigan State University students and had volunteered for an overseas student teaching assignment. The students selected were generally of middle class families, well dressed, neat in appearance, and were able to afford the costs of travel and living in a foreign country.

The overseas student teachers were assigned to the overseas schools for six to eight weeks, while student teachers were assigned to public schools in Michigan for twelve weeks.

In the Department of Defense school in England used in this study, approximately 500 students from the junior and senior high school reside in dormitories. The remainder of the student body and the complete student bodies of the schools in Italy and Holland are day students. These differences in circumstances and composition of the schools may have some effect on the attitudes of the students, faculty and student teachers assigned to the schools.

Because of the above mentioned characteristics of this study, generalizations of these findings are not meant to be applied to student teachers or supervising teachers in other institutions.

## Procedures and Methodology

One of the most thorough studies of the impact of student teaching programs upon cooperating public schools in Michigan was conducted in the fall of 1969 by the Deans and the Directors of Student Teaching Programs in Michigan. For this study an 80 item questionnaire was administered to the entire population of student teachers assigned by 28 Michigan universities and colleges during the fall quarter or semester of 1969. All of the supervising teachers, student teachers, and building principals concerned with the training of student teachers during the fall of 1969 were involved in the study. The questionnaire was designed to determine the effect of student teaching programs upon cooperating public schools in Michigan.

The present study used the same basic instrument, the 80 item survey, which had been administered to the total population of student teachers in Michigan during the fall 1969, with a different purpose in mind. Instead of searching for the impact of a student teaching program upon a cooperating school, the intent of the present study was to compare the effects of the presence

of student teachers in the overseas American schools with student teachers in Michigan cooperating schools.

## Sample Population

The questionnaire was administered to four referent groups of student teachers from Michigan State University and their supervising teachers. The largest group contained student teachers and their supervising teachers who were assigned to public schools located in the 16 student teaching centers of Michigan State University. These groups were surveyed in the fall of 1969. The three overseas groups were student teachers and their supervising teachers who were located in schools in England, Italy and Holland. These three groups were surveyed in the spring and fall, 1970, and spring, 1971.

The numbers in each group are shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1.--Population Distribution.

| Item | Michigan | England | Italy | Holland | Total Overseas |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Student Teachers | 595 | 24 | 12 | 24 | 60 |
| Supervising Teachers | 588 | 24 | 12 | 24 | 60 |

The school in England used in this study is a Department of Defense dependents school with a total enrollment of 3,500 students in grades one through twelve. The Overseas School of Rome, Italy is an international school with a total enrollment of more than 800 students in grades one through twelve. The American School of the International Schools of The Hague in The Netherlands is an international school with approximately 800 students in grades one through twelve.

The Michigan schools utilized in the survey were elementary and secondary public schools located in the 16 student teaching centers of Michigan State University.

In the Department of Defense dependents school in England, tuition is free to dependents of military personnel and civilians employed by the United States Forces. Tuition rates in the two international schools average from $800 for a first grade student to $1200 yearly for a senior in high school.

## Instrument Derivation

The questionnaire and the survey instruments used in this current study were designed with assistance from the research consultant service of the Michigan State University College of Education. The survey The Impact of Student Teaching Programs Upon the Cooperating Public Schools in Michigan[16] was conducted on the entire population of student

[16] Student Teaching Programs, Questions and Answers (East Lansing, Michigan: Michigan Council of State College Presidents, 1970), p. 6. (n.n.)

teachers, supervising teachers and principals who were assigned to or working with student teachers during the fall of 1969. Separate instruments were developed for student teachers, supervising teachers and administrators. The student teacher and the supervising teacher surveys were printed in parallel form except as they reflected viewpoints from the two different positions.

The questionnaire as it was utilized in the Michigan public schools sought to determine the impact of a student teaching program upon the public schools in Michigan which were participating in such a program. In order to accomplish the primary purpose of this study the same instrument used in the Michigan public schools was used in the research in the overseas schools.

In order to accomplish the secondary purpose of the study, a sociological questionnaire was designed by the writer to identify and measure some of the possible changes in values and attitudes of student teachers of Michigan State University assigned to overseas American schools resulting from their opportunity to interact with peoples of different nationalities and American segments of the overseas American community. A series of taped interviews discussing the value of the overseas experience with student teachers assigned to England, Italy and Holland will be presented in Chapter IV.

The data obtained from the survey instruments will be summarized and appropriate statistical tools

applied. Selected items will be analyzed to determine differences, if any, caused by the presence of student teachers in overseas American schools and public schools in Michigan. Ages, sex, level taught, and amount of previous training are variables which will be considered.

## Overview

This chapter has developed the frame of reference for the entire study. Included are the introduction, problem statement, purposes of the study, need for the study, general hypotheses to be examined, definition of terms, limitations of the study, procedures and methodology, sample population, and instrument derivation.

In Chapter II, literature and research relevant to the problem are presented. This includes the historical background of overseas education and the organizational structure of Department of Defense dependents schools and overseas American international schools. A review of the nature of overseas student teaching programs of American universities is presented. In particular the student teaching program of Michigan State University both overseas and in Michigan Public schools is reviewed.

Chapter III includes research procedures and methodology. This chapter centers upon the source of the data, development and implementation of the survey instruments, the general design of the study, the nature of the sample and the statistical treatment of the data.

In Chapter IV the testable hypotheses, the examination and analysis of the data and other findings are presented.

Chapter V includes a summary of the study together with the conclusions and recommendations for further research.

With this general outline of the study as a guide, a review of related research on student teaching in overseas schools and the cross-cultural interaction of student teachers assigned overseas and subsequent adjustments patterns follow in the next chapter.

# CHAPTER II

# REVIEW OF LITERATURE

## Introduction

Three generalizations emerged while reviewing the literature related to the problem under study. First, there has been a vast amount of literature written on Americans traveling and living abroad in a temporary tourist-type situation. Second, there has been a limited amount of literature written on Americans living, working and studying abroad for an extended period of time. Third, there is almost no literature relating to the specific problem under investigation in this study.

The research on Americans living abroad after World War II is basically concerned with the various international settings in which Americans are located. Work-roles of American adults or case-studies of American institution building efforts in an international setting may be found in the literature, and the histories of American missionary schools overseas are well documented.

A great deal of research has been conducted on foreign students studying in the United States at American

universities and secondary schools; however, relatively few empirical studies have been conducted on American elementary and secondary student and teacher populations training or working for extended periods of time in a foreign country. Smith has succinctly highlighted the need for research in this area when he states:

> Research has heavily emphasized the situation of 'foreign nationals sojourning in the United States.' Very little has been done in regard to processes and effects pertaining to United States nationals abroad or to exchanges between third countries. Practical considerations will probably continue to favor this unbalance in emphasis. From the standpoint of cumulative scientific understanding of cross-cultural education, however, it is unfortunate. In today's world, the United States happens to be a unique country in a number of respects. It is important to know the extent to which findings involving the United States as locus of exchange can be extended to cross-cultural situations generally.[1]

In investigating the goals of student exchange, it has been noted that

> American institutions sponsoring educational exchange cite as their objectives 'the promotion of international understanding;' the development of friends and supporters of the United States; assistance in economic, social, or political development of other countries; educational development of out-standing individuals; and the advancement of knowledge.[2]

Partly as a reflection of these goals, much of the evaluative research in cross-cultural education has focused--ethnocentrically--on whether foreign sojourners do, in

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[1] M. B. Smith, "A Perspective for Further Research on Cross-Cultural Education," Journal of Sociological Issues, 12 (1956), p. 56.

[2] "The Goals of Student Exchange, An Analysis of Goals of Programs for Foreign Students," The Annals (New York Institute for International Education, 1955), p. 44.

fact, develop more positive attitudes towards Americans and the United States in general as a consequence of their experiences here.

UNESCO's International Handbook states that in 1963 there were 128,000 world wide opportunities for subsidized travel. These were provided by such varied types of organizations as national governments, public and private foundations, international organizations and educational institutions. In 1963, the United States as a donor of grants, sponsored 716 programs which comprised 36,235 fellowships for study abroad.[3] These figures continued to increase each year finally leveling off in 1969. Despite the magnitude of these statistics, they do not include the off-spring of the grantees or of the business and governmental personnel.

The military personnel, the highly educated professionals, businessmen and the governmental employees with the exception of missionaries, make up the major portions of the American communities abroad. An area of great concern to parents in these American communities is the education of their children. Businessmen, Department of State employees, and military personnel, who do not always have an option, have been known to refuse a lucrative overseas assignment when schooling was not available for their children. Other areas of concern

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[3]"Study Abroad," International Handbook (UNESCO, 1963), pp. 665-697.

such as housing, health, adequate shopping facilities, and servants are amenable to more or less satisfactory conditions.

The tremendous postwar increase in foreign residence and foreign travel got underway soon after the close of World War II in 1945. As American foreign investments mounted, the number of Americans representing American business abroad likewise rose. As wives and dependents were able to join their sponsors stationed with the military forces, American construction firms, or other foreign businesses, small American communities grew up. Many of these residents, some unwillingly overseas, transplanted American suburbia to foreign shores. American style schools, churches, stores, clubs, theaters and recreation areas were established.

This chapter reviews the literature relative to the establishment of and comparison of the overseas American international and Department of Defense Dependents Schools. A review of the nature of previous overseas student teaching programs will be presented, and student teaching programs in Michigan will be reviewed with emphasis on the student teaching program of Michigan State University.

## Historical Background American Dependents Schools

The need for schools for the dependent children of United States military families has deep roots. Credit

for the inauguration of a system of schools for children residing on military posts in the United States belongs to General Winfield Scott. General Scott was a practicing lawyer and leader of troops in the War of 1812, the Mexican War and the Civil War. Regulations were enacted into law by Congress in 1812 providing among other benefits for dependents of military personnel, the education of dependent children. Responsibility for the support of the schools was transferred back and forth from the Congress to the Department of Army for the next 75 years. At one point, the post chaplain was asked to assume the role of teacher to the dependent children. The program of schooling for dependents of Americans stationed on bases in the United States continued to grow as the Army grew. In 1967, approximately 40,000 minor age dependents of military and civilian personnel were attending 23 schools operating on military posts and bases in the United States.[4]

The establishment of dependents schools on military bases in the United States set the precedent for the provision of educational facilities and programs to dependent children of overseas military personnel. Previous to 1936, educational facilities did not exist in United States territories and possessions outside the continental limits of the United States or in overseas areas. In early 1936,

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[4]Anthony Cardinale, "Overseas Schools of the DOD," Phi Delta Kappan, XLVIII (May, 1967), 460-61.

however, a dependents school was opened at the Guantanamo Bay, Cuba Naval Base and later that year the Department of the Navy opened a dependents school in American Samoa at Pago Pago.[5]

Since dependents did not join American military personnel in the relatively short occupation of Germany after World War I, the need for such a school system never arose. When the decision was made after World War II to allow occupational personnel in Germany to have their dependents join them, the establishment of schools, as well as other essential services was a logical consequence.

The existing dependents school system was established in October, 1946 when 38 elementary and five high schools registered approximately 2800 American students and employed 120 American teachers. The original Munich American High School located in a private German home accommodated 38 students who were taught in the attic, basement and bedrooms.[6]

Today the present 216 dependents schools in Europe have almost 115,000 students enrolled with 5100 teachers employed. Nine hundred foreign nationals are employed in the system as foreign language or intercultural

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[5] Ibid., p. 461.

[6] "Dependent Schools," The Directorate United States Dependents Schools, European Area (Karlsruhe, Germany: USDESEA Pamphlet, 1969), p. 3.

education teachers, and as clerks, secretaries and other non-teaching personnel.[7]

## History of American International Schools

A major portion of this chapter is based primarily on the overseas American schools after World War II. Literature is lacking on overseas American schools before that time. It is interesting to observe, however, that the one notable exception occurred in India where American missionaries have served for over 100 years.

One of the earliest established overseas American schools for elementary and secondary students was founded in India. The Woodstock School, 160 miles north of Delhi, was founded in 1854 as a Protestant Missionary school. In 1874 the American Presbyterian Mission bought the school and remained in control until 1923, when several other missions became affiliated. At this time authority and responsibility for the operation of the school were shared among the various participating groups.[8] Woodstock today serves approximately 400 students, 75-80 per cent of whom are children of missionaries.[9]

At the close of World War II the breakup of world colonial empires and the establishment of new nations

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[7] Ibid., p. 3.

[8] A. E. Parker, "An Analysis of the Factors in the Personality Development of Children of Missionaries" (masters' dissertation, University of Chicago Divinity School, June 1936), pp. 33-34.

[9] Gleason, op. cit., p. 13.

found the United States in need of foreign service officers not only in the large world capitals but also in the newly developed nations. Since World War II, 66 new nations, covering one quarter of the world's surface, have been formed. At the same time, technical and economic assistance from the United States professionals in agriculture, business, education, medicine, science, construction, and government literally flooded into the developing countries.

If foreign service officers and professional specialists were to be recruited, naturally they had to have reasonable assurance that there would be schools for their children. Thus, hurried efforts were made to establish and maintain schools.

Another phenonomen followed rapidly. American free enterprise now looked beyond the borders of the continental United States. As never before, American businessmen and even those from the professions plus foundation officials saw opportunities for the private sector in other lands. As a result, American businessmen and professional men emigrated overseas. To recruit their American representatives, they too, soon found schools in foreign soil a necessity.

By 1968 more than two million American citizens were living and making their living overseas. Most of these persons with children of school age were insisting

on schools with an American oriented curriculum and schools staffed with American teachers.[10]

In the fall of 1963 a committee was commissioned by the Department of State to review the work and problems of selected American sponsored schools in Europe, the Far East, the Middle East and South Asia. The committee report described the schools, highlighted their strengths and weaknesses, and made recommendations for improvement. Largely as a result of these recommendations, the Office of Overseas Schools was established in the U. S. Department of State in 1964. Unlike their counterpart, the Department of Defense Dependents schools, these private American overseas schools are operated as separate entities, either under a charter or sponsorship by private organizations.

The number of overseas international schools assisted by the Office of Overseas Schools, as well as the total enrollment, have increased markedly since 1963. At the present time there are 135 schools with an enrollment of over 67,000 students. It should be pointed out, however, that while many schools have been added, others, because of wars or political change, have been forced to close their doors.[11] Vescolani, in 1970, brought out that "a declining

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[10]Finis E. Engleman and Edward W. Rushton, American-Sponsored Overseas Schools, A Second Look (Washington, D. C.: American Association of School Administrators, May, 1969), p. 2.

[11]Ibid., p. 35.

American population overseas is one of the primary factors for change in American overseas schools." He cited two major reasons for the smaller American population, "(1) The tendency of American business abroad to phase out American personnel, leaving only top-level American administrators, and filling other slots with nationals, and (2) large military, AID and other government sponsored withdrawals."[12]

## Organization of the American International Schools

### Administration

American international schools are generally governed by school boards with most of the board members being elected by constituency rather than by appointment. These boards function in different ways with some boards concerned more with administrative detail and operational items, while other boards confine themselves largely to policy matters, overall program approval and discussions of major goals. Some boards operate as a legislative body and others as an executive group. Although most of the members of the school boards are American citizens of the community served by the school, schools that enroll foreign nationals very often have representation from other countries.

The chief school administrator in an international school might have a variety of titles. In a large school

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[12]Fred Vescolani, "Viewpoint," Communique Michigan State University Institute for International Studies, Vol. 1, 3 (February, 1970), p. 8.

with more than one administrator, the chief administrator might be called the superintendent, the director, the headmaster or the principal. The chief school administrators in these schools are generally widely experienced and well-trained, with some having had many years of similar experiences in the United States. They must possess skill in personnel management, know how to make and administer a budget, and be able to work well with school boards and the community.

Other administrative personnel are employed in these schools. Frequently in the large schools, the primary, middle, junior or senior high school each might have a separate administrative head each functioning under the same headmaster or superintendent and sometimes under the same roof.

Prior to 1964 there had been no single agency in Washington with the responsibility for serving, aiding, and giving advice, support and leadership to the international schools. In that year the Office of Overseas Schools was established in Washington, D. C. by the United States Department of State. This office is staffed with qualified, professional educators who are expected to perform a nonauthoritative leadership role in assisting the American International schools. The Office of Overseas Schools in Washington serves as a source for these schools to turn to for facts and advice. It serves the schools in the field as a clearing house and provides advice and

counseling to the overseas school boards, administrators, teachers and parents.

Encouraged by the Washington Office of overseas Schools, foundations, colleges, universities, and professional organizations have, in recent years, developed an interest in the overseas international schools. The American Association of School Administrators established the position of Associate Secretary for International Education with special responsibility for rendering service to the overseas international schools. Other organizations, such as the Association for the Advancement of International Education and the Institute for the Development of Educational Activities, along with the American Association of School Administrators, have attempted to bring new insights, new techniques and new professional knowledge to these schools.

Finance

Overseas schools have some common problems: a board of education tendency to administer the schools; rapid turnover of teachers and administration; local hire vs. Stateside-hire problems; and fluctuating sources of funds.[13]

The overseas international schools are basically financed by the collection of tuition. Since 1963, considerable sums for capital outlay and for special programs

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[13] Ibid., p. 8.

have been made available through the Office of Overseas Schools by the Department of State and the Agency for International Development. Occasionally foundations, private individuals and corporations operating overseas make financial contributions to these schools.

As the tuition rates rise due to increasing overhead costs, economic barriers are sometimes set against some Americans living overseas and some students of other nationalities. Because of their location the costs of operating these private schools overseas is often greater than the revenue derived from tuition payments. The school's operating policies are frequently dictated to by local laws and regulations, local conditions and the enrollment composition. Diverse tax policies and political ideologies, foreign and domestic, also complicate the financing of the schools.

The school budgets are usually developed by the administrators and staff of the international schools and approved by the school boards. Once the budget is approved, the school board holds the administrative head responsible for administering and operating within the budget. Periodically the status of the operating budget is reported to the board. Personnel handling funds are usually bonded and accounts are audited.

## The School Program

The school program or curriculum in the typical overseas international school has been characterized as

academic and geared almost exclusively to the college-bound student. It is difficult to find comprehensive course offerings and the non-college bound student seems to be the forgotten one in many overseas international high school programs. Course offerings in the fields of industrial arts, practical arts, vocational, business education and home economics are virtually non-existent. Some attention is given to the fields of art, music, drama and physical education. Heavy stress is placed upon the foreign languages with special emphasis upon the host nation language.

Curricular guidelines for teachers, particularly in the small and more isolated schools are almost non-existent, although some staff members have worked at the local level on program outlines, educational objectives, methods and procedures and evaluative devices to evaluate learning success.

Specialist services are limited in the international schools. The students are not generally exposed to reading improvement specialists, speech therapists, guidance counselors, or special education programs. Little is offered in the way of extra curricular activities. Most of the guidance services offered place heavy emphasis upon preparing for college. In fact, a few of the schools define their functions in their charter, as American college preparatory schools.

A few of the international schools have been accredited by an American accrediting association. There seems, however, to be a growing interest in meeting such standards and as an incentive for seeking accreditation, the Office of Overseas Schools usually increases funding and acts as a liason agent with the accrediting agency. It should be recorded, however, that many of the schools are cognizant of the shortcomings in their course offerings and are making honest attempts to innovate with sometimes very meager financial resources.

Facilities

School buildings for international schools as with Department of Defense schools range from poor to above average. The high school buildings could be considered more adequate than many of the elementary schools in both systems.

In 1963 most of the overseas international schools were housed in old, inadequate, and often dilapidated rented buildings which had not been designed specifically for school purposes. The second survey conducted by AASA brought out that although many buildings are still needed, it is fair to say that greatly increased plant facilities with fair equipment have been constructed in the past few years.[14]

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[14]Engleman and Rushton, op. cit., p. 8.

In the capitals and major cities excellent facilities are available such as in the Overseas Schools of Rome, the American School of The Hague and the American School in Paris. The American School in Paris was able to obtain the 120 room facility, complete with cafeteria, gymnasium and dormitories from the American Armed Forces when they were phased out of France in May, 1967.

Some Overseas International schools have, with assistance from the U. S. government and U. S. business, along with help from the local community, been able to select a site, design a modern school plant, and complete a major part of the construction. Financing a new school presents a serious problem for local boards with limited resources and the future seems dark unless major grants become available from the local sector and the federal government.

The Staff

The faculties of the international schools are basically composed of American teachers who were educated in the United States. A survey conducted in 1968 revealed however, that in these schools, the small schools particularly continue to recruit mainly from the people locally available, many of whom are not career teachers.[15]

Emerging countries are demanding training of their own nationals in staffing of these schools, according to

[15] Ibid., p. 15.

Dr. Vescolani, who is Coordinator for Mexican and Central American schools and Consultant to the Office of Overseas Schools. His consultant role puts him in an advisory capacity on school board-administrative relations, board-teacher and board-community relations, and on policy development.[16]

A Second Look cites that more of the teachers in 1968 had bachelor's degrees or advanced credentials from good universities and that they were more mature in judgement, more experienced, and better trained than the teachers from these schools in 1963 whom they felt were interested mainly in travel and foreign adventure. The AASA found, on the positive side, that many schools could boast of faculty credentials which equal many of the better schools in the United States. Where high teacher preparation was found, however, other favorable conditions prevailed, such as reasonably good salaries, favorable cultural environment, superior instructional resources and programs, good working conditions and reasonable housing. In other words, the same factors that recruit and hold superior teachers in schools in the United States are equally effective in schools overseas.[17]

Turnover of staff no doubt was found to be the most devastating factor as far as developing new programs and achieving excellence is concerned. The statistics on

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[16]Vescolani, op. cit., p. 8.

[17]Engleman and Rushton, op. cit., p. 15.

turnover are revealing. The records show from 30 to 100 per cent turnover of staff annually. In one school system, the committee found that in 1967-68, 68 per cent of the teachers had been in the school for one year or less. The figures went on to reveal that only 11 per cent of the teachers had been in the system for five years.[18]

Intercultural Education

Several international schools, recognizing the importance of maintaining intercultural relations with the host country and being sensitive to local mores and politics have selected host country nationals as assistants to their chief school administrators. One good example of this practice may be found in the Belgrade School where the isolation and the possible conflict of values seemed to justify selection of a highly qualified host country national as an educational assistant to the principal. This person was clearly proving of significant value to the total school program and at the same time was enhancing international understanding between the United States and Yugoslavia.[19]

The development of intercultural appreciation and understanding is possibly the most outstanding offering in the curriculum of the international schools. Almost

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[18] Ibid., p. 17.

[19] Ibid., p. 31.

all of the schools offer the host nation language, with some starting in the first grade. Many schools become significantly involved in the cultural and academic life of the community. Field trips are executed, playdays with host nation children, band concerts, games, etc. are a part of the program.

Teachers in the international schools have an excellent opportunity to become involved in intercultural activities. Some are married to host nationals, live in quarters where they learn the host language, teach children of many nationalities and spend time attending courses at foreign universities. Some schools have arranged to train student teachers from host nation schools.

## Organization of DOD Schools

### Administration

During the period 1946-1964 the three services--Army, Navy and Air Force--operated separate overseas dependents schools. As these systems grew from a relatively small number of isolated schools to large complexes, it became necessary to improve administration and to eliminate costly duplication.

In 1964, the Secretary of Defense reorganized the administration of dependents schools by placing in one military department responsibility for academic administration of all schools within a given area. The Department of the Army was made responsible for academic

administration in Europe, the Navy in the Atlantic, and the Air Force in the Pacific. In 1966 responsibility for the organization, operation, administration and logistical support of all Department of Defense Overseas Dependents Schools was given to the office of Assistant Secretary of Defense (Manpower). The following functions were assumed by this office: the selection of general educational goals and objectives; the development of appropriate curricula and lists of approved instructional materials; the provision for the procurement and distribution of school unique items; the establishment of professional standards for all school professional personnel; the recruitment, selection, assignment, and transfer of all professional personnel to and between overseas school areas; the development of standards for the operation and administration of the academic design and construction of school facilities.[20] The assignment of the responsibility for the education of all American forces dependents in the European area to the Department of the Army resulted in the establishment of the Directorate, United States Dependents Schools at Karlsruhe, Germany. The Directorate at Karlsruhe consists of the Director of USDESEA and his staff.

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[20]Cardinale, op. cit., p. 461.

Finance

The overseas dependents schools in Europe are sponsored by the United States Department of Defense with support afforded by the United States Army, European Headquarters in Heidelberg, Germany. These schools operate from a central budget with teachers' salaries, teaching materials, transportation, and building funds generated from Congressional appropriations.

Logistical support of the schools is the responsibility of the local installation commanders in each geographical area, and includes the provision of suitable and adequate school facilities, dormitories (when required), area and district offices, and all supplies and equipment necessary to operate a school.[21]

The School Program

The curriculum offered in the United States dependent elementary and secondary schools is similar to that offered in the public schools in the United States. Since the students in the DOD schools represent a cross section of America, the program varies, as it does in the United States. All of the 34 high schools have programs fully accredited by the North Central Accrediting Association. In the elementary schools, modern mathematics, the new approaches in science, English, and other curricula are common. Intercultural education is stressed with special

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[21] Ibid., p. 462.

attention given to the language customs, and culture of the host nation. Each dependent school has a curriculum review committee which forwards its suggestions for program and materials to district review committees who in turn forward the suggestions to the Directorate.

Among the new programs in the DOD schools are black studies, drug abuse, and human sexuality. Some high schools are offering instruction in computer education, data processing, and uses of video taping. A model elementary school and high school are developing instructional materials to further individualized instruction in the schools. Special education programs for retarded and physically handicapped children are provided in certain designated schools.

Facilities

In the first years of the dependents school system in Europe, locally available buildings were used, but these were generally inadequate since the Office of the Military Government had forbidden the requisitioning of German school buildings for use by the American forces. Schools were housed in whatever was available, sometimes in apartments, in private houses, even in troop billets where there was space left over. In 1953 a school construction program was completed, and paid for by the West German Government. Projects consisted of either the construction of new buildings or alterations to old buildings, at a cost of $10,500,000. Despite

the number of new school buildings and the renovation and improvement of other requisitioned school buildings, the influx of troops and personnel have continued to keep pressure on the available space, while a unique situation exists in that all newly constructed school buildings must be approved by the local government and in actuality, are the property of these governments."[23] For school year 1970/71 USDESEA maintained 216 schools with over 114,000 students in kindergarten through 12th grade.[24]

The Staff

USDESEA teachers, like their students, come from every state in the United States. USDESEA teachers have an average of 10 years experience compared with the national average of 12 years, 31 per cent have graduate degrees compared with the national average of 30 per cent. The average age of the USDESEA teacher is 33 years compared with the national average of 39 years.[25]

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[22] The Dependents School Program of the U. S. Army, Europe, 1946-56 (Europe: Headquarters United States Army, Historical Division, 1958), p. 5.

[23] Robert H. Martin, "An Orientation Handbook for Teachers in the United States Army Schools in Europe" (unpublished masters' thesis, University of Southern California, 1956), p. 74.

[24] Joseph A. Mason, in a briefing presented as Director of United States Dependents Schools, European Area, to the Curriculum Coordinators: Directorate, Karlsruhe, Germany, April, 1970.

[25] "Twenty-Five Years," The Directorate, United States Dependents Schools, European Area (Karlsruhe, Germany: USDESEA Pamphlet, April, 1971), p. 8.

Seventy-four per cent of all USDESEA teachers are female and 43 per cent are married. More than 60 per cent of all USDESEA teachers are in their first, second, or third year of service to the system.

USDESEA for the school year 1970/71 employed 5,088 American teachers to teach 114,656 students in 216 schools located in 14 countries. For the school year 1970/71, 268 American teachers were recruited from the United States and 801 teachers were locally hired dependent wives or tourists traveling during summer leave. Three hundred forty eight teachers were transferred from the Pacific dependents schools.[26]

Applicants for overseas teaching positions in USDESEA schools are required to have a bachelor's degree, 18 semester hours of course work in the field of professional teacher education, two years of successful teaching experience, and certain specialized qualifications dependent upon the subject taught. The two years of teaching experience may be waived for qualified teachers employed in Europe.

Salaries are based upon a recurring survey made of public school salaries in the major school systems in the United States. The salary schedule includes additional increments for advanced degrees and for longevity.

All USDESEA classroom teachers recruited in the United States receive the following collateral benefits:

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[26]Mason, op. cit., p. 10.

Post Exchange and military commissary privileges, access to all U.S. Armed Forces recreation areas, U. S. Civil Service retirement coverage, medical and dental out-patient care for a small fee at military dispensaries, and transportation to and from overseas at government expense. Usually, single teachers are provided with bachelor officer quarters, or, when government quarters are not available, employees receive a quarters allowance to cover rent in private quarters.

Turnover of the teaching staff averages about 20 per cent yearly. One reason for this percentage is the number of teachers who obtain leave from their school systems in the United States and can rarely extend a leave past the second year.

Intercultural Education

Intercultural education in USDESEA is not confined to one teacher or to one class period. It continues throughout the day, not only in social studies, but in the language arts, in science, in art and music; it is correlated to the curriculum on an interdisciplinary basis. Elementary school children, accompanied by classroom teachers and parent chaperones, annually participate in week-long, outdoor camp-study programs. USDESEA students from schools throughout Europe ski on the slopes of southern Bavaria and northern Italy usually with children of the host nation. Together they study part of

the day and spend the remainder of the school day exploring nature and learning to ski.

Each school designs its intercultural program to fit its needs and desires. There are types of programs ranging from professional activities involving American teachers and teachers in the local communities to a variety of programs which bring together American boys and girls with boys and girls of the host nation.

Joint participation by American and host nation children in tours of ancient castles and cathedrals, group concerts, international student forums, folk fests and sports events are commonplace.

In some schools, arrangements are made for USDESEA students to live in youth hostels for a week or two with their counterparts from the host nations; they play and work together, quite often forming lasting friendships. They usually emerge with a better mutual understanding and a more accurate picture of each other's culture and customs.[27]

Local national teachers (citizens of the country in which the school is located) contribute immensely to the success of the intercultural program by serving as liason between the school and the local community. They also normally teach the host nation language to the elementary school students.

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[27]"Twenty-five Years," op. cit., p. 19.

The American teachers working in the USDESEA schools generally come to Europe with a desire to know the people and culture along with their primary mission of teaching in the schools. Many are convinced that part of their mission overseas is to instill this same curiosity and same desire to learn about the culture and the people of the country in which they are employed into the hearts of the children they are teaching.

## Overseas Student Teaching Programs

American universities have been sponsoring overseas student teaching programs since 1965. The University of Southern California, Boston University, Pennsylvania State University, Florida State University, Stetson University, Miami University of Ohio and Michigan State University are among those most involved in overseas student teaching programs.

The major universities contributing to the overseas student teaching programs have been the University of Southern California and Michigan State University. USC has had a program of student teaching overseas since 1966 while MSU started on overseas student teaching programs in 1969. The USC program consisted of about 10-12 student teachers assigned to three or four schools for a period of one semester about 10 to 12 weeks. The students were generally assigned to one of the professors who was teaching in the USC School of Education Graduate Overseas Program. This person usually made two or three trips to

each school where a USC student teacher was assigned. USC has traditionally assigned student teachers to only DOD schools, however, in the school year 1970/71, some USC student teachers were assigned to International schools.

The other mentioned schools have spasmodically sent student teachers to overseas schools to train, some universities have sent a student coordinator with the student teachers while others have asked the local school principal to aid and evaluate the student teacher.

Michigan State University has been assigning student teachers to both the DOD and Overseas International schools since Spring term 1969 when the first group of student teachers was assigned to the American School of the International Schools of The Hague. Student teachers of Michigan State University included in the present study were assigned to overseas American schools in England, Italy and Holland. From 20 to 25 student teachers were assigned to each school for approximately 8 to 10 weeks. The student teachers assigned to schools in England lived in bachelor officers quarters on an American air base, the student teachers assigned to Italy lived in Italian pensiones (boarding houses) and the student teachers assigned to Holland lived in private Dutch homes.

Student teachers of Michigan State University travel to their overseas assignment as a group and are accompanied by a regular MSU faculty member of the university student teaching staff. This faculty member serves

as a coordinator of the program, and works with the school administration and teaching staff in planning and providing an individualized program of experiences for each student teacher.[28] The coordinator who accompanies the student teachers overseas has a regular assignment as a director of one of the 16 MSU student teaching centers in Michigan.

Although the primary task of the overseas coordinator is the supervision and evaluation of the student teachers, another task that the coordinator must assume is the teaching of an MSU graduate course in education to the supervising teachers. This course could include, but not be limited to, the supervision of student teachers, utilization of community resources or curriculum improvement. The courses are offered to the supervising teachers at in-state tuition rates and can be used as a part of the MSU overseas masters program.

The student teachers assigned to overseas centers, hopefully take advantage of the opportunity to study and participate in a second culture, in order to better understand the similarities and differences in customs, living patterns and traditions. Student teachers selected for overseas assignments represent a cross section of grade levels and subject areas from kindergarten through senior

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[28]W. Henry Kennedy, "A Cooperative Student Teaching Program Between Michigan State University and Selected American International Schools" (East Lansing, Michigan: Student Teaching Office, Michigan State University, January, 1970), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

high school and are selected for (1) their interest in gaining living experiences in a second culture, (2) their academic and cultural background, and (3) their personality characteristics.[29]

## Overseas Schools Used in this Study

### The Hague

The International School of The Hague is a non-profit organization established in 1953 to serve the needs of the foreign community in the Netherlands. Each of its autonomous member schools operates as a private day school offering courses of instruction fulfilling its national educational requirements. The American School of The International Schools offers three programs, elementary, middle, and high school. The principals of these schools are American. The teachers, with the exception of native foreign language instructors, are American trained and are required to have a minimum of two years of experience. Virtually all of the teachers have a minimum of five years experience and are certified teachers.[30]

The combined enrollment of the divisions of the Hague American International School is over 800 students. Classes are small and average 21 students in grades one

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[29] Ibid., p. 4.

[30] The American School of the International Schools of The Hague (The Hague, Netherlands: The American School of the International Schools of The Hague, September, 1970), p. 3.

through twelve. Approximately 85 per cent of the students are American; the remaining 15 per cent represent 25 different nationalities. A few boarding students are admitted each year. The school assists parents in locating housing for these students in approved Dutch homes.

In the elementary school, grades kindergarten through four, a comprehensive, contemporary curriculum, patterned after that of the average elementary school found in the United States, is offered.

Course offerings in the school grades kindergarten through twelve, follow that of the better American schools. Modern mathematics is offered at all grade levels and the conceptual and discovery through inquiry approaches are offered in science and social studies. Heavy emphasis is placed upon the instruction of foreign language with a course in conversational Dutch being required of all newly enrolled students placed in grades three through eight. General music and physical education are offered at all grade levels. Each school contains a library and emphasis is placed upon its use as a multimedia resource center for both students and teachers.

Home economics and industrial arts are offered in the middle school. Personal typing is available for both middle and high school students.

The high school program provides an intensive college preparatory program with four years of English and social studies required. Two years each of mathematics,

science and foreign language are required for graduation. Music, art, and personal typing are offered on an elective basis and all students participate in physical education classes.

College Board Examinations are offered four times yearly. Extra curricular activity centers around the club program which has major emphasis in the Middle School. Intramural and interscholastic activities are offered to the high school students.

A number of cultural and sport activities are jointly sponsored with the other foreign schools in the Hague. In addition, art, music, and poetry competitions have been held.

Counseling and guidance services are offered to the high school students with stress laid upon gaining admissions to college as well as helping to solve personal problems. Extra help is often provided in specific subject areas for students who arrive late and encounter difficulties in certain courses. If necessary, the school will assist in making arrangements for private tutoring at extra cost.

The school follows the standard school calendar found in most American schools with a total school year of 181 school days. Local national and religious holidays are observed by the school. Tuition rates vary, with kindergarten fees of $350.00, $500.00 for the elementary

school, $600.00 for the middle school and $700.00 for grades nine through twelve.[31]

Each school contains well lighted, fully equipped and maintained classrooms in school buildings loaned to the school by the Dutch Ministry of Education. Major maintenance of the outside of the building is handled by Dutch authorities. No cafeteria is available and pupils bring their own lunches to school with milk or soft drinks available at school. Bus transportation to and from school is available to all students with a fee per student in grades K-12 of $50.00 per semester. Textbooks are provided for student use during the school year on a loan basis. In addition to tuition fees, an enrollment fee is charged for all students ranging from $20.00 to $100.00 in grades kindergarten through twelve.[32]

The American School of the International Schools of The Hague is an approved school for dependents of all United States Government departments and agencies. Kindergarten or its equivalent is a prerequisite for entering grade one. Children entering the first grade should have reached their sixth birthday by 31 December of the year they are enrolled.

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[31] Ibid., p. 13.

[32] Ibid., p. 14.

The Overseas School of Rome

The Overseas School of Rome was established in 1947 by a group of American and British parents as a non-profit, non-sectarian, English-language school to prepare children for admission to schools and universities in their own countries.[33]

The Overseas School of Rome population is non-denominational and the school is attended by students representing 35 nationalities and a broad range of religious faiths. The school contains a pre-school section (four year olds), kindergarten (five year olds), a lower school (grades one-six), and a high school (grades 7-12). Approximately 80 per cent of the students are Americans who plan to return to schools in the United States or to continue their studies at colleges in the United States after completing their high school programs. The faculty and administration are multi national but predominantly American.

The student body reflects a number of students with parents assigned to embassies and consulates, military assistance groups, industrial and commercial enterprises, and the United Nations, as well as Fulbright scholars, artists and journalists.

In 1953, the United States government made a grant to the school under the terms of U. S. Public Law 480

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[33] The Overseas School of Rome--Catalogue (Rome, Italy: Overseas School of Rome, 1969), p. 2.

which aims to promote a better understanding of the United States in other countries, and to increase mutual understanding between the people of the United States and the people of other countries. With the aid of this grant of $450,000 over a five year period, the Board of Trustees constructed a new building for the elementary school, additional high school classrooms and a gymnasium, set up a program of scholarship assistance to enable Italian children to attend the school and provided badly needed supplements to faculty salaries.[34]

In recent years, the school has had to resolve the problem of the steady growth of the student body, the steady rise in the percentage of Americans in the student body, and the need of the American students for a college preparatory program that prepares them for college-entrance requirements and examinations. It was found impossible, in terms of finances, staff and facilities, to provide alternative curricular offerings and to prepare students of several nationalities for the entrance requirements of Universities in their home countries. As a consequence, the Board of Trustees of the Overseas School at a special meeting in the spring of 1965 approved a new charter for the Overseas School which defines it as an American college-preparatory school.

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[34] Ibid., p. 3.

Instruction at the Overseas School of Rome is in English. Foreign language is taught at all grades of the school by the Pattern Practice method, based on recent studies of linguistics applied to the teaching of a foreign language. All students in grades 1-6 study Italian as part of their program. In the lower school, students have a prescribed program consisting of English, mathematics, science, social studies, Italian, art, music and physical education. The social studies curriculum in the lower school relates European history to Greek, Roman and American, presenting physical and socio-economic geography and correlating these programs with art, music and literature.

In grades seven and eight, a period per day is offered in English, mathematics, social studies, language, and science. Physical education, art and music are offered one to three times weekly. Honors courses which present an enriched or accelerated program are offered. Students may choose between Italian or French at the appropriate level and may elect Latin as a sixth major subject.

A minimum program for students in grades 9-12 consists of four major subjects, of which one may be English, offered one period per day. Physical education, art and music may be taken for a minimum of two periods per week. Most students elect five major subjects, and some students are allowed to take six major subjects.

Honors courses are offered in English and mathematics with an accelerated program offered in social studies. Courses are also offered in contemporary poetry, drama and journalism. A reading specialist teaches remedial and developmental reading to selected students at various grade levels.[35]

The Overseas School of Rome has an integrated curriculum in each field of study for grades one through twelve. A curriculum review committee composed of the department chairmen and selected faculty members continually reviews the curriculum for its relationship to students' needs and the school's philosophy.

An outstanding feature of the academic program is the low teacher-pupil ratio throughout the school. Grade sections in the lower school range from 22 to 25 students, in the upper school classes range from seminar groups of 6 to 10 students for advanced courses in most subjects to an average of 20 and a maximum of 25 students in the larger courses in Social Studies.

The curriculum at the Overseas School of Rome is American college preparatory in nature and effect. Students of other nationalities are not prepared especially for entrance to the universities in their own countries and graduation from Overseas School of Rome does not by itself, guarantee them the right to enter these universities.

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[35] Ibid., p. 4.

The program at Overseas School of Rome is sufficiently similar to that of the Italian and Commonwealth schools at the first through fifth grade levels to enable these students to re-enter their national school system without difficulty until or after grade five. The program in grades 6-12 diverges from that of the Italian schools and makes it increasingly difficult or impossible for the older student to re-enter the Italian school without having to make-up the time spent in the school.

A professionally trained guidance director is available on a full time basis to work with the students. Educational and career planning is emphasized in the guidance program. College guidance is an integral part of the process and students are counseled in selecting the most suitable programs consistent with their individual interests, the schools graduation requirements, and the admissions requirements of the colleges they select to attend. A guidance reference section in the library provides career and educational information for students.

A coordinated testing program is carried on under the supervision of the Guidance Department. National testing programs are integrated in the school program when desirable. The school is a test center for the College Entrance Board, the American College Testing Program and the National Merit Scholarship program.

The Overseas School of Rome grants two diplomas, each with different requirements. One, the Academic Diploma, requires 22 Carnegie units, while the General Diploma requires 18 Carnegie units. The big difference between the two diplomas is the heavier emphasis upon foreign language, mathematics and science in order to obtain the academic diploma.[36]

The school has a scholarship program, largely based on funds received from the governments of Italy and the United States, to help finance the education of deserving students. A limited number of partial scholarships are awarded on the basis of past academic performance and recommendations.

The school serves as a demonstration center in Italy of American educational methods and philosophy. The school is visited by Italian teachers and by groups of Italian students several times during the year.

Lakenheath Dependents Schools

The American Dependents School presently located at Lakenheath Royal Air Force Base, Suffolk, England was originally established at Mildenhall Royal Air Force Base when an elementary school was opened in 1956. The school was moved to its present site on the RAF base at Lakenheath in 1958. In September, 1960, the Lakenheath American

[36] Ibid., p. 11.

High was established and operated as a seven through twelve grade junior-senior high school. In August 1969 the junior high school was separated from the high school and the seventh through ninth grades were moved to the Royal Air Force Station at Feltwell, Norfolk, England approximately eight miles from the Lakenheath Air Base.

During the 1970-71 school year over 3500 students were enrolled in the Lakenheath school complex with over 500 of the total high school enrollment of 800 students being housed in a seven-day dormitory located on the Lakenheath Air Base. The Lakenheath school complex does not have kindergarten classes and American students of pre-school age frequently attend the English Infants Schools located in villages surrounding the air base. The dormitory although staffed with non-teaching American personnel is administered by the supervisory principal of the three schools. Each one of the three schools in the complex is administered by a building principal who is, in turn, responsible to the supervisory principal.

The Lakenheath American Dependents Schools are part of the 216 Department of Defense overseas schools in Europe and are operated by the United States Dependents Schools European Area with offices located in Karlsruhe, Germany. The school is maintained strictly for dependents of United States military and civilian personnel; however, other English speaking students may be admitted on a tuition-paying, space-available basis.

In the three Lakenheath American schools contemporary curricula patterned after the better public schools in the United States are offered. The large elementary school containing 1800 students in grades one through six is staffed with an American librarian, nurse, counselor, two reading improvement specialists, special education teachers, a speech therapist, and music, art and a physical education teacher. All students in the junior high school are enrolled in English, mathematics, social studies, science and physical education. Other electives are offered, some of which give high school credits. One unique feature of the operation of the Lakenheath Junior High School is that it is located on a British Air Station controlled by a British Commander, but logistical support for the school is the responsibility of the American Air Base Commander at Lakenheath.

The Lakenheath Senior High School was constructed in 1960 at a cost of over $2,000,000 with costs to be paid from surplus commodity funds.* Over $250,000 of extra monies were expended in order to equip and furnish the completed structures.

Lakenheath Senior High School is one of the three American High Schools existing in the United Kingdom to serve the educational needs of dependents of Americal military and civilian personnel. The others are at London and High Wycomb.

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*Commodity Funds are derived from the sale of U. S. Government goods to a foreign country.

Lakenheath high school offers a four-year curriculum for day and residence students enrolled in grades nine through twelve. Residence facilities are available for students to reside in on either a five or seven day basis, depending on the father's work assignment.

The high school offers a program similar to the better high schools in the United States. All members of the staff are fully certificated by state departments of education and are carefully chosen by professional school administrators and civil service recruiting teams for their successful teaching experience and graduate training. Lakenheath High School is a fully accredited member of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. A minimum of 16 units of credit is required for graduation. A unit of credit equals two semesters of a full-year course or two one-semester courses. A minimum of four courses not including physical education is ordinarily required. Along with the regular courses offered in high schools in the United States, Lakenheath High School offers courses in creative writing, debate, humanities, international relations, sociology, Russian I and II and home economics for boys and mechanical and technical drawing for girls.

Two full time guidance counselors are available to aid in selection of courses, assist college-bound students and administer the standardized testing program. Supervision of the dormitories is provided by a staff of

American and British counselors. Most students are housed three to a room. These students eat three meals a day in the school cafeteria. A large recreation lounge and a small snack bar are adjacent to the cafeteria. The school auditorium, gymnasium, tennis courts and sports fields are available for many dormitory activities.

Interscholastic activities are carried on with both British and American High Schools. An active student council and an inter-dormitory council serves the needs of both the day students and the dormitory students.

## MSU Student Teaching Programs in Public Schools in Michigan

The Certification Code of the Michigan State Board of Education states as one of the requirements for certification of teachers that:

> An applicant for a teaching position must present evidence that he has participated under institutional supervision in a program of laboratory experiences with children at the level of his proposed certificate.

The Certification Code cites that no less than eight semester hours must be spent in with the laboratory experience. Of these eight hours, no less than five semester hours are to be spent in directed teaching at the level for which the certification is granted.[37]

For state certification purposes in Michigan, a minimum of 30 clock hours of responsible classroom teaching

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[37] Rules Governing the Certification of Michigan Teachers (Lansing, Michigan: Department of Education, Bureau of Higher Education, July, 1967), p. 2.

and observation under the supervision of a sponsoring institution is counted as the equivalent of one semester hour of credit in directed teaching.[38]

The primary agency for the planning and implementation of the total program for teacher preparation at Michigan State University is the School of Teacher Education, in the College of Education. One of the most important functions served by the School of Teacher Education is the development and maintenance of a network of cooperating public schools which work with the student teaching office to provide actual classroom experiences for prospective teachers.

Since the Fall of 1956, full-time off campus student teaching has been a requirement for all students earning teaching certificates at Michigan State University. The School of Teacher Education has been cooperating with more than 130 Michigan school systems. It has enrolled during the past five years an average of over 2700 students for the student teaching experience. The college has stationed some 40 full time equivalent faculty members in 16 resident centers throughout the state to coordinate the professional work of the student teachers. Under this program both elementary and secondary education students live in a Michigan community for eleven weeks. There, they are considered to be members of the regular school faculty where they are assigned for their student teaching

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[38] Ibid., p. 10.

and they participate in school and related community activities.[39]

Students participate in a weekly seminar under the direction of the university faculty member who resides in the community. They study regional and community educational enterprises and agencies, discuss pertinent problems with civic leaders, take part in church activities, and give assistance to such youth programs as scouting and "Y" activities.

Opportunities are offered to the student teachers in these communities which are impossible in part-time student teaching situations. In this situation, the student has much occasion to see the total school in operation. He is given a chance to participate in after-school athletic programs, intramurals, boys and girls athletic association activities, and student clubs. He observes and takes part in noon-hour supervision, in guidance of playground activities, and has other opportunities to take an active part in family affairs at teachers' meetings, PTA activities, faculty study committees, work with specialists assigned to the school and conferences with parents.[40]

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[39]Professional Education, A Mission of Michigan State University (East Lansing, Michigan: Michigan State University, 1969), p. 4.

[40]Ibid., p. 4.

One of the most important advantages of the MSU resident student teaching program is that students can see first-hand and have a part in the development of a continuous teaching program for pupils. They can observe from a good vantage point how different phases of the curriculum are related, what kinds of emphasis are important in a sequential program of teaching, and the interrelationship of one classroom to the total program in the school.

The resident student teaching program provides opportunity for teaching in many different kinds of programs. This is particularly significant for the elementary major, since elementary schools provide experiences in self-contained classrooms, team teaching, and block time schedules. Practice is not only provided in teaching the basic subjects, but also experience is gained in art, physical education, music, and in other specialized areas as well as in different organizational areas. This training also is helpful to the student teacher who is preparing to teach in the secondary schools, since many junior and senior high school teachers teach some courses in their minor as well as their major field. The full-time resident program may permit the student teacher to gain some experience teaching in his minor field.

Student teachers get to know their pupils better by being with a group for a longer period of time. They study the backgrounds of their pupils, they have more

time for understanding and helping to diagnose difficulties of children, and they are able to offer more effective guidance and counseling since they are with their groups full time during the term.

The student teaching residence program in each center is directed by a Resident Student Teaching Coordinator. This Coordinator carries full faculty rank and status. There are many advantages in having a Student Teaching Coordinator assigned full-time to a community; he knows the teaching staff and school administrators, and is acquainted with school and district policies. He learns first-hand the curricula of the local schools and how to adapt them to the needs and abilities of the student teachers. He knows the community, its resources, its problems, and how school and community work together. This intimate knowledge of school and staff allows for more effective assignment of individual student teachers to particular supervising teachers.[41] Dean brings out the many advantages in the preparation of teachers that have been found in this type of a program:

1. Better methodology and more effective ways in 'how to teach' results from the resident student teaching program because of optimum emphasis on the factors of time, sequence, and continuity.

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[41]Leland W. Dean, "A Description of Michigan State's Full-Time Teaching Program (East Lansing, Michigan: Michigan State University, College of Education, May, 1966), p. 2.

2. Since this program provides for more careful analysis of pupils' backgrounds, records, strengths, and weaknesses, and since there is time to relate them to school progress, a deeper insight into understanding of pupil behavior and improved ways of evaluating achievement are accomplished by the student teacher.

3. The teacher-in-training has greater opportunities to observe and understand the interrelationship of one classroom to the school, of school to school, and of school to community.

4. Student teachers' contacts with parents and parent activities are increased through this program. Hence, students who have had this experience are better able as beginning teachers to work with parents.

5. Problems of teaching and methods of solving them become immediately more realistic as student teacher, classroom teacher, and coordinator tackle the problems cooperatively in a real public school setting.

6. The Resident Coordinator who lives in the community and who works in the local schools is more readily available and can give more time to visitation, observation, and consultation than a college supervisor who may live on campus many miles from the community. Where student teaching programs were operated by campus based staff, a common complaint of supervising teachers has been: "I'm not sure what the college wants me to do. I never see the college representative often enough or long enough for him to explain my role as a supervising teacher." This is <u>not a problem</u> under the resident program.

7. Every coordinator of student teaching under the MSU resident center plan devotes at least one-half day each week to a seminar related to student teaching. The group is large enough to insure a lively and challenging session and to include problems common to each level of teaching. The size of the group is such that resource persons from the school system or the community feel that their contributions are not 'wasted' on a mere handful of prospective teachers. Since the coordinator also involves

the students in planning and in carrying out the seminar meetings, they are able to draw upon their reservoir of talent and ability, and their creative skills, in enriching the seminar learnings.

8. Our program of helping teachers to better understand the work and responsibility necessary in supervising a student teacher has great emphasis under the resident center program. Individual conferences, group meetings of supervising teachers, and quick attention to supervising teacher questions and problems are a part of the program. In most centers the resident coordinator teaches the course, 'Supervision of Student Teaching' to improve the understanding of the supervising teacher of the program and his responsibilities and possible contributions. This leads to their improved effectiveness as supervising teachers.[42]

## Michigan State University Clinical Cluster Student Teaching Program

In 1967 representatives of the teacher preparation institutions in Michigan began working together to develop improved programs of teacher education with special emphasis placed upon laboratory experiences for student teachers. There was general agreement that developing closer partnerships with public schools would strengthen teacher education programs and at the same time improve inservice educational opportunities for teachers in public schools.

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[42] Ibid., p. 3.

In a position paper in which the structure of a model teaching program was presented, the authors presented four principles that they considered paramount.[43]

1. The program for student teachers should provide great flexibility so that strengths and weakness of the individual students will determine the specific program each will follow.

2. An individually designed program can build upon the unique competencies of each student teacher.

3. The program shall be structured to provide many kinds of school experiences for the student teacher in addition to classroom teaching.

4. Effective means should be developed to bring practicing teachers and teacher preparation institutions into a true partnership in the design and implementation of teacher education programs.

In designing the new type of laboratory experience as suggested in the model teaching program, Michigan State University developed the Clinical Cluster Program. In the cluster program, the student teachers are assigned to a teacher jointly selected by the school principal, teaching staff and the MSU student teaching center director. This teacher is released for a portion of his teaching load and is designated as a Clinical Cluster Consultant. He works with the rest of the building staff in providing a

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[43]Leland Dean and W. Henry Kennedy in collaboration with Deans and Directors of Teacher Education of Michigan in Michigan Colleges. "A Position Paper on Student Teaching Programs," in Howard E. Bosley, Teacher Education in Transition, An Experiment in Change, Vol. 1 (Baltimore, Maryland: Multi-State Teacher Education Project, May, 1969), pp. 165-66.

sequence of experiences based on the diagnosed needs of the students and the resources and needs in the building. The teacher selected as the Clinical Cluster Consultant teaches a half a day and works for and is paid by MSU for the remainder of the day which is spent working with student teachers. The Consultant is directly responsible to the University Student Teaching Center Director for all activities involving student teachers and to the principal for all matters affecting the faculty and students.[44]

The assignment of the Clinical Cluster Consultant includes providing leadership to student teachers, providing classroom supervision and instruction to student teachers when needed, identifying student teacher problems, and aiding in developing individualized participatory schedules based upon the diagnosed needs of the student teachers.

This program has met with outstanding success at Michigan State University and will be expanded to include over 1200 of the approximately 3000 student teachers who will be assigned to MSU student teaching centers in Michigan during the school year 1971-1972.

## Summary

This chapter reviews the literature relative to the establishment of and comparison of the overseas American

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[44]W. Henry Kennedy, "Responsibilities in Clinical Cluster Program," Supplement to Agreement with Schools for Clinical Clusters (East Lansing, Michigan: Student Teaching Office, Michigan State University, n.d.), p. 2.

international schools with the Department of Defense Dependents Schools.

The organizational structure of the American Dependents Schools and the American International schools covering administration, finance, the school program, facilities, the staff and intercultural education has been presented for both systems. A review of the nature of overseas student teaching programs of American universities is presented with particular emphasis upon the student teaching programs of Michigan State University in the public schools of Michigan and in the overseas student teaching centers. A description of the three overseas student teaching centers used in this study is presented in this chapter.

From a review of the literature reported in this study it was found that while a great deal of research has been conducted on foreign students exchange, relatively few studies have been conducted on American elementary and secondary teacher populations training or working for extended periods of time in a foreign country. A great percentage of the literature contained in this chapter was in the form of letters, pamphlets, briefs and position papers.

# CHAPTER III

# RESEARCH PROCEDURES

## Introduction

The primary purpose of this study was to compare the effects of the presence of Michigan State University student teachers in overseas American schools with the effects of the presence of Michigan State University student teachers assigned to Michigan public schools. The secondary purpose was to identify and measure some of the changes in attitudes and values of student teachers assigned to overseas schools.

This chapter presents: a description of the sample; development of the survey instrument; the methods used in the collection of data; the statistical hypotheses; and the techniques used to code and record the data.

## Identification of Sample

The sample population used in this study included four referent groups of student teachers of Michigan State University and the supervising teachers of these students. The largest group was the 595 student teachers

assigned to the 16 student teaching centers of Michigan State University throughout Michigan during the fall term of 1969. This group was a segment of the original survey, "The Impact of Student Teaching Programs Upon the Cooperating Public Schools in Michigan," conducted by deans and directors of teacher education institutions in Michigan, which was administered in 1969 to the entire student teaching population assigned by 28 teacher preparation institutions in Michigan. The original survey was administered at the same time to the supervising teachers and principals who were involved in student teaching programs during the fall quarter or semester of 1969.

The other three groups participating in the present study were student teachers of Michigan State University and supervising teachers assigned to overseas American schools in England, Italy and Holland. One of the overseas groups was assigned to a United States Department of Defense school maintained for dependent children of military and civilian personnel. This school which offers grades one through twelve is located in Lakenheath, England on a large American airbase, 50 miles northwest of London. The other two overseas groups were assigned to International schools in Rome, Italy and The Hague, The Netherlands. Both of these schools are private, coeducational, and offer educational programs from kindergarten through twelfth grades for students of all nationalities. These international schools are sponsored by the United States Department of State and American business firms. The students attending these two

private overseas schools are children of businessmen, Department of State officials, and private American citizens. A few students are children of business men or professionals of other nationalities and in some cases are children of officials of other countries.

These three overseas groups were administered the same questionnaire used in The Impact Study of student and supervising teachers in Michigan. The questionnaire was administered to the overseas groups during the spring and fall of 1970, and the spring of 1971. Twenty-four student teachers were assigned to England, 20 assigned to Italy, and 24 were assigned to Holland comprising a total of 68 student teachers and 68 supervising teachers.

The student teachers participating in each group were not randomly selected, rather the total population of each referent student and supervising group was surveyed. Differences in circumstances and composition of the schools may have had some effect upon the attitudes of the students, student teachers and faculties of these schools. It was assumed, however, that regardless of the numerical inequity of the sample, that this sampling procedure would provide four groups of student and supervising teachers who would be comparable except for differences in the locale of their assignment and school organization.

## Development of the Survey Instrument

The development of the survey instrument used in this study was an outgrowth of the Impact Study on student teaching in Michigan conducted in fall 1969. The Impact Study developed in response to a request in 1968 by the Council of State College Presidents in Michigan, who after reviewing student teaching practices asked the question: "What impact does a student teaching program have upon the public school cooperating in such a venture?"[1] The assignment to conduct such a study was given to the Deans of Education and Directors of Student Teaching in Michigan, a group which had been meeting regularly for three years. Nearly 10,000 respondents including teachers, student teachers and administrators, were involved in what is probably the most comprehensive study of student teaching ever conducted in this country.[2]

The committee established to initiate and conduct this survey was made up of representatives of three state

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[1] Leland W. Dean, Past Chairman of Deans and Directors Group, Impact of Student Teaching Program Upon the Cooperating Public Schools in Michigan. A Survey of Opinions of Supervising Teachers, Student Teachers and School Administrators conducted by Deans and Directors of Teacher Education in Michigan, June, 1970, p. 1.

[2] Ibid., p. 1.

supported institutions: Michigan State University; Central Michigan University; and the University of Michigan. Chairman of the committee was Dr. W. Henry Kennedy, Director of Student Teaching, Michigan State University.

Educational researchers from the three institutions were involved by the committee in planning the study, and the research consultant service of the College of Education of Michigan State University was used extensively in the design of the study and the development of the survey instruments. The committee gave special attention to the need for complete objectivity in the instruments used for data gathering. The instruments were developed and reviewed by the student teaching faculties of the various institutions and members of the profession in the winter of 1969. During the spring term of 1969, eight institutions conducted a pilot study to test the instrument and procedures. The instruments were then refined, procedures sharpened and limitations corrected.

During the development of the pilot study and in the preparation of the final version of the instruments, officials from the Michigan Education Association and the Detroit Federation of Teachers provided suggestions and made contributions to items in the instruments.

Separate instruments were developed for supervising teachers, student teachers and administrators. A system was developed to match the supervising teacher-student teacher pairs to make possible the eventual

statistical analysis of the data. The administrator version of the instrument was in some respects similar to the supervising teacher and student teacher instruments to make possible the comparisons of the three groups on some items.

After deciding that random sampling would be rather difficult in view of the extent of the program, the decision was made to survey the entire population of student teachers assigned for student teaching by Michigan institutions. The survey sought to determine the impact of a student teaching program upon public schools in Michigan who were participating in such a program. A total of 9,881 participants responded to the study; 4,397 supervising teachers; 4,483 student teachers; and 1,001 principals.[3]

## Instrumentation

In the current study the author used the same questionnaire devised for the Michigan Student Teacher Impact Study of 1969 with the student teachers of Michigan State University assigned to the three overseas American schools and their supervising teachers. Except as they reflected the appropriate viewpoint from the two different positions, the student teacher questionnaire and the supervising teacher questionnaire each contained 80 items and were so designed that the respondents checked only the one

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[3] Ibid.

response they considered applicable. An IBM answer sheet was provided and the response sheets were machine scored and tabulated by the Michigan State University Data Processing Center.

The first six items for both the student teacher questionnaire and the supervising teacher questionnaire were designed to yield demographic information. The next seven questions covered the current teaching assignment including the grade, subject area or teaching field of the respondent. Questions 14 through 18 on the questionnaires dealt with changes in individualizing instruction. Item 19 for both questionnaires was concerned with the extent of time reteaching was deemed necessary after the student teacher had taught. Numbers 20 through 28 reported the extent that instructional activities were changed due to the presence of the student teacher. Items 29 through 34 for the questionnaires were concerned with the contributions the student teacher may have made to the school program. Questions 35 and 36 brought out the number of hours per week the student teacher taught assigned classes and the hours per week the supervising teacher was away from class due to the presence of the student teacher.

Questions 37 through 44 reported for both groups the time spent by the supervising teacher on additional activities due to the student teacher handling the classes. Questions 45 through 49 asked both groups for the extent of time student teachers relieved other faculty

members of additional school related activities. On both questionnaires, questions 50 through 53 were concerned with the extent other faculty members were able to conduct school related activities due to the presence of a student teacher.

On both questionnaires, items 54 through 57 reported the number of hours per week the student teacher spent with the supervising teacher, the extra hours the supervising teacher spent at school and the average number of hours weekly the supervising teacher worked on job related activities away from school due to the student teacher's presence. Questions 57 through 60 reported for both groups the extent of time the supervising teacher spent on classroom activities due to the presence of the student teacher. For both groups, questions 61 through 69 requested the extend of time the supervising teacher spent with the student teacher on school work and outside job-related activities. For both groups, questions 70 and 71 were concerned with the amount of time the student teacher taught while the supervising teacher or other faculty members were away from class. On both questionnaires item 72 presented the amount of time the student teacher spent doing volunteer work in the school community.

For both groups questions 73 and 74 dealt with the effect of the presence of the student teacher on the supervising teacher and the attitude of the administration towards working with student teachers. Question 75 on the

student teacher questionnaire dealt with the degree the student teacher would recommend a friend for student teaching with the same supervising teacher. Item 75 for the supervising teacher sought an indication of the degree of acceptance of another student teacher.

Questions 76 through 78 for both groups dealt with the amount of time and degree of help given by the university coordinator of student teaching. On both questionnaires, items 79 asked if the supervising teacher would want the student teacher teaching in the school next year while the student teacher was asked if she would accept a teaching position in the school for the next school year. Question 80 referred to the reason why the student teacher was assigned to a particular school and asked the supervising teacher why a student teacher was assigned to her.

## Sociological Questionnaire

In order to accomplish the secondary purpose of this study, a questionnaire (Appendix C) was designed by the writer to identify and measure some of the possible changes in values and attitudes of student teachers assigned to overseas schools resulting from their opportunity to interact with people of different nationalities and American segments of the overseas American communities.

This questionnaire was administered only to the student teachers. It contained 29 items pertaining to their association with Europeans, differences in living conditions, impressions gained during their travels,

changes in attitudes, and other differences encountered by the student teachers during their sojourn overseas.

The first two questions were designed to yield information in regard to the student's responses to people of different nationalities both as a guest in their countries and meeting Europeans visiting the United States. Inquiry as to his awareness of being an American overseas was included in items 83, 89, 90 and 94. How the student reacted to Europeans and adjustment to the foreign environment were presented in items 85, 88, 91, 92, 93, and 97. Changes in the person's cultural and leisure interests were reported in items 84, 87, 95, and 98. Item 96 reported the extent of learning about the host nation from living there as opposed to books or lectures in the United States.

As a part of changing attitudes, student teachers were asked to make a general comparison, in items 99 to 108, of the host nationals with Americans on characteristics which included friendliness, morals, outlooks, and industriousness. The possibility of new career aspirations evolving and becoming more important to the overseas student teachers because of their overseas experience was brought out in item 86. Friendships with host nationals or Europeans which the student teacher made while overseas, and plans to correspond with or keep in contact with host nationals were dealt with in item number 109.

## Collection of Data

The data collected by The Impact Study of Student Teaching Programs in Michigan were utilized in the current study. The group surveyed by the original Impact Study of 1969 was referred to in this study as Student Teachers of Michigan State University Assigned to Michigan Public Schools. Permission was granted to this writer to administer the Impact Study questionnaires to the student and supervising teachers of the three overseas American schools involved in the current study.

The item response analysis sheets of the student and supervising teachers of Michigan State University who participated in the original Impact Study of 1969 were made available by the Michigan State University Data Processing Center. These analysis sheets were used to compare the Michigan public schools group with the overseas American School group.

The questionnaires, both the Impact Study instrument and the sociological instrument, were administered by the writer with the aid of the Michigan State University student teacher coordinators who accompanied the students to the overseas schools and supervised their student teaching experiences. Student teacher questionnaires were presented in groups while the supervising teachers were given the questionnaires individually and asked to fill in the IBM answer sheets and return them as soon as possible.

The responses on all questionnaires were transferred to IBM key punch cards and from the cards to item response analysis sheets. The data from the questionnaires were summarized and appropriate statistical tools applied. Selected items were analyzed and compared to determine differences, if any, between the overseas group and the Michigan school group.

A series of taped interviews with the overseas student teachers was conducted by the writer discussing the value of the overseas teaching experience and overseas living experience. Interviews were held with individual student teachers and with groups of student teachers in the three overseas student teaching centers. Excerpts from the student teacher interviews were presented in a later section of this study.

## Statistical Hypotheses

Five general hypotheses were formulated relative to each of five major dimensions of concern. For each of these dimensions a comparison was made between the perceptions held by student teachers in Michigan schools and those held by student teachers in overseas schools. Similarly a comparison was also carried out between the perceptions of supervising teachers in the Michigan public schools and those of supervising teachers in the overseas schools. Thus for each hypotheses, there were two comparisons made.

$Ho_1$ There are no differences in the characteristics of the following instructional activities as perceived by student teachers or as perceived by supervisory teachers when student teachers of Michigan State University are assigned to overseas American schools as compared to the assignment of student teachers in Michigan public schools:

a. Amount of small group instruction
b. Extent of individual instruction
c. Amount of material covered
d. Classroom discipline changes
e. Motivation of pupils

$Ho_2$ There are no differences in the contributions to the following aspects of the school program when student teachers are placed in overseas American schools as compared to when student teachers are placed in public schools in Michigan.

a. The frequency with which student teachers perform recess, yard, playground or hall duty
b. The extent to which student teachers develop, provide or suggest new or different instructional materials
c. The hours per week in which student teachers taught supervising teachers' assigned classes

$Ho_3$ There are no differences in the amount of time the supervising teacher was able to spend on the following professional duties due to the presence of the student teacher whether this student teacher was assigned to overseas American schools or public schools in Michigan.

a. The frequency of supervising teacher visits to other classrooms
b. Amount of committee work conducted by supervising teacher with students and faculty
c. Amount of research conducted by the supervising teacher
d. Amount of professional reading performed by the supervising teacher
e. Amount of time supervising teacher spent participating in student teacher seminars or in-service activities

$Ho_4$ There are no differences in the amount of time spent by the supervising teacher on the following classroom activities due to the presence of student teachers in the overseas American schools as compared to their presence in the public schools in Michigan:

a. Time spent by supervising teacher on instruction
b. Time spent by supervising teacher on lesson planning
c. Time spent by supervising teacher on grading papers
d. Time spent by supervising teacher helping individual students

$Ho_5$ There are no differences in the contribution of the student teacher to the professional growth of the supervising teacher whether student teachers are assigned to overseas American schools or in the public schools of Michigan:

a. Amount of time per week spent with supervising teacher
b. Amount of extra hours per week the supervising teacher spent at school due to presence of a student teacher
c. Amount of time the supervising teacher spent on job related activities away from school due to presence of a student teacher
d. Times per week student teacher was in contact with the supervising teacher outside of regular working hours at school.
e. The effect a student teacher working with the supervising teacher had on the performance of the supervising teacher

## Analysis Procedures

A multivariate of analysis was chosen to analyze the data. This analysis was done with a Fortran program by Jeremy Finn of the State University of New York at

Buffalo and modified for use at Michigan State University.[4] The computer analysis chosen for the investigation allowed not only for a univariate or multivariate analysis of covariance, but also for related transformations, cell means, least square estimates, and canonical correlations, as well as hypotheses tests related to this study.

The 18 questions used in the Form A Questionnaire to form the five null hypotheses were extracted from the Impact Study.[5] (See Appendix A and B.) The reliability of these questions was calculated by the use of the Hoyt Estimate of Reliability.[6] Calculations gave a value of 0.8430 for the reliability coefficient of the factors in the first hypothesis (changes in specific instructional activities). A value of 0.7368 was established for the reliability coefficient of those in the second hypothesis (contributions to the school program) and a value of 0.7933 was established for the reliability coefficient of the factors in the third hypothesis (time supervising teachers

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[4]Jeremy D. Finn, "Univariate and Multivariate Analysis of Variance and Covariance: A FORTRAN IV Program," Modified for the Michigan State University CDC 3600 and 6500 Computer Systems by David J. Wright. Occasional Paper No. 9 (East Lansing: Michigan State University, Office of Research Consultation, March, 1970).

[5]Leland W. Dean, "Impact of Student Teaching. . .," op. cit., p. 2.

[6]Cyril Hoyt, "Test Reliability Obtained by Analysis of Variance," Psychometrika, VI (June, 1941), 153-160.

spend on specific classroom activities). The coefficients for hypotheses four and five were found to be statistically unreliable so these were analyzed by the application of the chi square statistical test for significance. The .05 level of confidence was chosen arbitrarily as indicating statistical significance.

The Form B Questionnaire used in this investigation was a sociological questionnaire designed by the writer to identify and measure some of the changes in values and attitudes of student teachers assigned to overseas schools (Appendix C). The Form B questionnaire was administered only to student teachers assigned to the Michigan State University student teaching centers in Italy and Holland. The Form B questions were given scale scores and the percentages are indicated in Chapter IV in the form of bar graphs.

A series of questions were presented in the form of taped interviews of the student teachers located in the student teaching centers in England, Italy and Holland. (See Appendix D.) These interviews were conducted with individual student teachers and groups of student teachers in the three overseas student teaching centers. These questions were framed to attempt to identify some of the effects that overseas living had on the lives of the student teachers.

## Summary

In this chapter the purpose of the investigation was delineated and the procedures used to obtain and analyze the data were discussed. Included were the following topics: identification of population and selection of samples; the development of the instrument used for the collection of data; the instruments and the basis for the validity and reliability of the instruments the procedures used to collect the data; the statistical hypotheses formulated for testing purposes and the procedures used to analyze the data.

Chapter IV presents the analysis of the data.

# CHAPTER IV

# PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

## Introduction

The data collected by the student teacher questionnaire, the sociological questionnaire and the taped interviews are presented in this chapter. These data compared the effects of the presence of student teachers of Michigan State University assigned to overseas American schools with student teachers of Michigan State University assigned to public schools in Michigan.

The chapter is divided into three sections. The first section contains the data collected by the student teacher questionnaire with a format paralleling the statement of the five hypotheses presented in Chapter I. The second section of this chapter presents the data collected from the sociological questionnaire. This section is divided into two parts: part one contains 18 items from the sociological questionnaire and part two contains a selected list of items in which the student teachers were asked to make comparisons. The third section of the chapter contains a series of responses by

the student teachers to taped interviews conducted at the overseas student teacher centers.

Statistical Procedures

Thirty three items from the 80 items in the Michigan Impact Study instrument were selected as most appropriate for comparison for purposes of the present study and grouped according to their relationship to each of the five hypotheses identified in the study. The responses to each group of items were subjected to a computerized program for converting the responses into scale scores, and the reliability of the scale scores was calculated by Hoyt's Analysis of Variance.[1]

TABLE 2.--Reliabilities and Standard Error of the Estimate for Dependent Variables One, Two, Three, Four, and Five.

| Dependent Variables Scales | Reliability Coefficient | Standard Error of the Estimate |
|---|---|---|
| $H_1$ | 0.8230 | 1.33 |
| $H_2$ | 0.7368 | 1.67 |
| $H_3$ | 0.7965 | 1.62 |
| $H_4$ | 0.4513 | 2.18 |
| $H_5$ | 0.4770 | 1.80 |

[1]Cyril Hoyt, "Test Reliability Obtained by Analysis of Variance," Psychometrica, VI (1941), 153-160.

The value of the coefficient of reliability of a set of scores is related to a number of characteristics of the test and the group tested.[2] Typically the reliability coefficient will be greater for scores from a test composed of more homogeneous or discriminating items.[3] Calculations gave a value of 0.8230 (Table 2) for the reliability coefficient for scale one, a value of 0.7368 was calculated for scale two and a value of 0.7965 was established as the reliability coefficient for scale three.

The value of 0.4513 was computed as the reliability coefficient for hypothesis four and the value of 0.4770 for hypothesis five. Since the reliability coefficients for these two hypotheses were deemed too low to be treated as scale scores, the chi-square technique following the procedures set forty by Dixon and Massey[4] was used for analysis of the data obtained for these two hypotheses.

As the data collected for this study contain more than one independent variable and several dependent variables, a multivariate analysis of variance was selected for the statistical model to analyze the data collected for the general hypothesis relating to overall effect. The multivariate analysis of variance uses several rather

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[2]Robert L. Ebel, Measuring Educational Achievement (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1965), p. 330.

[3]Ibid., p. 336.

[4]Wilfred J. Dixon and Frank J. Massey, Introduction to Statistical Analysis (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1951), pp. 188-189.

than just one dependent variable in which these variates are weighted to provide the maximum possible effects. Another major feature of multivariate models is that they make provision for considering the interaction among dependent as well as independent variables.

Computation was carried out by the Finn program[5] on a Control Data Corporation 3600 computer. This analysis of variance was computed using the two independent variables: role (i.e., student teacher or supervising teacher) and location (i.e., Michigan, England, Italy or Holland). Thus the analysis was performed on a 2 x 4 factorial analysis of variance with unequal cell sizes.

The problem of assessing the effect of (1) instructional activities, (2) contributions to the school program, and (3) time spent by supervising teachers on professional activities was approached by testing the three specific hypotheses in addition to the general hypothesis relating to overall effect. Each hypothesis was presented in its null form, evaluated with respect to the evidence and accepted or rejected according to the level of significance which was arbitrarily set at the .05 level.

The multivariate analysis of variance showed no significant interaction between the independent variable of role (i.e., student teacher or supervising teacher) and location (i.e., Michigan, England, Italy or Holland), which

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[5]Finn, op. cit., p. 90.

provided the justification for analyzing the main effects of role and location on each dependent variable separately.

TABLE 3.--Multivariate Analysis of Variance for Effects of Presence of Student Teachers.

| Source of Variance | Degrees of Freedom | Mean Square | F Ratio | Significance |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Role | 3 | 1271.0000 | 25.5409 | 0.00001 |
| Location | 9 | 3093.4306 | 1.3890 | 0.18710 |
| Role x Location (interaction) | 9 | 3093.4306 | 1.6980 | 0.08400 |

The analysis of variance for the independent variable of role shows a significant difference at the .05 level therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. The analysis of variance for the independent variable of location shows no significant difference at the .05 level, therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. An examination of the analysis of variance for interaction (i.e., role x location shows no significant difference at the .05 level therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected (Table 3).

## Specific Hypotheses Tested

### Findings Relative to Hypotheses 1

Hypothesis one stated that:

> There are no differences in the effects on the following instructional activities as perceived by student teachers or as perceived by supervisory teachers, when student teachers of Michigan State University are assigned to overseas American schools as compared to the assignment of students teachers to public schools in Michigan.
>
> a. Amount of small group instruction
> b. Extent of individual instruction
> c. Amount of material covered
> d. Classroom discipline changes
> e. Motivation of pupils

As indicated in Table 4 the student teachers in the three overseas schools as well as in the Michigan public schools rated their participation in the five measures higher than did their supervising teachers. A wide discrepancy was noted in the overseas school of Rome where the Rome student teachers rated themselves four points higher than did their supervising teachers. As noted in Table 4 the London student teachers and the student teachers assigned to public schools in Michigan rated themselves very similarly. The supervising teachers in the three overseas schools in Rome, The Hague and London rated themselves evenly as indicated in Table 4.

TABLE 4.--Mean Scale Scores for Hypothesis One (Instructional Activities).

| Group | Mean Scale Scores |
|---|---|
| Michigan Supervising Teachers | 16.62 |
| Michigan Student Teachers | 17.70 |
| Rome Supervising Teachers | 15.16 |
| Rome Student Teachers | 19.08 |
| The Hague Supervising Teachers | 15.87 |
| The Hague Student Teachers | 18.16 |
| London Supervising Teachers | 15.45 |
| London Student Teachers | 17.75 |

The analysis of variance on the dependent variable of instructional activities shows a significant difference due to role (i.e., student teacher or supervising teacher) at the .05 level since P was .0001. Thus, clearly, the supervising teachers in the program respond differently than do the student teachers (Table 5).

The analysis of variance on the dependent variable of instructional activities shows a significant difference due to interaction effects (role x location) at the .05 level since p was .0170.

However, as noted in Table 5, the analysis of variance on the dependent variable of instructional activities shows no significant difference due to location (i.e., Michigan or overseas centers) at the .05 level of significance since p was .5685. The null hypothesis for

TABLE 5.--Univariate Analysis of Variance on the Dependent Variable of Instructional Activities.

| Source of Variance | Sum of Squares | Degrees of Freedom | Mean Square | F Statistic | Significance |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Role | 481,0844 | 1 | 481.0844 | 64.1699 | .0001 |
| Location | 15.1419 | 3 | 5.0473 | .6732 | .5685 |
| Role x Location (interaction) | 76.4 | 3 | 25.5828 | 3.4124 | .0170 |
| Error | $95.2 \times 10^2$ | 1273 | 7.4970 | | |

location effects on instructional activities therefore could not be rejected.

Findings Relative to Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis two stated that:

> There are no differences in contributions to the following aspects of the school program when student teachers are assigned to overseas American schools compared to when student teachers assigned to public schools in Michigan.
>
> a. The frequency which teachers perform recess, yard, playground or hall duty
> b. The extent to which student teachers develop, provide or suggest new or different, instructional materials
> c. The hours per week in which student teachers taught supervising teachers assigned classes.

As indicated in Table 6 the student teachers in the three overseas schools as well as the teachers in the Michigan public schools rated their participation in the three measures higher than did their supervising teachers. The increase reported by the Michigan student teachers was slightly higher on the three measures than the Michigan supervising teachers while the Rome student teachers rated themselves more than two points higher than the Rome supervising teachers. The supervising teachers in the overseas schools of London and The Hague rated themselves very similarly with the supervising teachers in London rating themselves slightly lower on the three measures (see Table 6).

TABLE 6.--Mean Scale Scores for Hypothesis Two (Contributions to School Program).

| Group | Mean Scale Scores |
|---|---|
| Michigan Supervising Teachers | 12.01 |
| Michigan Student Teachers | 12.77 |
| Rome Supervising Teachers | 11.66 |
| Rome Student Teachers | 14.00 |
| The Hague Supervising Teachers | 11.75 |
| The Hague Student Teachers | 13.29 |
| London Supervising Teachers | 10.75 |
| London Student Teachers | 12.83 |

The analysis of variance on the dependent variable of contribution to the school program revealed a significant difference due to role (i.e., student teacher or supervising teacher) at the .05 level since p was .0001 (Table 7).

The analysis of variance on the dependent variable of contribution to the school program shows no significant difference due to interaction effects (i.e., role x location) at the .05 level since p was .1613.

As noted in Table 7, the analysis of variance on the dependent variable of contributions to the school program shows no significant difference due to location (i.e., Michigan, England, Italy or Holland) at the .05 level of significance as p was .3970.

Even though role differences were significant, the analysis showed no significant difference in contribution

TABLE 7.--Univariate Analysis of Variance on the Dependent Variable of Contributions to the School Program.

| Source of Variance | Sum of Squares | Degrees of Freedom | Mean Square | F Statistic | Significance |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Role | 241.5874 | 1 | 241.5874 | 31.5945 | .0001 |
| Location | 22.6923 | 3 | 7.5641 | .9892 | .3970 |
| Role x Location (interaction) | 39.430 | 3 | 17.1440 | 1.7190 | .1613 |
| Error | $9.7 \times 10^3$ | 1273 | 7.6465 | | |

to the school program. Thus, hypothesis 2 was not rejected.

Findings Relative to Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis three stated that:

> There are no differences in the amount of time spent by the supervising teacher on the following professional duties due to the presence of a student teacher in the overseas American schools compared to the presence of a student teacher in the public schools of Michigan.
>
> a. The frequency of supervising teachers visits to other classrooms
> b. The amount of committee work conducted by supervising teachers with students and faculty
> c. The amount of research conducted by the supervising teacher
> d. The amount of professional reading performed by the supervising teacher
> e. The amount of time the supervising teacher spent participating in student teaching seminars or in-service activities

As indicated in Table 8 the student teachers in the overseas American schools and in the Michigan public schools rated themselves very similarly in the five measures used in this hypothesis. A minimal increase was noted on the part of the Michigan student teachers over the Michigan supervising teachers. Again it was noted that the Rome student teachers tended to rate themselves higher than the Rome supervising teachers. The student teachers in The Hague rated their participation in the five measures two points higher than the supervising teachers in The Hague.

TABLE 8.--Mean Scale Scores for Hypothesis Three (Time Spent on Professional Duties).

| Group | Mean Scale Scores |
|---|---|
| Michigan Supervising Teachers | 14.29 |
| Michigan Student Teachers | 14.60 |
| Rome Supervising Teachers | 12.50 |
| Rome Student Teachers | 14.50 |
| The Hague Supervising Teachers | 12.00 |
| The Hague Student Teachers | 14.08 |
| London Supervising Teachers | 13.83 |
| London Student Teachers | 14.50 |

The analysis of variance on the dependent variable of time spent on professional duties reveals no significant difference due to role (i.e., student teacher or supervising teacher) at the .05 level since p was .0506.

The analysis of variance on the dependent variable of time spent on professional duties shows no significant difference due to interaction effects (i.e., role x location) at the .05 level since p was .3146 (Table 9).

As shown in Table 9, the analysis of variance on the dependent variable of time spent on professional duties shows no significant difference due to location (i.e., Michigan, England, Italy or Holland) at the .05 level of significance since p was .0558.

Thus, hypothesis three was not rejected and it was concluded that there were no differences between the

TABLE 9.--Univariate Analysis of Variance on the Dependent Variable of Time Spent on Professional Duties.

| Source of Variance | Sum of Squares | Degrees of Freedom | Mean Square | F Statistic | Significance |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Role | 56.6618 | 1 | 56.6618 | 3.8304 | .0506 |
| Location | 112.0 | 3 | 37.4287 | 2.5302 | .0558 |
| Role x Location (interaction) | 52.5435 | 3 | 17.5145 | 1.1840 | .3146 |
| Error | $18.8 \times 10^3$ | | | | |

overseas supervising teachers and the supervising teachers in Michigan on the time spent on professional duties.

Findings Relative to Hypotheses 4 and 5

The Chi square test was selected as the statistical tool to analyze the data for hypothesis four (time spent by supervising teachers on classroom activities) and hypothesis five (contributions of student teacher to the professional growth of the supervising teacher).

The Chi square test tests the agreement between obtained and theoretical distribution. "It is mathematically equal to the sum of the quotients obtained by dividing the square of each difference between the actual and theoretical frequency for each category, by the theoretical frequency for that category."[6]

$$\chi^2 = \Sigma \frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$$

where

O = observed frequency

E = theoretical or expected frequency

The four questions pertaining to hypothesis four and the five questions pertaining to hypothesis five were analyzed on an individual basis. The Chi square tests

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[6]Carter V. Good, Dictionary of Education, Second Edition (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1959), p. 91.

represented are presented in the form of a question first, frequency table, calculations of Chi square from the data, and a short statement as to the significance of the Chi square. Each item was rejected or accepted according to the .05 level of significance. Responses in all the tables refer to the answers to the questions in the Impact Study.

An attempt was made to limit the observed responses to three choices in the tables to simplify the data as much as possible. Thus, "increased" in the analysis represents the sum of "increased a great deal," and "increased to some extent" from the survey instrument. In most of the tables question three represented "remained about the same." In most of the tables "reduced" represented the sum of responses "reduced to some extent" and "reduced a great deal" from the survey instrument. This permitted collapsing to three rows, the observed and expected frequencies in most of the Chi square tables. Low cell frequencies resulting from the inability of some students and supervising teachers to answer some questions, required reducing some of the tables further to two rows in which one row represented the sum of responses "increased" and "remained the same."

Each segment of hypotheses four and five has two parts per segment. Each question has student responses and supervising teachers responses calculated separately. The letters O. S. in the tables represent overseas students or supervising teachers and the letters M.S.U. represent

those students and supervising teachers who remained in Michigan.

## Analysis of Data Obtained from Chi Square

The data obtained for the fourth null hypothesis were analyzed item by item on an individual basis. Each sub-item in the hypothesis was accepted or rejected according to the level of significance criterion of .05.

Segment one of hypothesis four stated that: There are no differences in the amount of time spent by the supervising teacher on classroom instruction due to the presence of student teachers of MSU in the overseas American schools as compared to their presence in the public schools of Michigan. This was not rejected at the .05 level of significance as shown in Table 10 according to the data obtained from the student teachers. However, according to the data obtained from the supervising teachers on this item as shown in Table 11 a Chi square of 36.912 was calculated. This showed a significant difference at the .001 level for the supervising teachers. Thus the null hypothesis was accepted by the data obtained from the student teachers and rejected by the data obtained from the supervising teachers. Most of the contribution to the Chi square value resulted from a greater than expected number of overseas supervising teachers who reported increased time spent in instruction with an accompanying decrease in those who reported the time spent on instruction to remain the same or to decrease when student teachers were

TABLE 10.--Time Spent by Supervising Teachers on Instruction Due to the Presence of Student Teachers (Student Teacher Responses).

| | Observed Responses | | | | Expected Responses | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | O.S. | M. | | | O.S. | M. | |
| Increased | 1 | 11 | 12 | Increased | 1.11 | 10.89 | 12 |
| Remained Same | 4 | 31 | 35 | Remained Same | 3.25 | 31.75 | 35 |
| Reduced | 55 | 544 | 599 | Reduced | 55.64 | 543.36 | 599 |
| Totals | 60 | 586 | 646 | Totals | 60 | 586 | 646 |

Calculations of $\chi^2$

| Response | Observed Frequency | Expected Frequency | O-E | $(O-E)^2$ | $\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| O.S. Increased | 1 | 1.11 | -.11 | .01210 | .011 |
| M.S.U. Increased | 11 | 10.89 | .11 | .01210 | .011 |
| O.S. Remained Same | 4 | 3.25 | .75 | .5625 | .173 |
| M.S.U. Remained Same | 31 | 31.75 | -.75 | .5625 | .018 |
| O.S. Decreased | 55 | 55.64 | -.64 | .4096 | .007 |
| M.S.U. Decreased | 544 | 543.36 | .64 | .4096 | .001 |
| | | | | $\chi^2$ = | .211* |

*Not significant.

TABLE 11.--Time Spent by Supervising Teachers on Instruction Due to the Presence of Student Teachers (Supervising Teacher Responses).

| | Observed Responses | | | | Expected Responses | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | O.S. | M. | | | O.S. | M. | |
| Increased | 17 | 50 | 67 | Increased | 6.27 | 60.73 | 67 |
| Remained Same | 15 | 64 | 79 | Remained Same | 7.39 | 71.61 | 79 |
| Reduced | 28 | 467 | 495 | Reduced | 46.34 | 448.66 | 495 |
| Totals | 60 | 581 | 641 | | 60 | 581 | 641 |

Calculations of $\chi^2$

| Response | | Observed Frequency | Expected Frequency | O-E | $(O-E)^2$ | $\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| O.S. | Increased | 17 | 6.27 | 10.73 | 115.13 | 18.362 |
| M.S.U. | Increased | 50 | 60.73 | -10.73 | 115.13 | 1.896 |
| O.S. | Remained Same | 15 | 7.39 | 7.61 | 57.91 | 7.836 |
| M.S.U. | Remained Same | 64 | 71.61 | - 7.61 | 57.91 | .809 |
| O.S. | Reduced | 28 | 46.34 | -18.34 | 336.36 | 7.259 |
| M.S.U. | Reduced | 467 | 448.66 | 18.34 | 336.36 | .750 |
| | | | | | $\chi^2$ = | 36.912* |

*Significant at the .001 level.

present. These people probably included time spent on instruction of the student teacher, or found that the presence of the student teacher relieved them of some of the routine duties of the teacher making available more time for actual teaching.

Segment two of hypothesis four stated that: There are no differences in the amount of time spent by the supervising teacher on lesson planning due to the presence of student teachers in the overseas American schools as compared to their presence in the public schools of Michigan. This hypothesis was not rejected by the data obtained from the student teachers as shown in Table 12 or by the data received from the supervising teachers as shown in Table 13. Thus the null hypothesis was accepted.

Segment three of hypothesis four stated that: There are no differences in the amount of time spent by the supervising teacher on grading papers due to the presence of student teachers in an overseas American school, as compared to their presence in the public schools of Michigan. As shown in Table 14 for student teachers a Chi square of .951 was obtained. This was not significant at the established .05 level of significance. The supervising teachers also reported data leading to acceptance of the null hypothesis as shown in Table 15. A Chi square of 3.8005 was calculated with two degrees of freedom and this was not significant at the .05 level. Thus the null hypothesis was accepted by the data obtained from the student

TABLE 12.--Time Spent by Supervising Teachers on Lesson Planning Due to the Presence of Student Teachers (Student Teacher Responses).

| | Observed Responses | | | | Expected Responses | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | O.S. | M. | | | O.S. | M. | |
| Increased | 3 | 30 | 33 | Increased | 3.17 | 29.83 | 33 |
| Same | 11 | 101 | 112 | Same | 10.77 | 101.23 | 112 |
| Reduced | 46 | 433 | 479 | Reduced | 46.06 | 432.94 | 479 |
| Totals | 60 | 564 | 624 | Totals | 60 | 564 | 624 |

Calculations of $\chi^2$

| Response | | Observed Frequency | Expected Frequency | O-E | $(O-E)^2$ | $\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| O.S. | Increased | 3 | 3.17 | -.17 | .0289 | .00911 |
| M.S.U. | Increased | 30 | 29.83 | .17 | .289 | .00097 |
| O.S. | Same | 11 | 10.77 | .23 | .0529 | .00491 |
| M.S.U. | Same | 101 | 101.23 | -.23 | .0529 | .00052 |
| O.S. | Reduced | 46 | 46.06 | -.06 | .0036 | .00008 |
| M.S.U. | Reduced | 433 | 432.94 | .06 | .0036 | .00001 |
| | | | | | $\chi^2$ = | .01560* |

*Not significant.

TABLE 13.--Time Spent by Supervising Teacher on Lesson Planning Due to the Presence of Student Teachers (Supervising Teacher Responses).

| | Observed Response | | | | Expected Response | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | O.S. | M. | | | O.S. | M. | |
| Increased | 9 | 165 | 174 | Increased | 16.31 | 157.69 | 174 |
| Same | 18 | 163 | 181 | Same | 16.97 | 164.03 | 181 |
| Reduced | 33 | 252 | 285 | Reduced | 26.72 | 258.28 | 285 |
| Totals | 60 | 580 | 640 | Totals | 60 | 580 | 640 |

Calculations of $\chi^2$

| Response | | Observed Frequency | Ex. Frequency | O-E | $(O-E)^2$ | $\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| O.S. | Increased | 9 | 16.31 | -7.31 | 53.44 | 3.28 |
| M.S.U. | Increased | 165 | 157.69 | 7.31 | 53.44 | .34 |
| O.S. | Same | 18 | 16.97 | 1.03 | 1.06 | .06 |
| M.S.U. | Same | 163 | 164.03 | -1.03 | 1.06 | .01 |
| O.S. | Reduced | 33 | 26.72 | 6.28 | 39.44 | 1.48 |
| M.S.U. | Reduced | 252 | 258.28 | -6.28 | 39.44 | .15 |
| | | | | | $\chi^2$ = | 5.32* |

*Not significant.

TABLE 14.--Time Spent by Supervising Teachers on Grading Papers Due to the Presence of Student Teachers (Student Teacher Responses).

| | Observed Responses | | | | Expected Responses | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | O.S. | M. | | | O.S. | M. | |
| Increased or remained same | 8 | 108 | 116 | Increased or remained same | 10.76 | 105.24 | 116 |
| Reduced | 52 | 479 | 531 | Reduced | 49.24 | 481.76 | 531 |
| Totals | 60 | 589 | 647 | Totals | 60 | 587 | 647 |

Calculations of $\chi^2$

| Response | | Observed Frequency | Ex. Frequency | O-E | $(O-E)^2$ | $\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| O.S. | Increased or remained same | 8 | 10.76 | -2.76 | 7.62 | .708 |
| M.S.U. | Increased or remained same | 108 | 105.24 | 2.76 | 7.62 | .072 |
| O.S. | Reduced | 52 | 49.24 | 2.76 | 7.62 | .155 |
| M.S.U. | Reduced | 479 | 481.76 | -2.76 | 7.62 | .016 |
| | | | | | $\chi^2$ = | .951* |

*Not significant.

TABLE 15.--Time Spent by Supervising Teachers on Grading Papers Due to the Presence of Student Teachers (Supervising Teacher Responses).

| | Observed Responses | | | | Expected Responses | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | O.S. | M. | | | O.S. | M. | |
| Increased | 3 | 30 | 33 | Increased | 3.13 | 29.87 | 33 |
| Remained Same | 18 | 111 | 129 | Remained Same | 12.23 | 116.77 | 129 |
| Reduced | 39 | 432 | 471 | Reduced | 44.64 | 426.36 | 471 |
| Totals | 60 | 573 | 633 | Totals | 60 | 573 | 633 |

Calculations of $\chi^2$

| Response | | Observed Frequency | Ex. Frequency | O-E | $(O-E)^2$ | $\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| O.S. | Increased | 3 | 3.13 | - .13 | .0169 | .0054 |
| M.S.U. | Increased | 30 | 29.87 | .13 | .0169 | .0006 |
| O.S. | Remained Same | 18 | 12.23 | 5.77 | 33.2929 | 2.7222 |
| M.S.U. | Remained Same | 111 | 116.77 | -5.77 | 33.2929 | .2851 |
| O.S. | Reduced | 39 | 44.64 | -5.64 | 31.8096 | .7126 |
| M.S.U. | Reduced | 432 | 426.36 | 5.64 | 31.8096 | .0746 |
| | | | | | $\chi^2$ = | 3.8005* |

*Not significant.

teachers and also by the data obtained from the supervising teachers in overseas centers and Michigan centers.

Segment four of hypothesis four stated that: There are no differences in the amount of time spent by the supervising teacher on time spent helping individual students due to the presence of student teachers in the overseas American schools as compared to their presence in the public schools of Michigan. This hypothesis was not rejected at the .05 level of significance as shown in Table 16 according to the data received from the student teachers. However, according to the data obtained from the supervising teachers on this item as shown in Table 17 a Chi square of 7.6732 was calculated with two degrees of freedom. The time spent with individual students between overseas and Michigan supervising teachers was significantly different at above the .05 level. The overseas supervising teachers found the time they spent helping individual students changing as a result of the presence of student teachers. Fewer than expected reported this time as increased. Thus the null hypothesis was accepted by the data received from the student teachers and rejected by the data obtained from the supervising teachers.

The fifth null hypothesis was analyzed item by item on an individual basis with data obtained from the Chi square tests, the same as the fourth null hypothesis. Each item in the hypothesis was accepted or rejected according to the level of significance which was set at the .05 level.

TABLE 16.--Time Spent by Supervising Teachers on Helping Individual Students Due to the Presence of Student Teachers (Student Teacher Responses).

| | Observed Responses | | | | Expected Responses | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | O.S. | M. | | | O.S. | M. | |
| Increased | 20 | 251 | 271 | Increased | 25.13 | 245.87 | 271 |
| Remained same | 20 | 175 | 195 | Remained same | 18.09 | 176.92 | 195 |
| Reduced | 20 | 161 | 181 | Reduced | 16.79 | 164.21 | 181 |
| Totals | 60 | 587 | 647 | Totals | 60 | 587 | 647 |

Calculations of $\chi^2$

| Response | Observed Frequency | Ex. Frequency | O-E | $(O-E)^2$ | $\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| O.S. Increased | 20 | 25.13 | -5.13 | 26.3169 | 1.047 |
| M.S.U. Increased | 251 | 245.87 | 5.13 | 26.3169 | .107 |
| O.S. Remained Same | 20 | 18.08 | 1.92 | 3.6864 | .204 |
| M.S.U. Remained Same | 175 | 176.92 | -1.92 | 3.6864 | .021 |
| O.S. Decreased | 20 | 16.79 | 3.21 | 10.3041 | .614 |
| M.S.U. Decreased | 161 | 164.21 | -3.21 | 10.3041 | .003 |
| | | | | | $\chi^2 = 2.056$* |

*Not significant.

TABLE 17.--Time Spent by Supervising Teachers on Helping Individual Students Due to the Presence of Student Teachers (Supervising Teacher Responses).

| | Observed Responses | | | | Expected Responses | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | O.S. | M. | | | O.S. | M. | |
| Increased | 30 | 386 | 416 | Increased | 39.06 | 376.94 | 416 |
| Remained same | 22 | 126 | 148 | Remained same | 13.90 | 134.10 | 148 |
| Reduced | 8 | 67 | 75 | Reduced | 7.04 | 67.96 | 75 |
| Totals | 60 | 579 | 639 | Totals | 60 | 579 | 639 |

Calculations of $\chi^2$

| Response | Observed Frequency | Ex. Frequency | O-E | $(O-E)^2$ | $\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| O.S. Increased | 30 | 39.06 | -9106 | 82.0836 | 2.1015 |
| M.S.U. Increased | 386 | 376.94 | 9.06 | 82.0836 | .2178 |
| O.S. Remained same | 22 | 13.90 | 8.10 | 65.6100 | 4.7201 |
| M.S.U. Remained same | 126 | 134.10 | -8.10 | 65.6100 | .4893 |
| O.S. Decreased | 8 | 7.04 | .96 | .9216 | .1309 |
| M.S.U. Decreased | 67 | 67.96 | - .96 | .9216 | .0136 |

$\chi^2 = 7.6732^*$

*Significant difference.

Hypothesis five stated that there are no differences in the contribution of the student teacher to the professional growth of the supervising teacher whether student teachers are assigned to overseas American schools or to the public schools of Michigan. Five segments were identified as a means of testing this hypothesis. The first segment stated that there are no differences in the amount of time per week spent in the physical presence of the supervising teacher whether student teachers are assigned to overseas American schools or to public schools in Michigan. This could not be rejected at the .05 level of significance as shown in Table 18 according to the data obtained from the student teachers. However, according to the data from the supervising teachers on this item as shown in Table 19, a Chi square score of 11.87 with two degrees of freedom was significant at or above the .01 level. It would appear the Chi square values were largely influenced by the judgment of the overseas supervising teachers who felt disproportionately that they had spent 16 to 30 hours per week in the physical presence of the student teachers compared to the greater or lesser choices. The null hypothesis was accepted by the data from student teachers and rejected by the data obtained from the supervisory teachers.

Segment two of the hypothesis five stated that: There are no differences in the amount of extra hours per week the supervising teacher spent at school due to the

TABLE 18.--Amount of Time Per Week Student Teachers Spent in the Physical Presence of the Supervising Teacher (Student Teacher Responses).

| | Observed Responses | | | | Expected Responses | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | O.S. | M. | | | O.S. | M. | |
| Less than 15 hrs. | 14 | 184 | 198 | Less than 15 hrs. | 18.48 | 179.52 | 198 |
| 16-30 hours | 29 | 265 | 294 | 16-30 hours | 27.43 | 266.57 | 294 |
| 31 hours or more | 17 | 134 | 151 | 31 hours or more | 14.09 | 136.91 | 151 |
| Totals | 60 | 583 | 643 | Totals | 60 | 583 | 643 |

Calculations of $\chi^2$

| Response | Observed Frequency | Ex. Frequency | O-E | $(O-E)^2$ | $\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| O.S. Less than 15 hrs. | 14 | 18.48 | -4.48 | 20.0704 | 1.0861 |
| M.S.U. Less than 15 hrs. | 184 | 179.52 | 4.48 | 20.0704 | .1118 |
| O.S. 16-30 hours | 29 | 47.43 | 1.57 | 2.4649 | .0899 |
| M.S.U. 16-30 hours | 265 | 266.57 | -1.57 | 2.4649 | .0092 |
| O.S. 31 hrs. or more | 17 | 14.09 | 2.91 | 8.4681 | .6010 |
| M.S.U. 31 hrs. or more | 134 | 136.91 | -2.91 | 8.4681 | .0619 |

$\chi^2 = 1.9599$*

*Not significant.

TABLE 19.--Amount of Time Per Week Supervising Teachers Spent in the Physical Presence of the Student Teacher (Supervising Teacher Responses).

| | Observed Responses | | | | Expected Responses | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | O.S. | M. | | | O.S. | M. | |
| Less than 15 hrs. | 9 | 149 | 158 | Less than 15 hrs. | 14.95 | 143.05 | 158 |
| 16-30 hours | 46 | 308 | 354 | 16-30 hours | 33.50 | 320.50 | 354 |
| 31 hours or more | 5 | 117 | 122 | 31 hours or more | 11.55 | 110.45 | 122 |
| Totals | 60 | 574 | 634 | Totals | 60 | 574 | 634 |

Calculations of $\chi^2$

| Response | Observed Frequency | Ex. Frequency | O-E | $(O-E)^2$ | $\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| O.S. Less than 15 hrs. | 9 | 14.95 | - 5.95 | 35.4025 | 2.37 |
| M.S.U. Less than 15 hrs. | 149 | 143.05 | 5.95 | 35.4025 | .25 |
| O.S. 16-30 hours | 46 | 33.50 | 12.50 | 156.25 | 4.66 |
| M.S.U. 16-30 hours | 308 | 320.50 | -12.50 | 156.25 | .49 |
| O.S. 31 hours or more | 5 | 11.55 | - 6.55 | 42.9025 | 3.71 |
| M.S.U. 31 hours or more | 117 | 110.45 | 6.55 | 42.9025 | .39 |
| | | | | | $\chi^2 = 11.87$* |

*Significant difference.

presence of a student teacher whether assigned to overseas American schools or to the public schools in Michigan. This hypothesis could not be rejected by the data obtained from the student teachers as shown in Table 20 or by the data received from the supervising teachers as shown in Table 21. Thus the null hypothesis was accepted.

Segment three of hypothesis five stated that: There are no differences in the amount of time the supervising teachers spent on job related activities away from school due to the presence of a student teacher whether in the overseas American schools or in the public schools in Michigan.

As shown in Table 22 for student teachers a Chi square of .1400 with two degrees of freedom was obtained which was not significant at the established .05 level of significance. For the supervising teachers the null hypothesis was not rejected as shown in Table 23. A Chi square score of 5.6065 with two degrees of freedom was obtained from the responses of overseas and supervising teachers. This was not significant at the established .05 level of significance. However, it may be noted that there was a tendency for the overseas teachers to increase the average number of hours per week they worked on job related activities away from school to a degree approaching significance. The null hypothesis was accepted for the data obtained from the student teachers and also by the data

TABLE 20.--Amount of Extra Hours Per Week the Supervising Teacher Spent at School Due to the Presence of a Student Teacher (Student Teacher Responses).

| | Observed Responses | | | | Expected Responses | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | O.S. | M. | | | O.S. | M. | |
| Added 1-6 hrs. wkly. | 7 | 58 | 65 | Added 1-6 hrs. wkly. | 6.09 | 58.91 | 65 |
| No effect | 31 | 367 | 398 | No effect | 37.25 | 360.75 | 398 |
| Reduced 1-6 hours weekly | 22 | 156 | 178 | Reduced 1-6 hours weekly | 16.66 | 161.34 | 178 |
| Totals | 60 | 581 | 641 | Totals | 60 | 581 | 641 |

Calculations of $\chi^2$

| Response | Observed Frequency | Ex. Frequency | O-E | $(O-E)^2$ | $\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| O.S. Added 1-6 hrs. wkly | 7 | 6.09 | .91 | .8281 | .1356 |
| M.S.U. Added 1-6 hrs. wkly | 58 | 58.91 | - .91 | .8281 | .0141 |
| O.S. No effect | 31 | 37.25 | -6.25 | 39.06 | 1.0486 |
| M.S.U. No effect | 367 | 360.75 | 6.25 | 39.06 | .1083 |
| O.S. Reduced 1-6 hrs. wkly | 22 | 16.66 | 5.34 | 28.52 | 1.7119 |
| M.S.U. Reduced 1-6 hrs. wkly | 156 | 161.34 | -5.34 | 28.52 | .1768 |
| | | | | $\chi^2$ = | 3.1956* |

*Not significant.

TABLE 21.--Amount of Extra Hours Per Week the Supervising Teachers Spent at School due to the Presence of a Student Teacher (Supervising Teacher Responses).

| | Observed Responses | | | | Expected Responses | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | O.S. | M. | | | O.S. | M. | |
| Added 1-6 hrs. wkly | 17 | 173 | 190 | Added 1-6 hrs. wkly | 17.54 | 172.46 | 190 |
| No effect | 38 | 355 | 393 | No effect | 36.28 | 356.72 | 393 |
| Reduced by 1-6 hrs. weekly | 60 | 590 | 650 | Reduced by 1-6 hrs. weekly | 60 | 590 | 650 |
| Totals | 60 | 590 | 650 | Totals | 60 | 590 | 650 |

Calculations of $\chi^2$

| Response | Observed Frequency | Ex. Frequency | O-E | $(O-E)^2$ | $\frac{(O-E)^2}{}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| O.S. Added 1-6 hrs. wkly | 17 | 17.54 | - .54 | .2916 | .0166 |
| M.S.U. Added 1-6 hrs. wkly | 173 | 172.46 | .54 | .2916 | .0017 |
| O.S. No effect | 38 | 36.28 | +1.72 | 2.9584 | .0815 |
| M.S.U. No effect | 355 | 356.72 | -1.72 | 2.9584 | .0083 |
| O.S. Reduced by 1-6 hrs. weekly | 5 | 6.18 | -1.18 | 1.3924 | .2253 |
| M.S.U. Reduced by 1-6 hrs. weekly | 62 | 60.82 | 1.18 | 1.3924 | .0229 |
| | | | | $\chi^2$ = | .3563* |

*Not significant.

TABLE 22.--Amount of Time Supervising Teachers Spent on Job Related Activities Away From School due to the Presence of Student Teachers (Student Teacher Responses).

| | Observed Responses | | | | Expected Responses | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | O.S. | M. | | | O.S. | M. | |
| Added 1-6 hrs. wkly | 11 | 112 | 123 | Added 1-6 hrs. wkly | 11.66 | 111.34 | 123 |
| No effect | 41 | 393 | 434 | No effect | 41.14 | 392.86 | 434 |
| Reduced 1-6 hours weekly | 8 | 68 | 76 | Reduced 1-6 hours weekly | 7.20 | 68.80 | 76 |
| Totals | 60 | 573 | 633 | Totals | 60 | 573 | 633 |

Calculations of $\chi^2$

| Response | Observed Frequency | Ex. Frequency | O-E | $(O-E)^2$ | $\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| O.S. Added 1-6 hrs wkly | 11 | 11.66 | - .66 | .4356 | .0374 |
| M.S.U. Added 1-6 hrs wkly | 112 | 111.34 | .66 | .4356 | .0039 |
| O.S. No effect | 41 | 41.14 | - .14 | .0196 | .0005 |
| M.S.U. No effect | 393 | 392.86 | .14 | .0196 | .0001 |
| O.S. Reduced 1-6 hours weekly | 8 | 7.20 | .80 | .6400 | .0888 |
| M.S.U. Reduced 1-6 hours weekly | 68 | 68.80 | - .80 | .6400 | .0093 |
| | | | | $\chi^2$ = | .1400* |

*Not significant.

TABLE 23.--Amount of Time Supervising Teacher Spent on Job Related Activities Away from School due to the Presence of Student Teachers (Supervising Teacher Responses).

| | Observed Responses | | | | Expected Responses | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | O.S. | M. | | | O.S. | M. | |
| Added 1-6 hrs. wkly | 17 | 140 | 157 | Added 1-6 hrs. wkly | 14.74 | 142.26 | 157 |
| No effect | 37 | 304 | 341 | No effect | 32.02 | 308.98 | 341 |
| Reduced 1-6 hrs. weekly | 6 | 135 | 141 | Reduced 1-6 hrs. weekly | 13.24 | 127.79 | 141 |
| Totals | 60 | 579 | 639 | | 60 | 579 | 639 |

Calculations of $\chi^2$

| Response | | Observed Frequency | Ex. Frequency | O-E | $(O-E)^2$ | $\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| O.S. | Added 1-6 hrs wkly | 17 | 14.74 | 2.26 | 5.1076 | .3465 |
| M.S.U. | Added 1-6 hrs wkly | 140 | 142.26 | -2.26 | 5.1076 | .0359 |
| O.S. | No effect | 37 | 32.02 | 4.98 | 24.8004 | .7745 |
| M.S.U. | No effect | 304 | 308.98 | -4.98 | 24.8004 | .0803 |
| O.S. | Reduced 1-6 hrs wkly | 6 | 13.24 | -7.24 | 52.4176 | 3.9590 |
| M.S.U. | Reduced 1-6 hrs wkly | 135 | 127.76 | 7.24 | 52.4176 | .4103 |

$\chi^2 = 5.6065^*$

*Not significant.

collected from the supervising teachers in the overseas schools and the public schools in Michigan.

Segment four of hypothesis five states that: There are no differences in the number of times per week the student teacher was in contact with the supervising teacher outside of regular working hours at school whether at an overseas school or in a public school of Michigan. Data from both student teachers and supervising teachers led to the rejection of this null hypothesis. Responses from the student teachers, Table 24, show a calculated Chi square of 18.25 with two degrees of freedom which is significant at or above the .001 level. The supervising teachers responses shown in Table 25, with two degrees of freedom also show significance at or above the .001 level, and it may be concluded that the overseas students and supervising teachers felt they had more contact with each other outside of regular working hours at school than is the case with student teachers assigned to Michigan schools. The null hypothesis was rejected by the data obtained from the student teachers and also by the data collected from the supervising teachers in the overseas schools and the public schools in Michigan.

Segment five of hypothesis five stated that: There are no differences in the effect a student teacher working with the supervising teacher had on the performance of the supervising teacher in an overseas center compared with that in a public school in Michigan. According to the

TABLE 24.--Number of Times Per Week the Student Teacher was in Contact with the Supervising Teacher Outside of Regular Working Hours at School (Student Teacher Responses).

| | Observed Responses | | | Expected Responses | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | O.S. | M. | | O.S. | M. | |
| Less than 1 time per week | 21 | 371 | 392 | 36.30 | 355.70 | 392 |
| 1-6 times per week | 37 | 202 | 239 | 22.13 | 216.87 | 239 |
| 7-10 times per week | 2 | 15 | 17 | 1.57 | 15.43 | 17 |
| Totals | 60 | 588 | 648 | 60 | 588 | 648 |

Calculation of $\chi^2$

| Response | Observed Frequency | Ex. Frequency | O-E | $(O-E)^2$ | $\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| O.S. Less than 1 time per week | 21 | 36.30 | -15.30 | 234.09 | 6.45 |
| M.S.U. Less than 1 time per week | 371 | 355.70 | 15.30 | 234.09 | .66 |
| O.S. 1-6 times per wk | 37 | 22.13 | 14.87 | 221.1169 | 9.99 |
| M.S.U. 1-6 times per wk | 202 | 216.87 | -14.87 | 221.1169 | 1.02 |
| O.S. 7-10 times per wk | 2 | 1.57 | .43 | .1849 | .12 |
| M.S.U. 7-10 times per wk | 15 | 15.43 | - .43 | .1849 | .01 |

$\chi^2 = 18.25^*$

*Significant difference.

TABLE 25.--Number of Times Per Week the Student Teacher was in Contact with the Supervising Teacher Outside of Regular Working Hours at School (Supervising Teacher Responses).

| | Observed Responses | | | Expected Responses | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | O.S. | M. | | | O.S. | M. | |
| Less than 1 time per week | 17 | 327 | 344 | Less than 1 time per week | 32.05 | 311.95 | 344 |
| 1-6 times per week | 39 | 238 | 277 | 1-6 times per week | 25.81 | 251.19 | 277 |
| 7-10 times per week | 4 | 19 | 23 | 7-10 times per week | 2.14 | 20.86 | 23 |
| Totals | 60 | 584 | 644 | Totals | 60 | 584 | 644 |

Calculations of $\chi^2$

| Response | Observed Frequency | Ex. Frequency | O-E | $(O-E)^2$ | $\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| O.S. Less than 1 time per week | 17 | 32.05 | -15.05 | 226.5025 | 7.07 |
| M.S.U. Less than 1 time per week | 327 | 311.95 | 15.05 | 226.5025 | .73 |
| O.S. 1-6 times per week | 39 | 25.81 | 13.19 | 173.9761 | 6.74 |
| M.S.U. 1-6 times per week | 238 | 251.19 | -13.19 | 173.9761 | .69 |
| O.S. 7-10 times per week | 4 | 2.14 | 1.86 | 3.4596 | 1.62 |
| M.S.U. 7-10 times per week | 19 | 20.86 | - 1.86 | 3.4596 | .17 |
| | | | | | $\chi^2 = 17.02$* |

*Significant difference.

responses received from the student teachers, Table 26, a Chi square of 10.222 was obtained with two degrees of freedom. This was significant at or above the .01 level. More of the overseas student teachers were unable to judge or felt that the supervising teacher became more effective. These two choices had about equal contributions to the $\chi^2$. Not as many of the student teachers as expected felt that the teachers' performance remained the same. According to Table 27 showing the data collected from the supervising teachers there was no significant difference. A Chi square score of .7399 with one degree of freedom was obtained. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected by the data collected from the student teachers and accepted by the data collected from the supervising teachers in the overseas schools and the public schools in Michigan.

## Other Findings

### Sociological Questionnaire--Part 1

In order to accomplish the secondary purpose of the study, a questionnaire was designed by the writer, to attempt to identify and measure some of the possible changes in values and attitudes of student teachers assigned overseas resulting from their opportunity to interact with people of different nationalities and American segments of the overseas American communities.

The questionnaire contained 29 items. The first 18 items pertained to the student teachers' association with

TABLE 26.--Effect Working with a Student Had on the Performance of the Supervising Teacher (Student Teacher Responses).

| | Observed Responses | | | | Expected Responses | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | O.S. | M. | | | O.S. | M. | |
| Made more effective | 28 | 221 | 249 | Made more effective | 23.16 | 225.84 | 249 |
| Remained same | 5 | 159 | 164 | Remained same | 15.26 | 148.74 | 164 |
| Unable to judge | 27 | 205 | 232 | Unable to judge | 21.58 | 210.42 | 232 |
| Totals | 60 | 585 | 645 | Totals | 60 | 585 | 645 |

Calculations of $\chi^2$

| Response | Observed Frequency | Ex. Frequency | O-E | $(O-E)^2$ | $\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| O.S. Made more effective | 28 | 23.16 | 4.84 | 23.4256 | 1.011 |
| M.S.U. Made more effective | 221 | 225.84 | - 4.84 | 23.4256 | .104 |
| O.S. Remained same | 5 | 15.26 | -10.26 | 105.2676 | 6.898 |
| M.S.U. Remained same | 159 | 148.74 | 10.26 | 105.2676 | .708 |
| O.S. Unable to judge | 27 | 21.58 | 5.42 | 29.3764 | 1.361 |
| M.S.U. Unable to judge | 205 | 210.42 | - 5.42 | 29.3764 | .140 |
| | | | | $\chi^2$ = | 10.222* |

*Significant difference.

TABLE 27.--Effect Working with a Student Teacher Had on the Performance of the Supervising Teacher (Supervising Teacher Responses).

| | Observed Responses | | | | Expected Responses | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | O.S. | M. | | | O.S. | M. | |
| Made more effective | 38 | 460 | 498 | Made more effective | 46.40 | 451.60 | 498 |
| Remained same | 22 | 124 | 146 | Remained same | 13.60 | 132.40 | 146 |
| Totals | 60 | 584 | 644 | Totals | 60 | 584 | 644 |

Calculations of $\chi^2$

| Response | | Observed Frequency | Ex. Frequency | O-E | $(O-E)^2$ | $\frac{(O-E)^2}{}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| O.S. | Made more effective | 38 | 46.40 | -8.40 | 7.056 | .1521 |
| M.S.U. | Made more effective | 460 | 451.60 | 8.40 | 7.056 | .0156 |
| O.S. | Remained same | 22 | 13.60 | 8.40 | 7.056 | .5189 |
| M.S.U. | Remained same | 124 | 132.40 | -8.40 | 7.056 | .0533 |
| | | | | | $\chi^2$ = | .7399* |

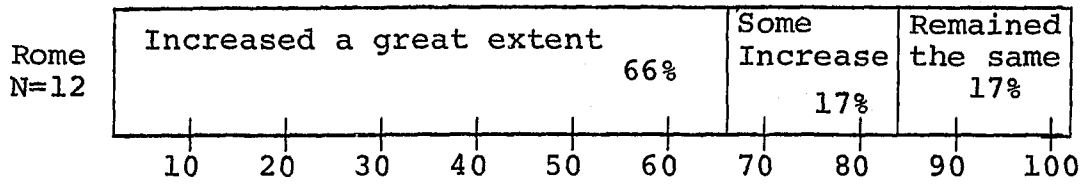
*Not significant.

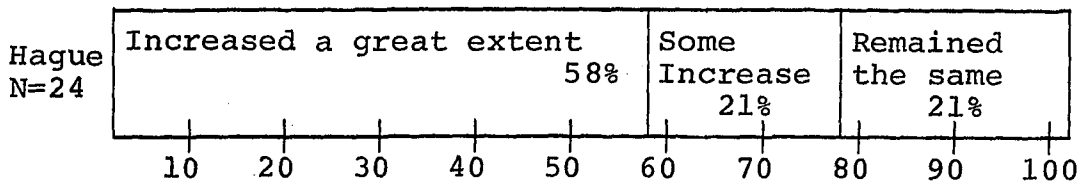
Europeans while overseas, the differences in living conditions, the impressions gained during their travels, and changes in attitudes and other differences encountered during their sojourn overseas.

The data collected by the questionnaire were analyzed to determine if any changes occurred during the student teachers' sojourn in Rome and Holland. The questions and percentages of the responses for the student teachers assigned to Italy and Holland follow. The student teachers who were assigned to the center in England were not involved with this questionnaire. In the following section, selected questions are presented with graphs designed to indicate the percentages of the student teachers' responses. An analysis of each selected item follows the bar graphs.

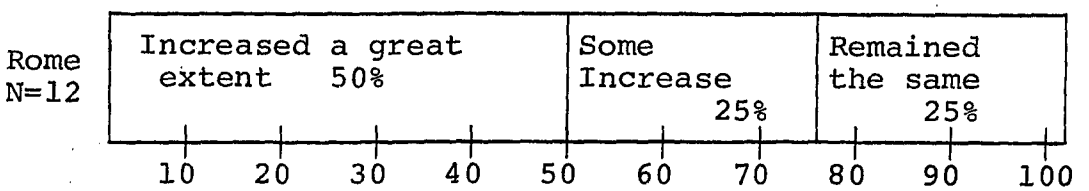
Questions 81 and 82 were designed to yield information regarding the students' responses to people of different nationalities both as a guest in their countries and in meeting Europeans visiting the United States.

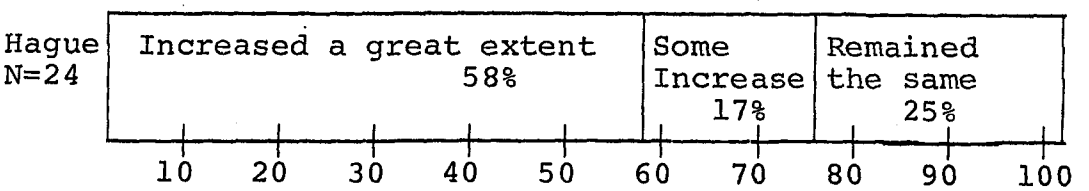
81. To what degree do you find yourself responding directly toward people of different nationalities than before you were assigned overseas?




82. To what extent would your reaction to foreigners visiting the United States be any different since your travel and assignment overseas?




The answers to questions 81 and 82 demonstrated that the student teachers in Rome and The Hague felt they responded more directly toward people of different nationalities than before being assigned overseas. A combined

percentage of 83 was shown for the Rome group while a combined percentage of 79 was reported by the group in The Hague. It appears that the student teachers participated in the personal adjustment defined by Mathews.[7] The student teachers actively lived and grew in such a way that they felt largely successful with their own degree of responses to people of different nationalities.

As to social adjustment, defined by Brim,[8] the student teachers seemed to have improved their ability to respond to others and to become more able members of the society even though it was only an eight-week living experience. The student teachers all seemed to agree that their reaction to foreigners visiting the United States would be increased to a great extent due to their assignment overseas.

The host nation countries, Italy and Holland, apparently were quite successful in changing the student teachers' attitudes in regard to foreigners visiting the United States. Michigan State University students indicated they would be more aware and possess an entirely different attitude to foreigners visiting the United States. A combined percentage for the Rome group of 75 was obtained

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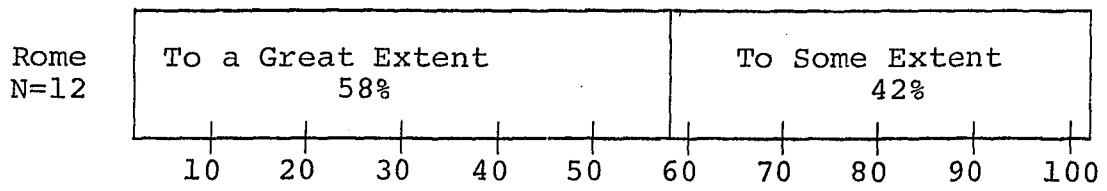
[7]Mathews, op. cit., p. 671.

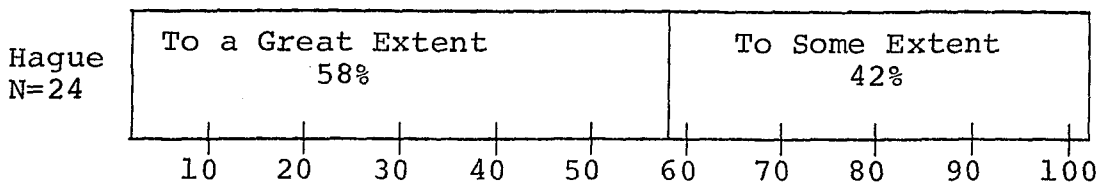
[8]Orville G. Brim, Jr. and Stanton Wheeler, Socialization After Childhood (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1966), p. 132.

and a combined percentage of 73 was obtained for The Hague student teachers.

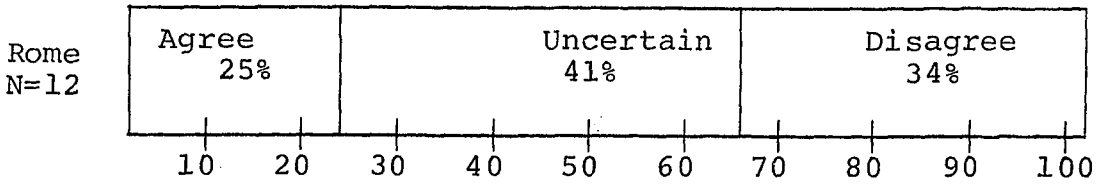
This section attempted to investigate how the student reacted to Europeans and adjusted to the foreign environment. Questions 85, 88, 91, 92, 96, and 97 were felt to best demonstrate the Michigan State University students reactions.

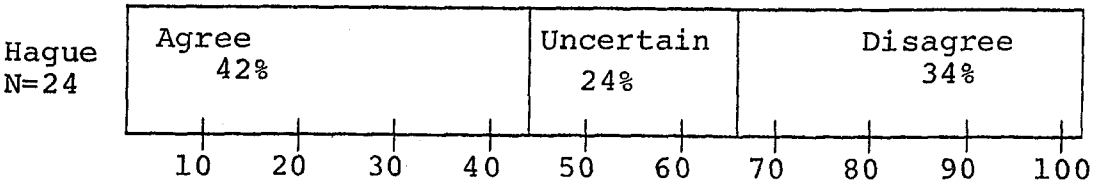
85. Do you feel at home in this foreign environment?



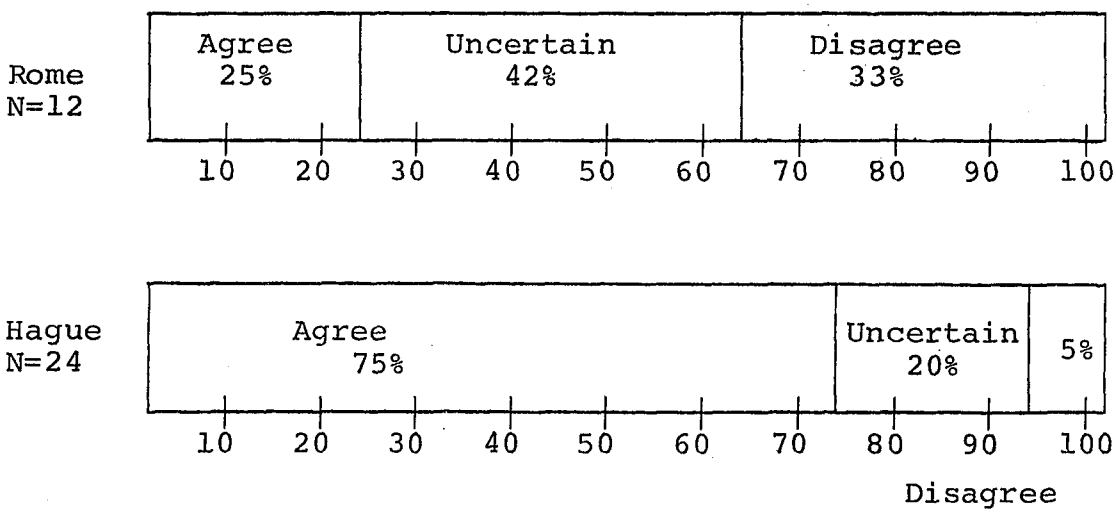




88. I feel as comfortable with foreigners as I am with my fellow countrymen.

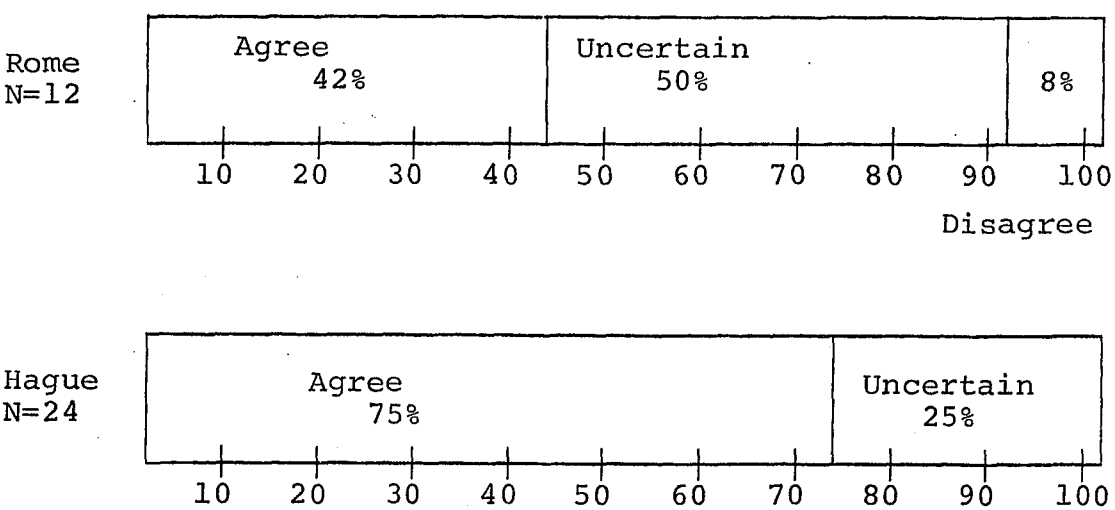


91. I feel I can trust most foreigners I meet in their home country.

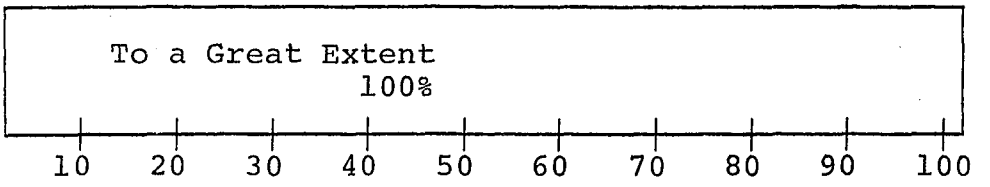



92. Most people have false ideas about what it is like to live overseas.

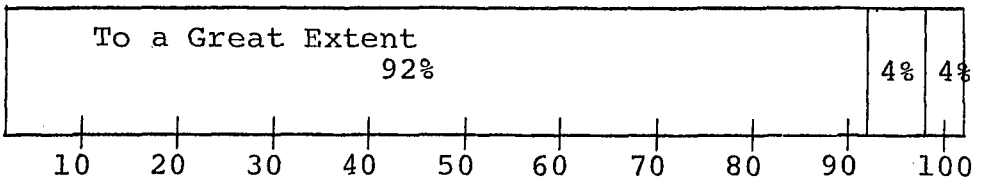


96. I am learning more about the host nation from my presence here than I could from books or lectures in the United States.

Rome
N=12



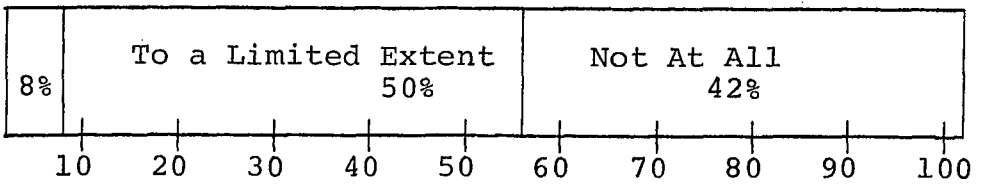

Hague
N=24




To a Limited Extent
Not at All

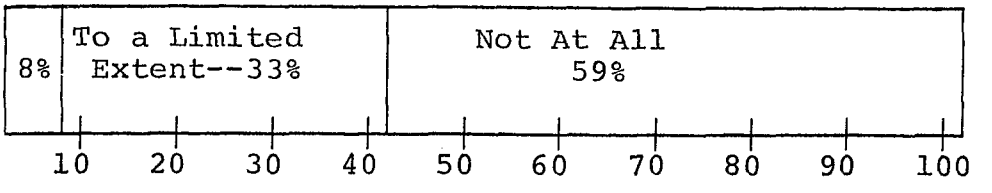
97. Did you date host nationals or foreigners while overseas?

Rome
N=12




To a Great Extent

Hague
N=24




To a Great Extent

It is noteworthy that no student teacher said he did not feel at home in the foreign environment even though it was only an eight-week training period. Forty-two per cent of The Hague student teachers felt as comfortable with foreigners as with Americans while 25 per cent of the Michigan State University student teachers in Rome felt the same way. In answering the same question, a larger percentage, 41, was uncertain in the Rome group than the 24 per cent who were uncertain in The Hague. It seems that if any group felt cultural shock, "a temporary loss of familiar signs or symbols that people experience when entering a foreign country," it was not too evident in the responses. The students responded well to what Berger calls, "Mobility, the changes that occur in the severing of interpersonal relations with family and friends and the removal of established mores, norms, and folkways with the simultaneous introduction of new social systems."[9]

Seventy five per cent of The Hague group thought that most people had false ideas about living overseas while 42 per cent in the Rome group did. One hundred per cent of the Rome group felt that they learned more about their host nation than from books or lectures while 92 per cent agreed to this in The Hague. Here one could probably state that "cross cultural education" took place. Smith feels that cross cultural education is described as the "reciprocal process of learning and adjustment that occurs when

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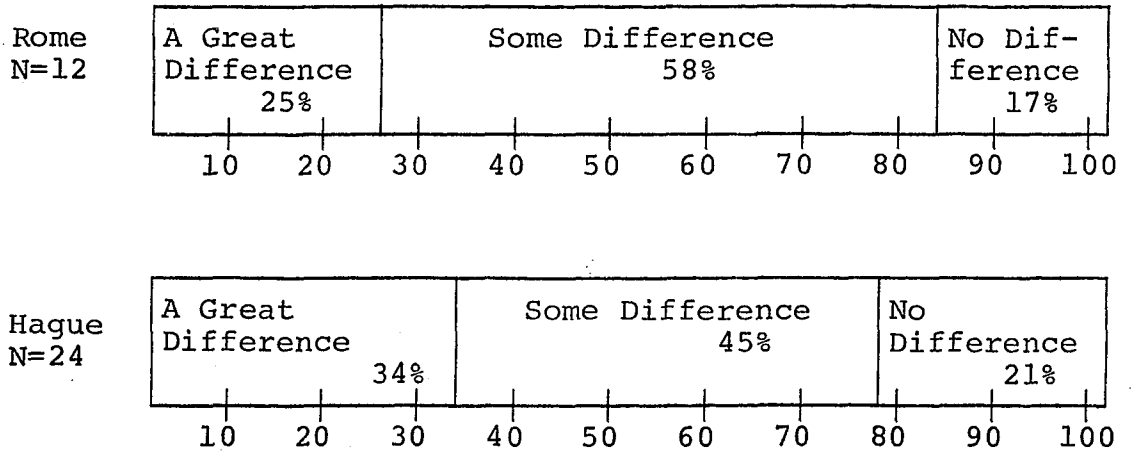
[9]Berger, op. cit., p. 22.

individuals sojourn for educational purposes in a society that is foreign to them, normally returning to their own society after a limited period."[10]

On the question of dating host nationals or foreigners while overseas, 58 per cent of the Rome student teachers indicated dating to a limited or a great extent and 41 per cent of The Hague student teachers indicated dating to a great or limited extent. Perhaps Gullahorns theory could be related here.[11] It may be due to the typological makeup of the teachers, that an eight-week period was not enough time to establish enduring friendships.

The following questions, 83, 84, 89, 90 and 94 dealt with an inquiry into each individual student teacher's awareness of being an American overseas while student teaching in Rome and The Hague.

83. How do you feel about being an American overseas?

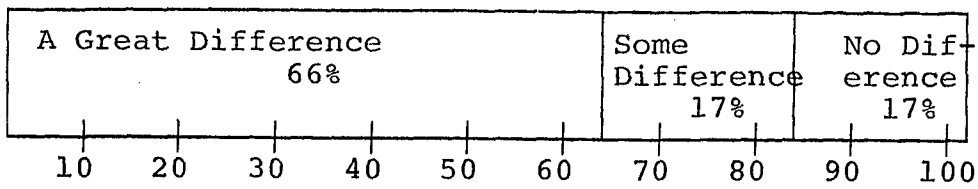



[10]Brewster M. Smith, "Cross-cultural Education as a Research Area," Journal of Sociological Issues, 12 (1956), p. 3.

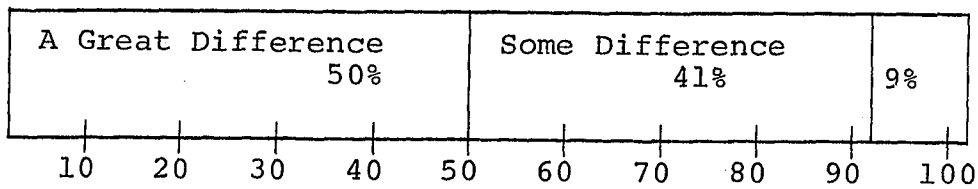
[11]The Gullahorns, op. cit., p. 47.

84. Do you feel any different as a result of your overseas experience?

Rome N=12



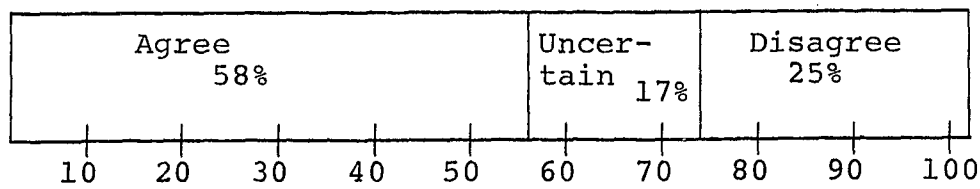

Hague N=24



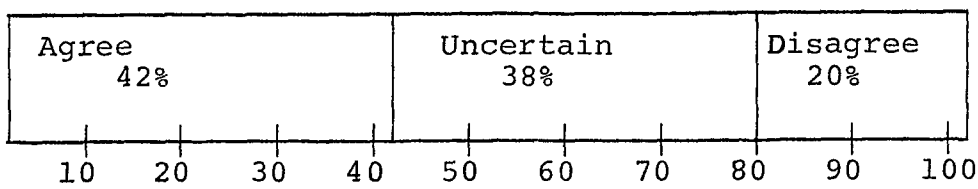

No Difference

89. I have more positive feelings about being an American when I am overseas than when I am in the United States.

Rome N=12

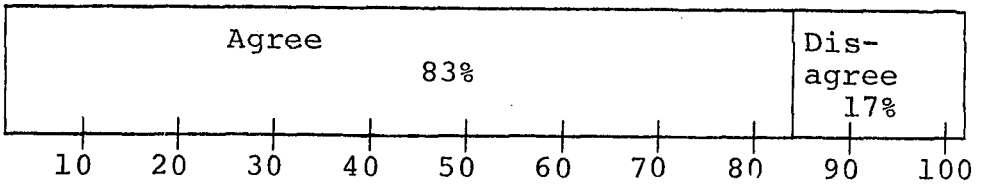



Hague N=24

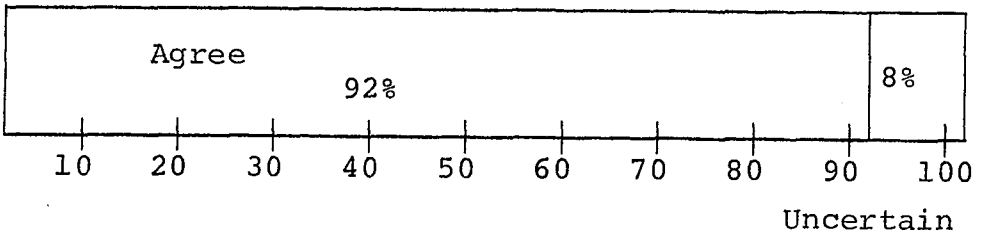


90. I am more aware of being an American when I am overseas than when I am in the United States.

Rome N=12

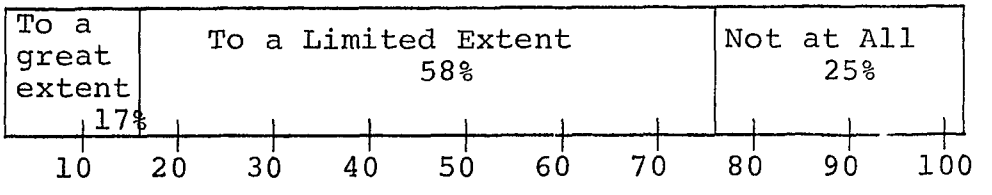



Hague N=24

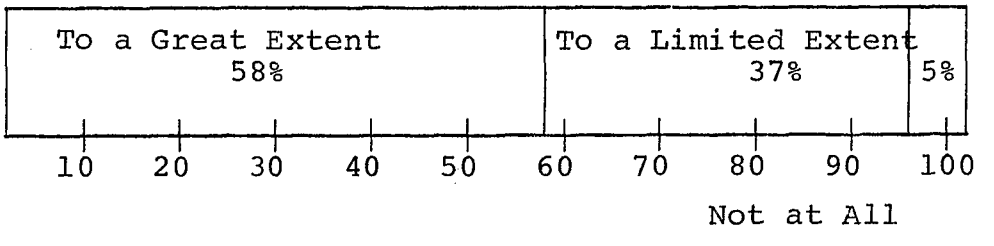



94. I am more aware of European affairs since my assignment overseas.

Rome N=12




Hague N=24



The Michigan State University student teachers in The Hague and Rome in answering question 83 and 84 felt different about being an American overseas by at least a combined total of 75 per cent for each center. A small percentage stressed "no differences in feelings." These two groups were perhaps involved with what Gleason labels "Worldmindedness," this being "the manifestation of a group of attitudes of overseas experienced people which reflect certain qualities of open mindedness concerning national identities and cultural values."[12]

In responding to question 89, 58 per cent of the Rome group agreed that they had more positive feelings about being an American overseas than when in the United States compared to 42 per cent of The Hague group. Seventeen per cent of the Rome group indicated an uncertainty in answering this question compared to 38 per cent in The Hague. The more positive feeling expressed by the Rome group might possibly stem from the anti-American feeling encountered by some of the student teachers in their travels in Italy.

It also seemed that more student teachers were aware of being an American while overseas. The Rome group agreed by 83 per cent while the group in The Hague agreed by 92 per cent. Here it suggests that his culture became clearer to the Michigan State University student even though he was probably not aware of it until asked in the questionnaire.

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[12]Gleason, op. cit., p. 5.

Kroeber and Kluckhohn state that: "culture systems may on the one hand, be considered as products of action, on the other, as conditioning elements of further action."[13] Perhaps student teaching overseas leads to further action in the development in understanding one's culture. The students primary concern was the experience of student teaching under supervision, but it was also found that these students became more aware of European affairs. In answering to their awareness of European affairs since their overseas assignment, 75 per cent of the student teachers in Rome and 95 per cent of the student teachers assigned to The Hague acknowledged awareness to a limited or to a great extent.

The last questions 87, 95, and 98 were designed to discover if any awareness of European affairs or any cultural changes in one's personal life took place due to student teaching in a Host nation.

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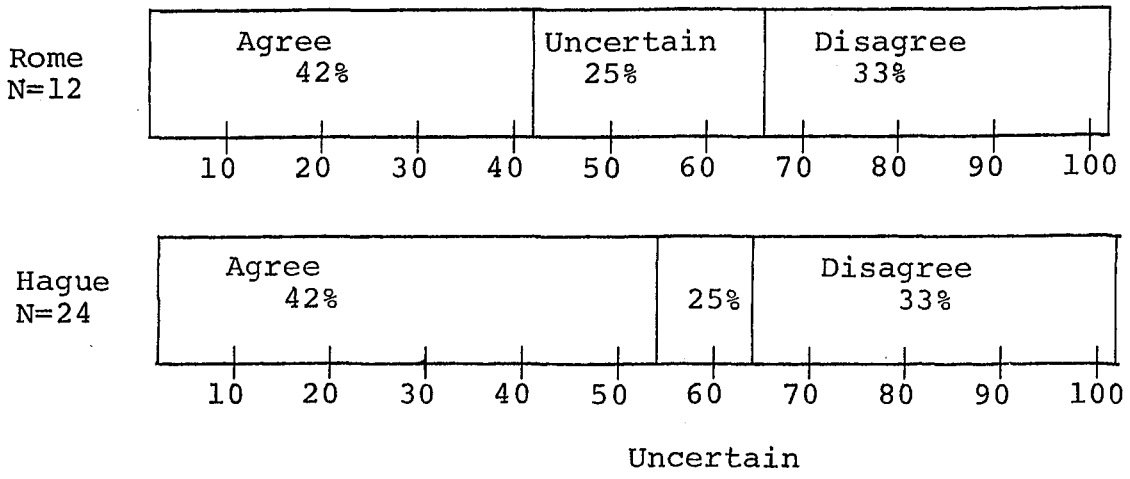
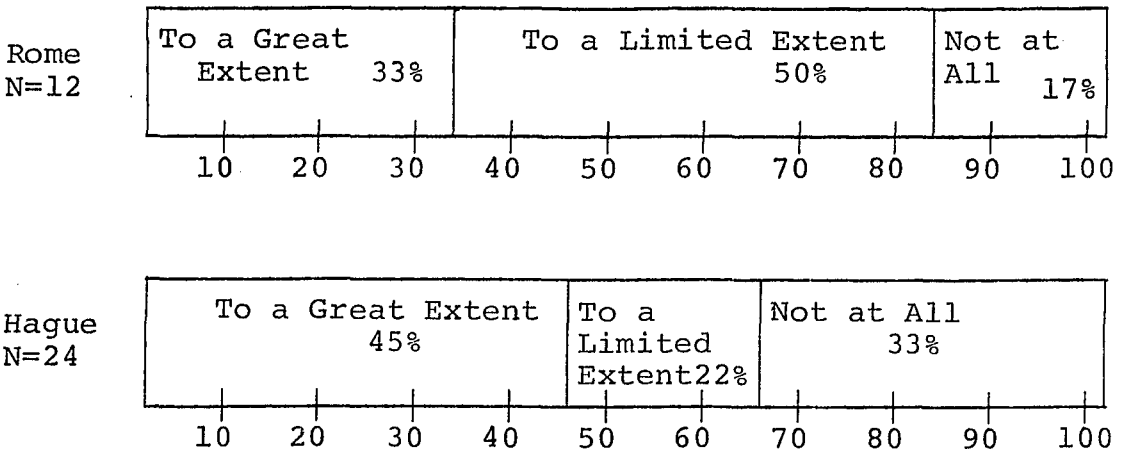
[13] A. L. Kroeber and Clyde Kluckhohn, Culture: A Critical Review of Concepts and Definitions (New York: Vintage Books, 1952), p. 357.

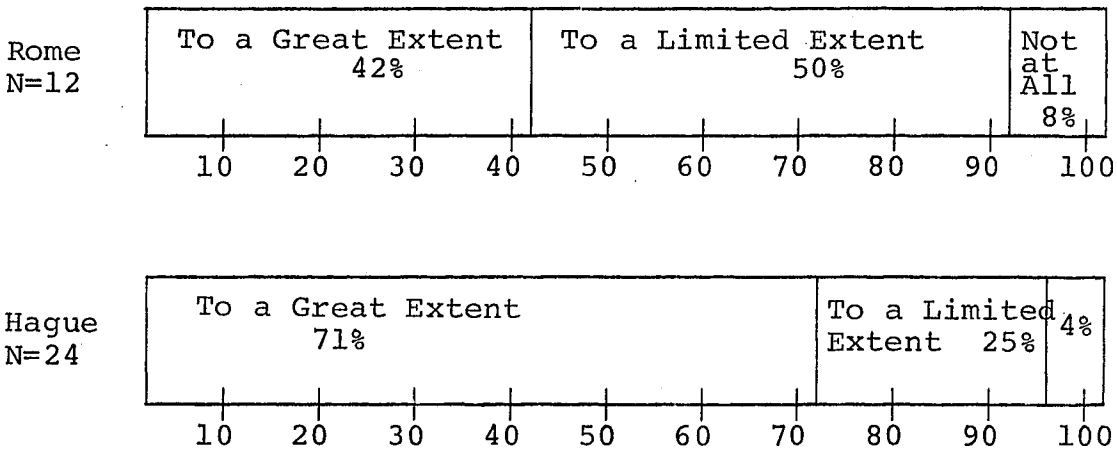
87. I think I will find it easier to talk about different topics with people who have had overseas experiences than with those who have not.




95. Since coming overseas my interest has changed favorably toward operas, concerts, museums, etc.



98. Other than on dates, do you generally pursue leisure time and recreational activities of the Host Nation?




Fifty four per cent of the Hague students felt that it would be easier to talk about different topics with people who have had overseas experience as compared to 42 per cent in the Rome group. Some cultural experiences may have proved beneficial since a combined 83 per cent of the Rome group reported extended interest in operas, concerts, and museums as opposed to a combined 67 per cent in the Hague group. It would appear that most students took advantage of the cultural opportunities of the Host Nation country. A combined total of 92 per cent pursued leisure time and recreational activities of the host nation in Rome as compared to a combined 96 per cent in the Hague group.

It seems that the beginnings of a third culture may have been started. Perhaps some "patterns were

created, shared and learned by people of two different societies."[14]

It does seem that the eight-week student teaching program started an awareness of some different cultural trends. The full results and effect of the student teaching experience could not be fully understood as to the significance until follow up activities could be initiated. This questionnaire does seem to suggest that several learnings in various cultural experiences did begin to take place.

Sociological Questionnaire--Part 2

In the second part of the sociological questionnaire, the student teachers assigned to Rome and The Hague were asked to compare host nationals with Americans on a selected list of characteristics (see Table 28).

Table 28 presents the data expressed as percentages of: the Rome group responses, The Hague student teacher responses, and the combined total percentages of both the Rome and The Hague student teacher responses to the comparative questions on characteristics.

A wide discrepancy appeared in answering the first question: "Which group was friendlier?" Only 25 per cent of the Rome group felt the host nationals were friendlier than Americans while 88 per cent of The Hague student

[14]John Useem, "Work Patterns of Americans in India," The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 368 (November, 1966), p. 147.

TABLE 28.--Comparisons of Selected Characteristics of Host Nationals with Americans.

| | Rome 1970 | | | The Hague 1971 | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Host Nation | American | Same | Host Nation | American | Same |
| 99-108 | In general which group would you say were: | | | | | |
| | % | % | % | % | % | % |
| Friendlier | 25 | 0 | 75 | 88 | 8 | 4 |
| More sophisticated | 17 | 50 | 33 | 17 | 42 | 41 |
| More morally upright | 25 | 42 | 33 | 0 | 21 | 79 |
| Better informed | 8 | 67 | 25 | 58 | 17 | 25 |
| More conservative | 67 | 33 | 0 | 17 | 66 | 17 |
| More serious minded | 25 | 8 | 67 | 34 | 8 | 58 |
| More culturally oriented | 67 | 0 | 33 | 71 | 8 | 21 |
| More traditional | 92 | 0 | 8 | 75 | 0 | 25 |
| More industrious | 8 | 59 | 33 | 8 | 50 | 42 |
| More competitive | 8 | 67 | 25 | 4 | 79 | 17 |

| 99-108 Total Rome and Hague Group Combined | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Host Nation | American | Same |
| | % | % | % |
| Friendlier | 66 | 6 | 28 |
| More sophisticated | 17 | 44 | 39 |
| More morally upright | 8 | 28 | 64 |
| Better informed | 42 | 33 | 25 |
| More conservative | 33 | 56 | 11 |
| More serious minded | 31 | 8 | 61 |
| More culturally minded | 69 | 6 | 25 |
| More traditional | 81 | 0 | 19 |
| More industrious | 8 | 53 | 39 |
| More competitive | 6 | 75 | 19 |

teachers felt the host nationals were friendlier than Americans. A large difference was shown between the two groups in response to the question: "Which group was more morally upright?" Seventy-nine per cent of the Hague group felt that both host nationals and Americans rated the same, whereas only 33 per cent of the Rome group chose the same response for their answers and indicated that Americans were more morally upright than the Italian host nationals.

Sixty-seven per cent of the Rome student teachers felt that Americans are better informed than Italians compared to 58 per cent of the Hague student teachers who felt that the Dutch were better informed than Americans. Sixty-seven per cent of the Rome student teachers felt that Italians were more conservative than Americans compared to 66 per cent of the Hague student teachers who chose Americans as more conservative than the Dutch.

Both groups felt about the same when addressing the question: "Who is more serious minded, the host national or the American?" Sixty-seven per cent of the Rome student teachers chose "the same" for their response compared to 58 per cent of the Hague student teachers. Seventy-one per cent of the Hague student teachers felt the host nationals were more culturally oriented than the Americans and 67 per cent of the Rome student teachers responded in the same manner. Ninety-two per cent of the student teachers in Rome selected the host national as

more traditional than Americans while 75 per cent of the Hague student teachers selected host nationals as being more traditional than Americans.

In response to the question: "Who is more industrious, host nationals or Americans?", 59 per cent of the Rome student teachers felt Americans were more industrious, while 50 per cent of the Hague students chose Americans as more industrious. It should be noted, however, that only 8 per cent of both groups felt that the host national was more industrious. A large percentage of each group felt that both countries rated the same on this item. In response to the question: "Which group was more competitive?", the larger percentage of both groups indicated that Americans are more competitive than host nationals with 79 per cent of the Hague student teachers selecting Americans compared to 67 per cent of the Rome student teachers who selected the Americans as being more competitive than the host nationals.

In summary, the comparison between host nationals and Americans by the student teachers assigned to The Hague and Rome revealed the following: Both groups felt the host nationals were friendlier, more serious minded, more culturally oriented, and more traditional. Americans, as seen by the student teachers, were more sophisticated, more industrious, more competitive, and more morally upright. In the other two characteristics, the Americans were seen as less

well informed than the Dutch but better informed than the Italians and more conservative than the Dutch but less so than the Italians.

For the third part of the sociological questionnaire in order to test the results of the opportunity for "overseas interaction" as defined by the Gullahorns,[15] the student teachers of the Rome and the Hague centers were asked to list host nationals by position or relationship including other Europeans met overseas that they intended to continue to contact after returning to the United States.

Fifteen of the 24 student teachers assigned to the Hague indicated that they planned to keep in touch with their host nation family. No attempt was made to compare this figure with the Rome student teachers who lived in a pensione and did not have this opportunity for such interaction. Eleven of the Hague student teachers indicated that they intended to keep in contact with their supervising teachers while eight student teachers assigned to Rome indicated this desire. Three student teachers assigned to the Hague will correspond with relatives overseas compared with one student teacher in Rome.

Four of the 12 student teachers from both the Rome and The Hague student teaching centers indicated that

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[15]Gullahorns, op. cit., p. 8.

they intended to keep in touch with students from their respective training schools. Seven of The 24 Hague student teachers indicated their desire to keep in touch with host nation friends while one student teacher from Rome will keep in touch with a host nation friend. Three of The Hague student teachers plan to keep in touch with friends from other European countries; none of the Rome student teachers expressed this desire.

## Typologies of Student Teachers of Michigan State University Assigned to Overseas American Schools

Eighty nine per cent of the Michigan State University students assigned to overseas American schools for student teaching were single (Table 28). Seventy nine per cent were female. Seventy per cent were over 21 years of age at the time of their assignment.

Forty four per cent of the student teachers assigned overseas had a grade point average of 3.0 or above at the time of their assignment.

Eighty eight per cent of the student teachers assigned overseas indicated that they would recommend to their friends a student teaching assignment to the same school with the same teacher.

Thirty nine per cent of the student teachers assigned overseas indicated that they would accept a teaching position in the same school.

TABLE 29.--Typologies of Student Teachers Assigned to Overseas American Schools and Michigan Public Schools.

| | Status Single % | Sex Female % | G.P.A. Over 3.0 % | Age Over 21 % | Assign. 7-12th grade % | Would Recommend Same Assignment to Friends % | Would Accept Teaching Position in Same School % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Michigan Group | 74 | 72 | 25 | 67 | 56 | 83 | 56 |
| Hague Group | 72 | 75 | 33 | 75 | 20 | 91 | 54 |
| Rome Group | 100 | 75 | 50 | 58 | 42 | 75 | 33-1/3 |
| London Group | 96 | 87 | 50 | 88 | 50 | 100 | 30 |
| Combined European Group | 89 | 79 | 44 | 70 | 37 | 88 | 39 |

Typologies of Michigan State University Student Teachers Assigned to Public Schools in Michigan

Seventy-four per cent of the Michigan State University student teachers (Table 29) assigned to Michigan public schools were single.

Sixty seven per cent were over 21 years of age at the time of assignment.

Twenty-five per cent of the student teachers assigned to Michigan public schools had an all college grade point average of 3.0 or above.

Eighty three per cent of the student teachers assigned to Michigan public schools indicated they would recommend the same school and teacher to friends.

Fifty-six per cent of the student teachers assigned to Michigan public schools indicated that they would accept a teaching position in the school where they accomplished their student teaching.

Interview Data--Part 3

The following section of Chapter IV contains a report of a series of oral questions which were presented to the student teachers located in the Michigan State University student teaching centers in England, Italy and Holland. Both individual students and groups of student teachers were interviewed at the overseas student teaching centers (Appendix D).

The questions for the interviews were framed in an attempt to identify some of the effects that overseas

living had on the lives of the student teachers. Although no attempt was made to analyze the data obtained, an effort was made to relate the responses to the assessment of the effects the overseas assignment had on the student teachers.

As the reader will note, student teachers within any given area expressed their feelings in many different ways. Thus the student teachers who were assigned to a Department of Defense overseas American school in England displayed a tendency to be indifferent to or set off from the permanent residents of the community. This reaction could stem from the very nature of being assigned to an isolated American air base or from the fact that they did not have to cope with a foreign language as did the other student teachers in this study who were assigned to Italy or Holland.[1] Thought should be given to the fact, however, that the student teachers assigned to the remote air base spent a great deal more time with the students, parents, and supervising teachers. Many of these student teachers were housed on the base and had more exposure to their students, parents, and supervising teachers.

On the other hand, the student teachers assigned to overseas schools in Italy and Holland and hence had to make some effort to cope with the local language and spend a

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[16]Mary C. Rainey, "Language Learnings of Overseas-Experienced American Teenagers" (unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Michigan State University, 1971), p. 226.

considerable amount of time with community activities appeared to have more empathy for their overseas situation.

As previously stated, each group of student teachers lived in a different situation. The student teachers in England resided in bachelor officers' quarters on an American air base, the student teachers in Italy lived in a pensione where although living and eating together, they had to cope with the Italian employees and other foreigners living in the pensione. The student teachers in Holland had still another situation. They lived with Dutch families, where English was rarely spoken or understood.

In response to the interview question: "What shocked you the most upon your arrival overseas?", typical responses were as follows:

(1) Student teachers in Rome

> The way the men stand around all day. What do they do? The way they react to the girls. The basic physical contact when you are on buses and in shops. We had to learn to react back to them.
>
> The Italians really idolize their children, it is so different than at home. At home we believe that children should be seen and not heard. Over here, children seem to be a big part of their lives.
>
> Italian families seem closer out in public. You see the whole family out for a walk and enjoying themselves.
>
> I'm impressed by the way the Italian men treat their children. It is beautiful the way the men get along with their children compared to us.

(2) Student teachers in The Hague

> The Dutch are more relaxed, they take their time about everything and if something doesn't work, life still goes on. No big hassle, you don't have to call the plumber or the T.V. repairman right away.
>
> I'm sure that no one has an ulcer in Holland unless it is an American."
>
> The thing I noticed was their behavior on the buses. They are not real open, laughing type of people. I noticed that on the buses they talk quietly, while we were yelling. People were staring at us because we were so loud, I guess.
>
> Until you get to know the Dutch they keep to themselves. It has to be like an invitation. Americans are ready to run right up and say 'Hi, how are you?', and be loud about it.

(3) Student teachers in England

> The English are very helpful, I wonder if I had been an Englishman in my home town, if I would have received such a nice reception.
>
> I found the English reserved at first, but very helpful when you stop and ask questions.
>
> "One of the things that stuck in my mind was the tolerance of the English people. I didn't get any money from home for two weeks and when it was sent to the bank it was in pound sterling. I went to the bank, very upset as I was stuck with $400.00 worth of English pounds and didn't have any American money. I went in to see the bank manager in a bad temper and he said: 'settle down or I won't talk to you.' He was very calm and handled my situation very well. I felt that he had taught me a lesson in tolerance and I later became very friendly with him."

It seems rather obvious from the responses to the question that the student teachers were impressed with the family life in Italy and the treatment of the Italian children by their parents. Student teachers both in

Holland and England noticed the reserved attitude on the part of the Dutch and English. The student teachers in Italy reacted quite differently to the Italian men and their forward attitude towards women. The student teachers in England felt that the men, although quite reserved are very helpful when asked.

Below are some selected comments from responses to the question: "What did you find different about other Europeans while assigned overseas?"

Student Teachers in Rome

> You become friendly with others who speak English, there is a bond present. There is a bond between age and occupation, such as foreign students. They don't really have to speak the language, we each know a few words of each language and you get along.
>
> Europeans are a lot more helpful than Americans, especially in England. I didn't have any fear while walking down the streets alone at night because it was very safe. In Rome a girl can go out alone at night and except for some aggressive Italian men, you have no problems, they'll follow you for a while, but that's all. You can't even drive a car alone in Detroit at night.
>
> I didn't find any real differences. People in Europe are generally relaxed and not in a hurry as we are.

Student Teachers in the Hague

> Europeans are so relaxed, it makes you wonder if Americans aren't moving too quickly. We should take a lesson.

> The French treated us differently from the Dutch. They want Americans to try to learn French. They figure why should we buckle to you. You are in our country, so try to learn French. We met some French students and they spoke English for a while, finally they said, Let's try French as if to say, 'What's wrong with French?'
>
> In France and parts of Germany, even if they know English, they will not speak it. We had a man who wouldn't even help us find a hotel room. Hotel is the same in practically every language, but he said, 'don't speak English.' This happened to us in Holland, they didn't speak a word of English, but yet we communicated and they found us a place to stay.

Student Teachers in England

> I found many Europeans who are anti-American. They'll say: 'Are you English or American?' If you say English, fine they'll talk to you, if you say American, they'll just stare at you. This happened to me in France.
>
> In a restaurant when there is an extra seat or two, you are invited to join the table. They just move over and make room.
>
> They have a great deal of patience. It takes fifteen minutes to place a phone call. We called from the Alps to Brussels and it took eight hours. It took us forty-five minutes to find the number and then we had the wrong one.
>
> I found that when I visited Italy, blonde females are unique. When they see a blonde they want to follow you. Once I learned the term to leave me alone, they did. However, at least, it is safe for a female to walk the streets at night.

Responses to the questions of differences found in other Europeans elicited varied responses from the student teachers. The student teachers felt that Europeans are more relaxed and more helpful than Americans. Some of the student teachers regarded the French as feeling that

Americans should try to learn some aspects of a foreign language before traveling overseas. A comparison was brought out that in Rome, a girl can walk alone in the evenings and that in most cities in the United States, this could not be done.

Following are some selected comments from the question: "Did you get to know any of the host nation people in the country of your assignment?"

Student Teachers in Rome

> My roommate has Italian relatives here, they came over and took us around the city and were very nice to us. Most of the Italians are very hospitable and very helpful.
>
> I did meet an Italian girl friend and went to her apartment and out to dinner. She spoke English and teaches in an Italian school.

Student Teachers in the Hague

> I got to know quite a few Dutch people. The first night we were here, some company came over to visit our Dutch family. The younger girl who was a divorcee brought a friend over later and we went to visit Rotterdam together.
>
> My husband and I are living in a Dutch pension with our Dutch mother. She is a widower with two grown daughters. We visited the daughter and went with them to other parts of Holland.

Student Teachers in England

> I found that people were pretty much the same all over the Western world. I did meet some British people and while they were friendly, they were more 'standoffish' than people I met while I was in France and Switzerland.
>
> Although the British are more formal, I found them to be warm and enjoyed getting to meet them and to know them."
>
> Our landlord was terrific, they have been very friendly, they lent us their car for a weekend travelling and didn't charge for it.

The answers to the question of getting acquainted with host nation people did not elicit many positive responses. Teachers in Rome became acquainted with people of other nationalities who were living in the pensione. The student teachers assigned to the Hague were able to become better acquainted with Dutch people due to the fact that they were actually living in Dutch homes. Student teachers in England seemed to find the English very reserved and did not have the opportunity to meet many host nationals due to their living on an American air base, but did feel that they were warm once the barrier was broken. All seemed to agree that the amount of time actually spent in the country was too short and that they were busy most of the time with their student teaching assignments.

Following are selected comments from responses to the questions: "Did you have any experiences either while stationed here or travelling which changed your opinion of the people or their culture?"

Student Teachers in Rome

> I didn't realize the Italians had such tempers. When they get involved in a simple matter, they wave their hands and yell at each other.
>
> I found some things that are quite contradictory to what I had read. They are very emotional, it seems rather spontaneous and then it is through.
>
> Naturally I came over with the preconceived notion that Italian men pinch females and treat a female obnoxiously. This is not really true. They will follow you and talk to you, but behave better than I had previously heard from others in the U.S.

> We went to a couple of restaurants in Sorrento, although you couldn't understand what they were saying, you knew it wasn't friendly. They would throw in 'Yankee' and 'Americans.' A couple of the girls had a real bad experience at the train station in Naples. Some women kept following them around and screaming about the war and had the girls in tears.

Student Teachers in The Hague

> Things are more modern than I had thought. It is no quaint Europe. Hot and cold drinking water they have, and we were told they had no heat. Even their drinking water is fine. We heard they always drank wine and beer.
>
> I thought the country would be dirty but find it cleaner than ours.
>
> I had heard people were friendly, but I wasn't expecting such a great degree, people have been fantastic.

In responding to the question of any preconceived notions that the student teachers might have brought with them, in each center it was noticed that the student teachers found things quite different.

The student teachers in Holland found the country to be more modern, and cleaner than they expected. Again they found that the Dutch people were very friendly. Some of the student teachers in Italy did come across anti-American feeling while traveling in southern Italy and found the Italians to be very emotional. They did experience better treatment from the men than they had been led to expect.

Following are selected comments from responses to the question: "How are you different as a result of your overseas experience?"

Student Teachers in Rome

> I hate the word, but I'm sure we've all become more flexible and openminded, you have to be able to change, you can't have definite plans.
>
> You don't need as many conveniences, material things like hot water isn't all that important. You really don't need to have a lot of clothes.

Student Teachers in The Hague

> I feel very different. I keep wondering what it will be like in the states even if we have only been here for two months.
>
> I know now what it is for Americans to be disliked. The first week of living with our Dutch family, the oldest son who was twenty-one would not speak to us and the younger one kept sticking out his tongue at the table.

Student Teachers in England

> You are not putting on a show for anyone, you don't have to impress people over here.
>
> I learned to get around on my own and I felt it was a maturing process. When I go back to the states, I hope I won't be disillusioned about life.

Varied reactions were presented to the question: "How are you different as a result of your overseas experience?" Student teachers in Rome felt that they were more open-minded, have become more flexible and that material things in life are not the most important. A student teacher in the Hague experienced some anti-American feeling in the Dutch home where she resided during her student teaching stint from the younger members of the family. This seemed to have been the first time that some of the student teachers had come across

this resentment. The student teachers in England experienced a feeling of "getting around on my own." This was possibly the first time away from home for some of these people.

Following are selected comments from respondents to the question "How do you compare your living quarters with that you expected?"

Student Teachers in Rome

> I enjoyed living in the pensione, it was a great experience meeting people of other nationalities.
>
> The meals were good, although I am not used to having wine with meals, I did get into the swing.
>
> I wanted to live with an Italian family. I would then be forced to learn some Italian and some Italian customs.
>
> I'm ashamed of myself. I should be more daring in trying out the food in Rome. We seem to keep looking for American restaurants so we can get an American hamburger. We seem to have a craving for American food.

Student Teachers in The Hague

> We lived in a small home with a family. Although it was clean and comfortable, we were on top of each other. In the evenings we had to stay in our room, two of us were together. We had to ask for clean linens, clean our own rooms and make our own beds.
>
> The meals were the same every week, not much change. Tea was served for breakfast and nothing to drink was served at the evening meal.
>
> I rather enjoyed our Dutch mother. She served meat and cheese for breakfast and then all of a sudden, she started serving eggs. Coffee time was at 10 a.m., 4 p.m., or after supper.

> No alcohol was served, this was a religious family.
>
> I'm happy with our living arrangement. However, we found out that living in a Dutch family you have a cultural responsibility. If I were home in the U. S. and came in from school tired, I would ignore everyone, maybe rest, do lesson plans and then come down to dinner. When we came home our Dutch mother had tea ready and we had to spend a great deal of time in the afternoon visiting with her.
>
> We didn't have any problems. The food is great, we do eat a lot of pork. I've heard other student teachers say that they just get potatoes most of the time.

In answering the question--expectancies of living quarters in the host country, the student teachers in all centers seemed to enjoy the experience. A majority of the student teachers in the three centers would have liked to have lived with a family as did the student teachers at The Hague center. The three types of living experiences--living in bachelor officers' quarters experienced by the English group, living in an Italian boarding house (pensione) experienced by the Italy group and living with Dutch families experienced by the Holland group--each elicited different reactions. The English group living with Americans was able to take advantage of advice given to them on travel, etc. to other countries and felt they could always find someone to talk to when lonesome. The Holland student teachers found the Dutch homes clean but small. They found that they had to accept a cultural responsibility that entailed becoming involved in the Dutch family life. Their life wasn't

completely their own. The student teachers assigned to the Rome center enjoyed living in the pensione with people of other nationalities and were able to get together in the evenings for sharing with their own colleagues and could have social events with peoples of other nationalities.

Most of the student teachers agreed that the food was wholesome and plentiful. Some wished they had visited more Italian restaurants. Others seemed to be searching for American food such as hamburgers.

Following are selected comments from responses to the question: "What have you learned about the host nation government, their politics and conditions in general?"

Student Teachers in Rome

> Walking down the street and seeing the communist symbol pointed on the brick wall bothered me. It was very frightening to see it living on a wall instead of in a magazine.
>
> While in southern Italy, I detected some antagonism towards us, some women came up to us and said, 'you bombed our homes.' This was on the train at Naples.
>
> I saw two political demonstrations by the Vatican. I thought that might be one place where they wouldn't do this sort of thing.
>
> I happen to be a Catholic and I was very disillusioned going to St. Peters. When I went to mass, all the people were milling around, it was just like a public display.
>
> When you see the Catholic Church, which is so overwhelming, you begin to wonder about all of the poverty countries and if the church money might have been put to better use.

> We talked to some Italian women in our pensione about social relationships. They told us that once you marry an Italian man, they've got you trapped and they don't really care about you anymore. They still go out with other women even after they are married.

Student Teachers in The Hague

> We had some good discussions with our landlord about our governments. He is about thirty years old. He said, 'We have our problems and you have yours in your country.'
>
> The Dutch are very proud of themselves, they have a right to be. They are very industrious and are very proud of what they have done with their little country. They love you to compliment them on their work.
>
> The queen seems to be just a figurehead. She is not like England's queen. She is not so pompous because there is not a long history behind her.
>
> Our Dutch family didn't discuss politics although there was an election in progress. I asked a twenty-one year old boy about the election and he said, 'I don't know and I don't care about it.'
>
> The queen is sort of a matriarchal figurehead. They have deep respect for her, but they know that she is just there.

Student Teachers in London

> In London, you can stand up and discuss anything you wish either for or against the government, but you can't talk against the queen.
>
> I was amazed that the queen could ride around in an open car and not worry about being harmed.

Student teachers in Rome seemed to be more verbal in answering the question: "What have you learned about the host nation government, their politics, and conditions in general?" The main topics they discussed were: the

political demonstrations, the antagonism toward Americans displayed in Southern Italy, the open display of the Communist hammer and sickle and the grandeur of the Catholic Church.

The student teachers in London felt that the English are very free in standing up in public and discussing either for or against the government. It was brought out that "you can't talk out against the queen." They expressed wonderment that the queen could ride around in an open car and not worry about being harmed. The student teachers in the Hague considered the queen as a figurehead and not really the ruler of the country. The student teachers at The Hague found that the younger generation in Holland does not know too much about local or national politics and did not care to discuss the election that was in progress.

## Summary

In this chapter the data obtained by the student teacher questionnaire, the sociological questionnaire and the taped interviews were presented.

It was evident from the analysis of the data obtained by the student teacher questionnaire that no significant differences were apparent on: selected instructional activities, selected aspects of the school program, and amount of time was spent on professional duties by the supervisory teachers due to the presence of student teachers assigned to overseas American schools

compared to student teachers assigned to public schools in Michigan. Student teachers overseas did not contribute on any different scale to the professional growth of supervising teachers than student teachers in Michigan. No significant change was noted in the time spent on selected classroom activities due to the presence of student teachers in overseas-American schools compared to the presence of student teachers in Michigan public schools.

In spite of the fact that none of the null hypotheses designed for this study were rejected by the criteria pspecified in the study, some statistically significant differences did, in fact, occur in the sub-measures for hypotheses four and five which were analyzed by the Chi square test. These differences are important enough to be identified here since they do provide additional evaluative data regarding the Michigan State University overseas student teaching program.

In Hypothesis four, the sub-measures revealed that 17 of the 60 supervising teachers in the overseas schools felt that their time spent on teaching increased or remained the same due to the presence of student teachers as compared to 50 of 581 of the supervising teachers in the Michigan public schools. In addition, the sub measure dealing with time spent in individual students was reported by overseas supervising teachers as increasing less than expected in comparison with the Michigan supervisors (Table 17).

In hypothesis five, a greater proportion of the overseas supervising teachers felt they had spent more hours per week in the physical presence of the student teachers than did the supervising teachers in the Michigan public schools. It was also revealed (Table 25) that 70 per cent of the overseas supervising teachers as opposed to 44 per cent of the Michigan supervising teachers stated that they spent from one to ten times weekly with their student teachers outside of regular working hours at school. Sixty five per cent of the overseas student teachers (Table 24) as opposed to 37 per cent of the Michigan student teachers stated that they had spent from one to ten times weekly with their supervising teachers outside of regular working hours at school. No significant differences were reported between the judgments of the Michigan and the overseas supervising teachers in the effect that working with a student teacher had on the effectiveness of their performance as teachers. However, a total of 47 per cent of the overseas student teachers and 38 per cent of the Michigan student teachers felt that their presence did have an effect on the supervising teacher. These differences were significantly different from the Michigan student teacher responses.

The sociological questionnaire brought out that a greater percentage of the student teachers assigned to Holland and Italy felt that the host nationals were friendlier, more serious minded, more traditional, and more

culturally minded than Americans. The student teachers felt that Americans appeared more sophisticated, more competitive, more morally upright and more industrious than host nationals, however in the two characteristics, moral uprightness and serious mindedness, more than half saw no differences between host nationals and Americans.

Responses by the student teachers seemed to indicate that the student teachers were impressed with the Italian family way of life, and with the fact that a female can walk alone in the evenings in the major cities of Europe without an escort. European cities are more modern and cleaner than they had expected. European people are friendlier and more helpful than Americans would be to foreigners, that some of the overseas student teachers experienced for the first time, anti-American feelings, that public demonstrations, however, spontaneous they might appear, are well controlled and orderly; and that the rulers or national leaders of European countries are able to appear in public without fear of harm.

A majority of the student teachers assigned to overseas American schools indicated: that they would liked to have lived with a host nation family, that the food was wholesome and plentiful, that the Europeans felt that material things in life are not as important as Americans consider them to be, and that they have become more open-minded and more flexible as a result of their overseas experience.

# CHAPTER V

## SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter summarizes the study from its inception through the interpretation of the data. A number of specific recommendations for possible actions and future study will be presented.

### Summary of Methodology and Procedures

The primary purpose of this study was to compare the effects of the presence of student teachers of Michigan State University assigned to overseas American schools with the effects of the presence of Michigan State University student teachers assigned to public schools in Michigan.

A secondary purpose of this study was to identify and measure some of the changes in values and attitudes of student teachers of Michigan State University assigned to overseas American schools, resulting from their opportunity to interact with people of different nationalities and segments of the American overseas community.

A review of related research relevant to the problem was presented. Emphasis was placed upon the historical background of overseas education and the

organizational structure of two American overseas school systems; the Department of Defense dependents schools and the overseas international schools. A review of the nature of overseas student teaching programs was discussed with particular emphasis upon the student teaching programs of Michigan State University in both of the overseas school systems and in public schools in Michigan. A description was presented of the three overseas student teaching centers of Michigan State University utilized in this study.

As a result of the questions raised and the theory presented, the following null hypotheses were formulated:

1. There are no differences in the characteristics of the specified instructional activities as perceived by student teachers or as perceived by supervisory teachers when student teachers of Michigan State University are assigned to overseas American schools compared to the assignment of student teachers to Michigan public schools.

2. There are no differences in the contributions to the specified aspects of the school program when student teachers are placed in overseas American schools as compared to when student teachers are placed in public schools in Michigan.

3. There are no differences in the amount of time the supervising teacher was able to spend on specified professional duties due to the presence of a student teacher whether this student teacher was assigned to overseas American schools or public schools in Michigan.

4. There are no differences in the amount of time spent by the supervising teacher on specified classroom activities due to the presence of student teachers in the overseas American schools as compared to their presence in the public schools in Michigan.

5. There are no differences in the contribution of the student teacher to the professional growth of the supervising teacher whether student teachers are assigned to overseas American schools or in the public schools of Michigan.

The subjects in this investigation were student teachers of Michigan State University and their supervising teachers. One group comprised the total population of 575 student teachers of Michigan State University who were assigned to public schools in Michigan for the fall term of 1969. The other segment of the population used in this study were 60 student teachers and their supervisors assigned to overseas American schools during 1970-1971. These student teachers were assigned to schools in England, Italy and Holland.

The survey instrument used in this study was originally designed to determine the impact of student teaching programs upon cooperating public schools in Michigan (Impact Study).[1] From the original instrument which contained an eighty item questionnaire, the writer selected 18 questions to help test the five hypotheses designed for this study.

In addition to completing the Student Teaching questionnaire, the student teachers assigned to the MSU student teaching centers in Rome and the Hague were asked to complete a sociological questionnaire. This

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[1]Student Teaching Programs, Questions and Answers, op. cit.

questionnaire was designed by the writer in an attempt to identify and measure some of the changes in values and attitudes of student teachers resulting from their opportunities to interact with people of different nationalities.

A series of interviews with individual student teachers and groups of student teachers were conducted and taped in an effort to identify and measure some of the effects that overseas studying and living had on the lives of the Michigan State University student teachers.

The reliability of the questions used to form the scale scores for the five hypotheses was calculated by the Hoyt Estimate of Reliability.[2]

The statistical design used to provide the data for the first three hypotheses was Finn's Multivariate Analysis of Variance.[3] The coefficients of reliability for hypotheses four and five were found to be unreliable on the Hoyt program and were analyzed by the application of the Chi square test for significance.[4]

Data gathered from the multivariate analysis of variance tests for hypothesis one (noticeable effects of instructional activities), hypothesis two (contributions to the school program), and hypothesis three (time

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[2]Hoyt, op. cit., pp. 153-160.

[3]Finn, op. cit.

[4]Dixon and Massey, op. cit., pp. 188-189.

supervising teacher spent on professional duties due to presence of the student teacher) did not yield any significant differences.

The Chi square tests of significance for hypothesis four (time supervising teacher spent on classroom activities) and hypothesis five (contribution to professional growth of supervising teacher by the student teacher) did produce some statistically significant results, but not in any consistent manner.

On the basis of the statistical evidence accumulated for this study, none of the five hypotheses related to this investigation could be rejected.

The sociological questionnaire showed that a greater percentage of student teachers assigned to Holland and Italy felt that host nationals were friendlier, more serious minded, more traditional and more culturally minded than Americans. On the other hand the student teachers indicated in the questionnaire that Americans and host nationals were rated equal by more than half the student teachers on the characteristic traits of moral uprighteousness and serious mindedness.
dent teachers on the characteristic traits of moral uprighteousness and serious mindedness.

Responses by the student teachers to the taped interviews indicated that the student teachers were impressed with the Italian family life. They found that a female can walk alone in the evenings in the major

cities of Europe without an escort. European cities were cleaner and more modern than the student teacher expected. The taped interviews indicated that the student teachers felt: Europeans were friendlier and more helpful than Americans would be to foreigners; that public demonstrations however spontaneous they appear, are well controlled and orderly; and that national leaders of European countries were able to appear in public without fear of bodily harm.

Some of the student teachers experienced anti-American feelings for the first time.

A majority of the student teachers assigned to overseas American schools indicated that: they would have enjoyed living with a host nation family, that the food of the host nation was wholesome and plentiful, and that Europeans view material things in life as not as important as Americans.

Most of the student teachers stressed that the most important item they gained from their overseas student teaching experience was that they became more flexible and open-minded as a result of their experience.

## Summary of Findings

This study had two purposes, to compare the effects of the presence of student teachers of Michigan State University assigned to overseas American schools with student teachers assigned to public schools in Michigan, and to identify and measure some of the changes in values and attitudes of the student teachers assigned to the

overseas American schools resulting from their opportunity to interact with people of different nationalities and segments of the American overseas community.

The data from the Student Teacher Questionnaire showed that:

1. There was no significant difference in effects of the presence of student teachers of Michigan State University assigned to overseas American schools and those assigned to public school classes in Michigan on the following instructional activities:

    a. the amount of small group or individual instruction provided to pupils in classrooms;
    b. the amount of instructional material covered by pupils;
    c. classroom discipline;
    d. motivation of pupils.

2. There was no significant difference in effects of the presence of student teachers of Michigan State University assigned to overseas American schools and those assigned to public school classes in Michigan on the following contributions to the school program:

    a. the amount and kinds of special duties including recess, yard, playground and hall assignments;

b. the amount and kinds of new or different instructional materials developed, provided or suggested by the student teachers;

c. the number of assigned hours taught per week.

3. There was no significant difference in the amount of time the supervising teacher was able to spend on professional duties between those assigned to supervise student teachers in the overseas American schools and those assigned to supervise student teachers in Michigan public school classes in the following areas:

a. visits to student teachers' classrooms;

b. committee work with other teachers and faculty;

c. research;

d. professional reading;

e. participation in student teaching seminars or in-service activities.

4. There was no significant difference in the amount of time the supervising teacher was able to spend on specific classroom activities between those assigned to supervise student teachers in the overseas American schools and those assigned to supervise student teachers in the public school classes in Michigan in the following areas:

a. lesson planning;

b. grading of pupils' papers;

c. teaching;

d. help to individual students.

5. There was a significant difference in the amount of time the supervising teachers and student teachers in the American overseas schools spent together from that spent by supervising teachers and student teachers in the public school classes in Michigan in the following areas:

a. the amount of time the student teacher spent in the physical presence of the supervising teacher during school hours;

b. the amount of time the student teacher spent in the physical presence of the supervising teacher outside of working hours.

The data obtained from the sociological questionnaire and from the taped interviews held with the student teachers assigned to overseas American schools revealed the following:

1. The student teachers perceived the host nationals to be more friendly, more serious minded, more traditional and more culturally minded than Americans.

2. The student teachers perceived Americans to be more sophisticated, more competitive and more industrious and more morally upright than host nationals.

3. The student teachers perceived European people to be more helpful and friendly to foreigners than Americans would probably be to foreigners in the United States.

4. Student teachers in Rome reported host nationals as more conservative and less well informed than Americans, while those in The Hague regarded the Dutch as less conservative and better informed than the Americans.

5. On serious mindedness and moral uprightness, more than half the student teachers collectively rated the Americans and host nationals as equal.

6. A great majority (83% Rome, 91% Holland) of the student teachers reported themselves as feeling different as a result of the overseas experience.

7. A great majority of the student teachers (75% Rome, 95% Holland) reported they were more aware of European affairs as a result of the overseas experience.

## Conclusions

1. The classroom student teaching experience appears to be not significantly different whether undertaken in a Michigan public school or in an overseas American school, however, there are some additional benefits due to the closer personal contacts with supervising teachers and to being immersed in another culture.

2. The overseas student teaching experience had a positive effect on the students in terms of understanding and appreciating their own and other cultures.

## Recommendations

1. Michigan State University should continue to send student teachers for assignment to the overseas American schools.

2. Every effort should be made to provide housing with host nation families for student teachers.

3. As much information as possible should be given to the student teachers prior to reassignment so they can adequately prepare for their overseas student teaching experience.

4. Student teachers should be alerted and avoid making value judgements on the basis of a relatively short overseas experience.

5. As the overseas student teaching program grows, former overseas trained teachers should be invited to formally share their experiences with those who will undertake overseas student teaching experiences.

6. The university should give special consideration to the qualifications and the role of the overseas student teaching coordinator whose responsibilities are much greater than those of a coordinator of a student teaching center in Michigan.

7. Each student teaching coordinator should keep and pass on complete reports regarding operations of the overseas center. This will enable future coordinators to improve the operations of the various overseas centers.

## Suggestions for Further Study

A number of interesting and valuable studies might be undertaken to verify or provide more data regarding various aspects of the overseas student teaching experience. Immediate attention should be given to undertaking the following studies:

1. A thorough study should be conducted in each overseas center to evaluate the center's operation and the value of the overseas student teaching experience in that country.

2. A way of measuring student attitudes before and after the overseas student teaching experience should be developed. This will enable researchers to determine the extent to which a student's attitudes, preconceived notions, values and life role are influenced by the overseas teaching experience.

3. A study should be undertaken to determine the relative value of the student teaching experience in an overseas school operated by the Department of Defense compared to similar student teaching experiences in an overseas privately operated American international school.

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# APPENDICES

# APPENDIX A

## STUDY OF STUDENT TEACHING IN MICHIGAN

This study is being conducted at the request of the Council of State College Presidents for the purpose of analyzing the effect of student teaching programs on the schools of Michigan. The study is being conducted by all the teacher preparation institutions in Michigan and will involve all student teachers, supervising teachers, and building principals working with student teachers during the fall quarter or semester of 1969.

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## DIRECTIONS TO RESPONDENTS

1. Use the IBM answer sheet provided. The pre-coding in the upper right block in the answer sheet identifies the teacher education institution and the instrument number for purposes of statistical analysis. There will be no way for your specific answer sheet to be identified once you turn it in. The responses will be machine scored and tabulated on Michigan State University equipment. Since your responses will be combined with those from other institutions it is essential that all respondents use the same procedure.

2. Use the scoring pencil provided and mark the spaces to indicate your answer to each item. Blacken the space completely. Be careful not to put any other marks on the answer sheet.

3. Mark no more than one answer for each item. Please answer every item unless instructed otherwise on the instrument.

4. In the instrument "University" means either "college" or "university" as appropriate. "Supervising teacher" also means "cooperating teacher," "sponsoring teacher," or "critic teacher." Student teacher also means "associate teacher."

# STUDENT TEACHING IN MICHIGAN

## Student Teacher Questionnaire

1. Which of the following are you now?

   1. A single student teacher
   2. A married student teacher
   3. A supervising (cooperating, sponsoring) teacher
   4. A supervising teacher but with a part-time administrative assignment in addition to teaching
   5. A school administrator

2. What is your sex?

   1. Male
   2. Female

3. Which statement below best describes the community in which you are doing student teaching?

   1. Large central city (e.g., Detroit, Grand Rapids)
   2. Large suburban community (e.g., Livonia, Flint Carmen)
   3. Small suburban community (e.g., Okemos, Essexville)
   4. Medium sized city (e.g., Battle Creek, Kalamazoo)
   5. Small city or rural area (e.g., Niles, Ithaca)

4. What was your status as a student in your college or university when you began this student teaching assignment (contact)?

   1. Had junior standing
   2. Had senior standing
   3. Had the BA or BS degree

5. What is your all-college grade point average?
   (Scale: A=4, B=3, C=2, D=1, F=0)

   1. Below 2.0
   2. 2.0 – 2.5
   3. 2.5 – 3.0
   4. 3.0 – 3.5
   5. Above 3.5

6. How old were you at the beginning of this student teaching assignment (contact)?

   1. 21 years or under
   2. 21 to 21½ years
   3. 21½ to 22 years
   4. 22 to 23 years
   5. Over 23 years

7. How many times have you student taught including the current assignment (contact)?

   1. One
   2. Two
   3. Three

8. In this assignment (contact), how much time were you scheduled in student teaching?

   1. Full-time
   2. Full-time except was also enrolled in a non-student teaching credit course
   3. Half-days
   4. Less than half-days

17. To what extent did conferring with you take time of the teacher so he had less time for individual work with pupils?

1. Frequently
2. Sometimes
3. Seldom
4. Never
5. Don't know

18. To what extent did planning with you take the time of the teacher so he had less time for individual work with pupils?

1. Frequently
2. Sometimes
3. Seldom
4. Never
5. Don't know

19. To what extent was re-teaching necessary after you taught?

1. Frequently
2. Sometimes
3. Seldom
4. Never
5. Don't know

**QUESTIONS 20 THROUGH 28**

To what extent were any of the following instructional activities for the pupils in your supervising teachers assigned classes changed because of your presence?

20. Amount of small group instruction.

1. Much more
2. Somewhat more
3. No change
4. Somewhat less
5. Much less
6. Don't know

21. Provision for make-up work.

1. Much greater
2. Somewhat greater
3. No change
4. Somewhat less
5. Much less
6. Don't know

22. Follow-up of exams.

1. Much better
2. Somewhat better
3. No change
4. Somewhat poorer
5. Much poorer
6. Don't know

23. Individual attention to, or tutoring of, pupils.

1. Much more
2. Somewhat more
3. No change
4. Somewhat less
5. Much less
6. Don't know

24. Supervision of study periods.

1. Much better
2. Somewhat better
3. No change
4. Somewhat poorer
5. Much poorer
6. Does not apply
7. Don't know

9. In this assignment (contact), how were you placed?

1. With a single supervising teacher
2. In a team-teaching situation (two or more team members)
3. With two or three different teachers (but not team-teaching)
4. In a flexible cluster arrangement
5. In a campus laboratory school
6. In a special program or project different from any of the above

10. How many weeks long is your current assignment (contact)?

1. 5 weeks or less
2. 6 or 7 weeks
3. 8 or 9 weeks
4. 10 or 11 weeks
5. 12 to 14 weeks
6. More than 14 weeks

11. What is your primary current student teaching assignment (contact)?

1. Grades K, 1, 2
2. Grades 3, 4
3. Grades 5, 6
4. All elementary grades
5. Middle School
6. Junior High School
7. Senior High School
8. All grades K - 12

12. To what subject area or teaching field were you primarily assigned for student teaching (check one answer only from item 12 and 13)

1. All elementary subjects (K-5 or K-6)
2. Art
3. Business Education
4. English
5. Elementary departmental or block program
6. Elementary ungraded program
7. Foreign language
8. Home Economics
9. Mathematics
10. Music

13.

1. Physical Education (Elementary)
2. Physical Education (Secondary)
3. Science (Biology, Chemistry, Physics)
4. Science (General, Natural, Earth)
5. Social Studies (including History)
6. Social Science – English combination
7. Special Education
8. Speech
9. Vocational or Industrial Arts Education
10. Other

QUESTIONS 14 THROUGH 18 deal with any changes in individualized instruction provided for the pupils which may have resulted from your presence.

14. To what extent did **you** work with (e.g., instruct, counsel, tutor) individual pupils?

1. A great deal
2. To some extent
3. A little bit
4. Not at all

15. To what extent did **your supervising teacher** work with individual pupils as compared to when he does not have a student teacher?

1. Much more than usual
2. Somewhat more than usual
3. About the same as usual
4. Somewhat less than usual
5. Much less than usual
6. Don't know

16. To what extent was individual help or counseling provided the pupils during non-class hours as compared to what would have been possible if you had not been present?

1. Much more than usual
2. Somewhat more than usual
3. About the same as usual
4. Somewhat less than usual
5. Much less than usual
6. Don't know

25. Supervision of playgrounds, hallways, etc.

1. Much better
2. Somewhat better
3. No change
4. Somewhat poorer
5. Much poorer
6. Does not apply
7. Don't know

26. Amount of material covered.

1. Much more
2. Somewhat more
3. No change
4. Somewhat less
5. Much less
6. Don't know

27. Discipline.

1. Much better
2. Somewhat better
3. No change
4. Somewhat poorer
5. Much poorer
6. Don't know

28. Motivation of pupils.

1. Much better
2. Somewhat better
3. No change
4. Somewhat poorer
5. Much poorer
6. Don't know

QUESTIONS 29 THROUGH 33 deal with the contributions you may have made to the school program. Did you make any specific contributions to the school, pupils, or teachers, such as:

29. Supervise youth groups in meetings, programs, trips, tours, etc.?

1. Often
2. Sometimes
3. No

30. Give talks to parent's group?

1. Often
2. Sometimes
3. No

31. Perform recess, lunch, gymnasium, playground, or hall duty?

1. Often
2. Sometimes
3. No

32. Did you bring, develop, provide, or suggest any new or different instructional materials?

1. A great many
2. Some
3. No
4. I am not sure

33. Did you suggest or provide any other kinds of aid or ideas?

1. A great many
2. Some
3. No
4. I am not sure

34. How do you feel your contributions (32 and 33) were received?

1. They were used
2. They were not used
3. I was discouraged from making such contributions
4. I really did not have much to offer

35. How many hours per week on the average did you teach your supervising teacher's assigned classes?

1. Less than an hour a week
2. One to five hours per week
3. Six to ten hours per week
4. Eleven to fifteen hours per week
5. Sixteen to twenty hours per week
6. More than twenty hours per week

36. How many hours per week on the average was your supervising teacher able to be away from the classroom while you were teaching his assigned classes?

1. Less than 1
2. 1 – 5
3. 6 – 10
4. 11 – 15
5. 16 – 20
6. More than 20

**QUESTION 37 THROUGH 44**

To what extent did your supervising teacher engage in any of the following additional activities during the time you were teaching his assigned classes?

37. Visitation in other classrooms or schools.

1. A great deal
2. To some extent
3. Not at all
4. Don't know

38. Committee work in the school with pupils and/or staff.

1. A great deal
2. To some extent
3. Not at all
4. Don't know

39. Research.

1. A great deal
2. To some extent
3. Not at all
4. Don't know

40. Professional reading or writing.

1. A great deal
2. To some extent
3. Not at all
4. Don't know

41. Work with staff of school or department.

1. A great deal
2. To some extent
3. Not at all
4. Don't know

42. Participating in supervising teacher seminars or other in-service activities dealing with student teaching.

1. A great deal
2. To some extent
3. Not at all
4. Don't know

43. Assisting the principal or other teachers.

1. A great deal
2. To some extent
3. Not at all
4. Don't know

44. Social or recreational activities.

1. A great deal
2. To some extent
3. Not at all
4. Don't know

**QUESTION 45 THROUGH 49**

To what extent did you relieve other regular staff members who did not have student teachers of the following activities?

45. Teaching.

1. Many times
2. Once or a few times
3. Not at all

46. Chaperoning.

1. Many times 2. Once or a few times 3. Not at all

47. Supervision of lunch duty.

1. Many times 2. Once or a few times 3. Not at all

48. Supervision of study hall.

1. Many times 2. Once or a few times 3. Not at all

49. Supervision of playground.

1. Many times 2. Once or a few times 3. Not at all

**QUESTION 50 THROUGH 53**

To what extent were other staff members able to engage in any of the following activities because of your presence in the building?

50. Visitation in other classrooms or schools.

1. Many times
2. To some extent
3. Not at all
4. Don't know

51. Committee work in the school.

1. A great deal
2. To some extent
3. Not at all
4. Don't know

52. Research.

1. A great deal
2. To some extent
3. Not at all
4. Don't know

53. Professional reading or writing.

1. A great deal
2. To some extent
3. Not at all
4. Don't know

54. How many hours per week on the average do you estimate you spent in the physical presence (close enough to see or talk with) of your supervising teacher?

1. Less than 10
2. 10 to 15
3. 16 to 20
4. 21 to 25
5. 26 to 30
6. 31 to 35
7. 36 to 40
8. More than 40

55. How did your presence as a student teacher affect the average number of hours per week your supervising teacher spent at school as compared to when he does not have a student teacher?

1. Added more than six hours per week.
2. Added three to six hours per week.
3. Added one to three hours per week.
4. Added up to one hour per week.
5. Had no effect.
6. Reduced by up to one hour per week.
7. Reduced by one to three hours per week.
8. Reduced by three to six hours per week.
9. Reduced by more than six hours per week.
10. I am unable to judge.

56. How did your presence affect the average number of hours per week your supervising teacher worked on job related activities away from school?

1. Added more than six hours per week.
2. Added three to six hours per week.
3. Added one to three hours per week.
4. Added up to one hour per week.
5. Had no effect.
6. Reduced by up to one hour per week.
7. Reduced by one to three hours per week.
8. Reduced by three to six hours per week.
9. Reduced by more than six hours per week.
10. I am unable to judge.

**QUESTION 57 THROUGH 60**

To what extent was the time your supervising teacher spent on the following activities changed because of your presence?

57. Teaching

1. Increased a great deal
2. Increased to some extent
3. Remained about the same
4. Reduced to some extent
5. Reduced a great deal
6. Don't know

58. Lesson Planning

1. Increased a great deal
2. Increased to some extent
3. Remained about the same
4. Reduced to some extent
5. Reduced a great deal
6. Don't know

59. Paper grading

1. Increased a great deal
2. Increased to some extent
3. Remained about the same
4. Reduced to some extent
5. Reduced a great deal
6. Don't know

60. Help to individual students

1. Increased a great deal
2. Increased to some extent
3. Remained about the same
4. Reduced to some extent
5. Reduced a great deal
6. Don't know

**QUESTION 61 THROUGH 68**

To what extent did your supervising teacher engage in the following activities because of your presence?

61. Planning with you

1. A great many extra hours
2. Some extra hours
3. No extra hours

62. Evaluating your progress and activities

1. A great many extra hours
2. Some extra hours
3. No extra hours

63. Holding casual and/or personal conversations not really a part of student teaching.

1. A great many extra hours
2. Some extra hours
3. No extra hours

64. Fulfilling social obligations resulting from your presence

1. A great many extra hours
2. Some extra hours
3. No extra hours
4. Don't know

65. Finding housing for you

1. A great many extra hours
2. Some extra hours
3. No extra hours
4. Don't know

66. Preparing additional reports

1. A great many extra hours
2. Some extra hours
3. No extra hours
4. Don't know

67. Making additional preparations for teaching

1. A great many extra hours
2. Some extra hours
3. No extra hours
4. Don't know

68. Holding telephone conversations or other conferences with you

1. A great many extra hours
2. Some extra hours
3. No extra hours
4. Don't know

69. How many times per week on the average did you have contact with your supervising teacher outside of regular working hours at school? (Telephone, conferences, social engagements, etc.)

1. Less than one
2. One to three
3. Four to six
4. Seven to nine
5. Ten or more

70. How many days during student teaching did you handle classes for your supervising teacher while he was away for reasons other than student teaching business (professional work, request of principal or other people, personal or private affairs outside of school) in which a substitute teacher would have had to be hired if you had not been there?

1. None
2. Less than one
3. One to three
4. Four to seven
5. Eight to ten
6. More than ten

71. During student teaching how many days did you handle classes for any teacher(s) other than your supervising teacher, while that teacher was away from class?

1. None
2. One or less
3. Two to four
4. Five to seven
5. Eight to ten
6. More than ten

72. How many hours do you estimate you spent doing volunteer work in the community where you were assigned for student teaching (youth groups, home service, church work and the like) during your student teaching period?

1. None at all
2. One to five hours
3. Six to fifteen hours
4. Sixteen to thirty hours
5. More than thirty hours

73. What effect do you feel working with student teachers has had on the performance of your supervising teacher?

1. Has made him a much more effective teacher
2. Has made him a more effective teacher
3. Has had no effect on his teaching
4. Has made him a less effective teacher
5. Has made him a much less effective teacher
6. I am unable to judge

74. What do you think should be the attitude of the administration and teachers in the school to which you were assigned about working with student teachers?

1. Should aggressively seek student teachers
2. Should seek student teachers
3. Should accept student teachers if asked
4. Should resist having student teachers in the school
5. Should refuse to have student teachers in the school
6. I am unable to judge

75. What recommendation would you give your friends about accepting a student teaching assignment in the same school with the same supervising teacher (or in the same project)?

1. Accept with enthusiasm
2. Accept
3. Be neutral
4. Try for a different assignment
5. Reject the assignment

76. How many times has the university coordinator or supervisor of student teaching been in your school during your student teaching contact?

1. Not at all
2. 1 to 2 times
3. 3 to 4 times
4. 5 to 6 times
5. 7 to 8 times
6. 9 to 10 times
7. 11 to 12 times
8. 13 to 15 times
9. 16 times or more

77. How much help has the university coordinator (supervisor) provided you?

1. All the help I felt was necessary
2. Most of the help I felt was needed
3. Some of the help I felt I needed
4. Little of the help I felt was needed
5. No help at all

78. To what extent have your supervising teacher and/or other school personnel been helpful to you on matters not directly concerned with student teaching?

1. They have gone out of their way to be helpful
2. They have helped when asked
3. They have not helped
4. No such help was needed

79. Would you accept a teaching position if offered for next year in the building or system in which you did your student teaching?

1. Yes
2. No, because I intend to go to graduate school
3. No, because I plan to live in another geographic area
4. No, for personal reasons
5. No, for professional reasons
6. No, because I have decided not to teach

80 Why were you assigned to this particular student teaching station?

1. I requested this school or area.
2. I requested this kind of program or project.
3. I had no particular preference and was placed in this assignment by my college or university.
4. I really preferred a different assignment but was placed in this one by my college or university.
5. I was required to accept this assignment even though I expressed a strong preference for a different one.

# APPENDIX B

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This study is being conducted at the request of the Council of State College Presidents for the purpose of analyzing the effect of student teaching programs on the schools of Michigan. The study is being conducted by all the teacher preparation institutions in Michigan and will involve all student teachers, supervising teachers, and building principals working with student teachers during the fall quarter or semester of 1969.

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# STUDENT TEACHING IN MICHIGAN

## Teacher Questionnaire

1. Which of the following are you now?

   1. A single student teacher
   2. A married student teacher
   3. A supervising (cooperating, sponsoring) teacher
   4. A supervising teacher but with a part-time administrative assignment in addition to teaching
   5. A school administrator

2. What is your sex?

   1. Male
   2. Female

3. Which statement below best describes the community in which you teach?

   1. Large central city (e.g., Detroit, Grand Rapids)
   2. Large suburban community (e.g., Livonia, Flint Carmen)
   3. Small suburban community (e.g., Okemos, Essexville)
   4. Medium sized city (e.g., Battle Creek, Kalamazoo)
   5. Small city or rural area (e.g., Niles, Ithaca)

4. How many years of teaching have you completed including this year?

   1. Three or less years
   2. Four to seven years
   3. Eight to twelve years
   4. More than twelve years

5. How many different colleges or universities have been represented by the student teachers with whom you have worked?

   1. Only one
   2. Two
   3. Three
   4. Four to six
   5. More than six

6. With how many student teachers have you worked in the last 5 years? (Include your current student teacher)

   1. One
   2. Two
   3. Three
   4. Four
   5. Five
   6. Six to ten
   7. More than ten

7. How well do you feel your present student teacher was prepared to enter student teaching?

   1. Extremely well prepared
   2. Well prepared
   3. Adequately prepared
   4. Minimally prepared
   5. Inadequately prepared

8. In this assignment (contact), how was your student teacher scheduled in student teaching?

   1. Full-time
   2. Full-time except he was also enrolled in a non-student teaching credit course
   3. Half-days
   4. Less than half-days

9. In this assignment (contact) how was your student teacher placed?

1. With you as the single supervising teacher.
2. In a team-teaching situation (two or more team members).
3. With two or three different teachers (but not team-teaching).
4. In a flexible cluster arrangement.
5. In a campus laboratory school.
6. In a special program or project different from any of the above.

10. How many weeks is your student teacher scheduled in this assignment (contact)?

1. 5 weeks or less
2. 6 or 7 weeks
3. 8 or 9 weeks
4. 10 or 11 weeks
5. 12 to 14 weeks
6. More than 14 weeks

11. What is your own current teaching assignment?

1. Grades K, 1, 2
2. Grades 3, 4
3. Grades 5, 6
4. All elementary grades
5. Middle School
6. Junior High School
7. Senior High School
8. All grades K - 12

12. To what subject area or teaching field are you primarily assigned? (Check one answer only from item 12 and 13.)

1. All elementary subjects K-5 or K-6
2. Art
3. Business Education
4. English
5. Elementary departmental or block program
6. Elementary ungraded program
7. Foreign Language
8. Home Economics
9. Mathematics
10. Music

13.

1. Physical Education (Elementary)
2. Physical Education (Secondary)
3. Science (Biology, Chemistry, Physics)
4. Science (General, Natural, Earth)
5. Social Studies (including History)
6. Social Science – English combination
7. Special Education
8. Speech
9. Vocational or Industrial Arts Education
10. Other

QUESTIONS 14 THROUGH 18 deal with any changes in individualized instruction for the pupils which may have resulted from your student teacher's presence.

14. To what extent did your **student teacher** work with (instruct, counsel, tutor) individual pupils?

1. A great deal
2. To some extent
3. A little bit
4. Not at all

15. To what extent did **you** work with individual pupils as compared to when you do not have a student teacher?

1. Much more than usual
2. Somewhat more than usual
3. About the same as usual
4. Somewhat less than usual
5. Much less than usual

16. To what extent was individual help or counseling provided your pupils during non-class hours as compared to what would have been possible if you had not had a student teacher?

1. Much more than usual
2. Somewhat more than usual
3. About the same as usual
4. Somewhat less than usual
5. Much less than usual

17. To what extent did conferring with your student teacher take your time so you had less time for individual work with pupils?

1. Frequently
2. Sometimes
3. Seldom
4. Never

18. To what extent did planning with your student teacher take your time so that you had less time for individual work with pupils?

1. Frequently
2. Sometimes
3. Seldom
4. Never

19. To what extent was re-teaching necessary after the student teacher taught?

1. Frequently
2. Sometimes
3. Seldom
4. Never

**QUESTION 20 THROUGH 28**

To what extent were any of the following instructional activities for your pupils changed because of your student teacher's presence?

20. Amount of small group instruction.

1. Much more
2. Somewhat more
3. No change
4. Somewhat less
5. Much less

21. Provision for make-up work

1. Much greater
2. Somewhat greater
3. No change
4. Somewhat less
5. Much less

22. Follow-up of exams

1. Much better
2. Somewhat better
3. No change
4. Somewhat poorer
5. Much poorer

23. Individual attention to, or tutoring of, pupils

1. Much more
2. Somewhat more
3. No change
4. Somewhat less
5. Much less

24. Supervision of study periods

1. Much better
2. Somewhat better
3. No change
4. Somewhat poorer
5. Much poorer
6. Does not apply

25. Supervision of playgrounds, hallways, etc.

1. Much better
2. Somewhat better
3. No change
4. Somewhat poorer
5. Much poorer
6. Does not apply

26. Amount of material covered

1. Much more
2. Somewhat more
3. No change
4. Somewhat less
5. Much less

27. Discipline

1. Much better
2. Somewhat better
3. No change
4. Somewhat poorer
5. Much poorer

28. Motivation of pupils

1. Much better
2. Somewhat better
3. No change
4. Somewhat poorer
5. Much poorer

QUESTIONS 29 THROUGH 31 deal with the contributions your student teacher may have made to the school program. Did your student teacher make any specific contributions to the school, pupils, or teachers, such as

29. Supervise youth groups in meetings, programs, trips, tours, etc.?

1. Often
2. Sometimes
3. No
4. Don't know

30. Give talk to parent's group?

1. Often
2. Sometimes
3. No
4. Don't know

31. Perform recess, lunch, gymnasium, playground or hall duty?

1. Often
2. Sometimes
3. No
4. Don't know

32. Did your student teacher bring, develop, provide, or suggest any new or different instructional materials?

1. A great many
2. Some
3. No

33. Did your student teacher suggest or provide any other kinds of aid or ideas?

1. A great many
2. Some
3. No

34. What use were you able to make of the contributions (32 & 33) of your student teacher?

1. I used them.
2. I did not use them.
3. I had to discourage him from contributing too freely.
4. My student teacher really did not have much to offer.

35. How many hours per week on the average did your student teacher teach your assigned classes?

1. Less than an hour a week.
2. One to five hours per week.
3. Six to ten hours per week.
4. Eleven to fifteen hours per week.
5. Sixteen to twenty hours per week.
6. More than twenty hours per week.

36. How many hours per week on the average were you able to be away from the classroom while your student teacher was teaching your assigned classes?

1. Less than one
2. 1 – 5
3. 6 – 10
4. 11 – 15
5. 16 – 20
6. More than 20

To what extent did you engage in any of the following additional activities during the time your student teacher was teaching?

37. Visitation in other classrooms or schools.

1. A great deal 2. To some extent 3. Not at all

38. Committee work in the school with pupils and/or staff.

1. A great deal 2. To some extent 3. Not at all

39. Research.

1. A great deal 2. To some extent 3. Not at all

40. Professional reading or writing

1. A great deal 2. To some extent 3. Not at all

41. Work with staff of school or department

1. A great deal 2. To some extent 3. Not at all

42. Participating in supervising teacher seminars or other in-service activities dealing with student teaching.

1. A great deal 2. To some extent 3. Not at all

43. Assisting the principal or other teachers

1. A great deal 2. To some extent 3. Not at all

44. Social or recreational activities

1. A great deal 2. To some extent 3. Not at all

**QUESTION 45 THROUGH 49**

To what extent did your student teacher relieve other regular staff members who did not have student teachers of the following activities?

45. Teaching

1. Many times
2. Once or a few times
3. Not at all
4. Don't know

46. Chaperoning

1. Many times
2. Once or a few times
3. Not at all
4. Don't know

47. Supervision of lunch duty

1. Many times
2. Once or a few times
3. Not at all
4. Don't know

48. Supervision of study hall

1. Many times
2. Once or a few times
3. Not at all
4. Don't know

49. Supervision of playground

1. Many times
2. Once or a few times
3. Not at all
4. Don't know

**QUESTION 50 THROUGH 53**

To what extent were other staff members able to engage in any of the following activities because of the presence of student teachers in the building?

50. Visitation in other classrooms or schools

1. Many times
2. To some extent
3. Not at all
4. Don't know

51. Committee work in the school

1. A great deal
2. To some extent
3. Not at all
4. Don't know

52. Research

1. A great deal
2. To some extent
3. Not at all
4. Don't know

53. Professional reading or writing

1. A great deal
2. To some extent
3. Not at all
4. Don't know

54. How many hours per week on the average do you estimate you spent in the physical presence (close enough to see or talk with) of your student teacher?

1. Less than 10
2. 10 to 15
3. 16 to 20
4. 21 to 25
5. 26 to 30
6. 31 to 35
7. 36 to 40
8. More than 40

55. How did the presence of a student teacher affect the average number of hours per week you spent at school as compared to when you do not have a student teacher?

1. Added more than six hours per week
2. Added three to six hours per week
3. Added one to three hours per week
4. Added up to one extra hour per week
5. Had no effect
6. Reduced by up to one hour per week
7. Reduced by one to three hours per week
8. Reduced by three to six hours per week
9. Reduced more than six hours per week

56. How did your student teacher's presence affect the average number of hours per week you worked on job-related activities away from school?

1. Added more than six hours per week
2. Added three to six hours per week
3. Added one to three hours per week
4. Added up to one hour per week
5. Had no effect
6. Reduced by up to one hour per week
7. Reduced by one to three hours per week
8. Reduced by three to six hours per week
9. Reduced more than six hours per week

**QUESTION 57 THROUGH 60**

To what extent was the time you spent on any of the following activities changed because of your student teacher's presence?

57. Teaching

1. Increased a great deal
2. Increased to some extent
3. Remained about the same
4. Reduced to some extent
5. Reduced a great deal

58. Lesson Planning

1. Increased a great deal
2. Increased to some extent
3. Remained about the same
4. Reduced to some extent
5. Reduced a great deal

59. Paper Grading

1. Increased a great deal
2. Increased to some extent
3. Remained about the same
4. Reduced to some extent
5. Reduced a great deal

60. Help to individual students

1. Increased a great deal
2. Increased to some extent
3. Remained about the same
4. Reduced to some extent
5. Reduced a great deal

**QUESTION 61 THROUGH 69**

To what extent did you engage in the following activities because of the presence of the student teacher?

61. Planning with or for your student teacher

1. A great many extra hours
2. Some extra hours
3. No extra hours

62. Evaluating your student teacher's progress or activities

1. A great many extra hours
2. Some extra hours
3. No extra hours

63. Holding casual and/or personal conversations not really a part of student teaching.

1. A great many extra hours
2. Some extra hours
3. No extra hours

64. Fulfilling the social obligations resulting from your student teacher's presence.

1. A great many extra hours
2. Some extra hours
3. No extra hours

65. Finding housing for your student teacher.

1. A great many extra hours
2. Some extra hours
3. No extra hours

66. Preparing additional reports.

1. A great many extra hours
2. Some extra hours
3. No extra hours

67. Making additional preparation for teaching.

1. A great many extra hours
2. Some extra hours
3. No extra hours

68. Holding telephone conversations or other conferences with your student teacher.

1. A great many extra hours
2. Some extra hours
3. No extra hours

69. How many times per week on the average did you have contact with your student teacher outside of regular working hours at school? (Telephone, conferences, social engagements, etc.)

1. Less than one
2. One to three
3. Four to six
4. Seven to nine
5. Ten or more

70. How many days during student teaching did your student teacher handle classes for you while you were away for reasons other than student teaching business (professional work, request of principal or other people, personal or private affairs outside of school) in which a substitute would have had to be hired if the student teacher had not been there?

1. None
2. Less than one
3. One to three
4. Four to seven
5. Eight to ten
6. More than ten

71. During student teaching how many days did your student teacher handle classes for any teacher other than yourself while that teacher was away from his class?

1. None
2. One or less
3. Two to four
4. Five to seven
5. Eight to ten
6. More than ten

72. How many hours do you estimate your student teacher spent doing volunteer work in the community where he was assigned for student teaching (youth groups, home service, church work and the like) during his student teaching period?

1. None at all
2. One to five hours
3. Six to fifteen hours
4. Sixteen to thirty hours
5. More than thirty hours

73. What effect do you feel working with student teachers has had on your own teaching performance?

1. Has made me a much more effective teacher
2. Has made me a more effective teacher
3. Has had no effect on my teaching
4. Has made me a less effective teacher
5. Has made me a much less effective teacher

74. What do you think should be the attitude of the administrators and teachers in your school about working with student teachers?

1. Should aggressively seek student teachers
2. Should seek student teachers
3. Should accept student teachers
4. Should resist having student teachers in the school
5. Should refuse to have student teachers in the school

75. If you were starting over, would you accept another student teacher with similar credentials from the same institution under the same general circumstances?

1. I would accept with enthusiasm
2. I would accept
3. I feel neutral about it
4. I would probably decline
5. I would refuse

76. How many times has the university coordinator or supervisor of student teaching been in your school during this student teaching contact?

1. Not at all
2. One to two times
3. Three to four times
4. Five to six times
5. Seven to eight times
6. Nine to ten times
7. Eleven to twelve times
8. Thirteen to fifteen times
9. Sixteen or more times

77. How much help has the university coordinator (supervisor) provided you?

1. All the help I felt was necessary
2. Most of the help I felt was needed
3. Some of the help I felt I needed
4. Little of the help I felt was needed.
5. No help at all

78. Has the university coordinator been helpful to you with any matters not directly concerned with student teaching?

1. He has gone out of his way to be helpful
2. He has helped when asked
3. He has not helped
4. No such help was needed

79. Would you want your student to teach in your building or system next year?

1. Yes
2. No, but would recommend him in a different system or building
3. No

80. Why was this student teacher assigned to you?

1. I volunteered since I feel a professional obligation to help prepare future teachers.
2. I volunteered but only because I felt pressure from an administrator to do so.
3. I volunteered because I thought a student teacher would be helpful to me in performing my school duties.
4. I did not volunteer but was requested by an administrator to take the student teacher.
5. I was forced to work with the student teacher against my will.

# APPENDIX C

# SOCIOLOGICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

NAME _____ SUBJECT/GRADE _____
(Last) (First) (MI)

DIRECTIONS TO RESPONDENTS

1. Circle the most appropriate response number on the attached sheets.

2. Mark no more than one answer for each item. Please answer every item on the instrument.

3. Place this and the IBM answer sheet in the green Student Teacher Questionnaire booklet.

STUDENT TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

81. To what degree do you find yourself responding directly toward people of different nationalities than before you were overseas?

1. Increased a great extent
2. Increased to some extent
3. Remained about the same
4. Reduced to some extent

82. To what extent would your reaction to foreigners visiting the U. S. be any different since your travel and assignment overseas?

1. Increased a great extent
2. Increased to some extent
3. Remained about the same
4. Reduced to some extent

83. How do you feel about being an American overseas?

1. A great deal different
2. To some extent different
3. No different

84. Do you feel any different as a result of your overseas experience?

1. A great deal different
2. To some extent different
3. No different

85. Do you feel"at home" in this foreign environment?

1. To a great extent
2. To some extent
3. Not at all

86. Are you interested in returning overseas:

1. For employment in this school?
2. For employment overseas in another area?
3. For vacation?
4. Not at all.

87. I think I will find it easier to talk about different topics with people who have had overseas experience than with those who have not.

1. Agree
2. Uncertain
3. Disagree

88. I feel as comfortable with foreigners as I am with my fellow countrymen.

1. Agree
2. Uncertain
3. Disagree

89. I have more positive feelings about being an American when I am overseas than when I am in the U. S.

1. Agree
2. Uncertain
3. Disagree

90. I am more aware of being an American when I am overseas than when I am in the U. S.

1. Agree 2. Uncertain 3. Disagree

91. I feel I can trust most foreigners I meet in their home country.

1. Agree 2. Uncertain 3. Disagree

92. Most people have false ideas about what it is like to live overseas.

1. Agree 2. Uncertain 3. Disagree

93. I attempt to keep up on affairs in the country (countries) in which I live or travel overseas.

1. To a great extent 2. To a limited extent 3. Not at all

94. I am more aware of European affairs since my assignment overseas.

1. To a great extent 2. To a limited extent 3. Not at all

95. Since coming overseas my interest has changed favorably toward operas, concerts, museums, etc.

1. To a great extent 2. To a limited extent 3. Not at all

96. I am learning more about this host nation from my presence here than I could from books or lectures in the U. S.

1. To a great extent 2. To a limited extent 3. Not at all

97. Did you date host nationals or foreigners while overseas?

1. To a great extent 2. To a limited extent 3. Not at all

98. Other than on dates, do you generally pursue leisure time and recreational activities of the host nation?

1. To a great extent 2. To a limited extent 3. Not at all

Compare the host nationals and Europeans you met overseas with Americans on the characteristics listed below. In every group there are exceptions, but in general, which group shows more of the characteristic indicated?

Circle "HN" for Host Nationals and Europeans, "A" for Americans and "S" for about the same.

In general, which groups would you say were:

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 99. | Friendlier..... | HN | A | S |
| 100. | More sophisticated..... | HN | A | S |
| 101. | More morally upright..... | HN | A | S |
| 102. | Better informed..... | HN | A | S |
| 103. | More conservative..... | HN | A | S |
| 104. | More serious-minded..... | HN | A | S |
| 105. | More culturally minded..... | HN | A | S |
| 106. | More traditional..... | HN | A | S |
| 107. | More industrious..... | HN | A | S |
| 108. | More competitive..... | HN | A | S |

The following questions are concerned with how you intend to keep in touch with people you meet when you are overseas. Please do not put down any names, but indicate their position or relationship to you. You may not have any to list. If so, check in indicated space.

109. List any host nationals or Europeans you met overseas and plan to correspond with or keep in contact with (position or relationship to you only).

_____ do not plan to keep in touch with any Europeans upon leaving.

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

# APPENDIX D

## QUESTIONS USED FOR TAPED INTERVIEWS WITH MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY OVERSEAS STUDENT TEACHERS

QUESTIONS USED FOR TAPED INTERVIEWS

WITH MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

OVERSEAS STUDENT TEACHERS

1. What shocked you most upon your arrival in Rome or at the Hague?
2. Did you feel lost in this large foreign city? How do you feel now? Why?
3. What are the greatest cultural differences between the Italians, (Dutch) and the Americans? What do they do? What do they believe?
4. Did you get to know any Italian (Dutch) people? Are they different from Americans?
5. What did you find different about other Europeans?
6. Did you have any experiences either in Rome (Holland) or traveling which changed your opinion of the people or their culture?
7. How are you different as a result of your European experiences?
8. Describe your living quarters, was it adequate? Did you live with a family? Hotel? Pensione? Apartment?
9. What have you learned about your presence here about the government, politics, conditions in general that you couldn't have learned in the United States?
10. What are the advantages in student teaching overseas?