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An Examination of Educators' Perceptions of Host Country Cultural Dynamics in International Schools Abroad

Sharlene M. Fedorowicz
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An Examination of Educators' Perceptions of Host Country Cultural Dynamics in
International Schools Abroad

A Dissertation Presented

By

Sharlene M. Fedorowicz

Submitted to the Graduate School of Education

Lesley University

in partial fulfillment of the requirements

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Ph.D. Educational Studies
Educational Leadership Specialization

An Examination of Educators' Perceptions of Host Country Cultural Dynamics in
International Schools Abroad

Sharlene M. Fedorowicz

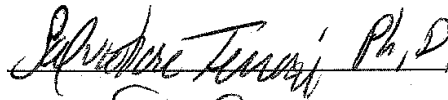
Graduate School of Education
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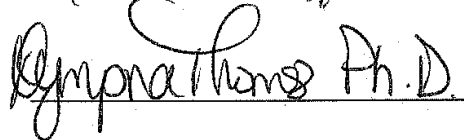
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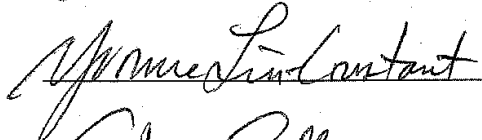
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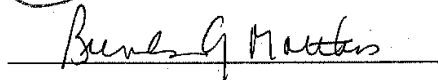
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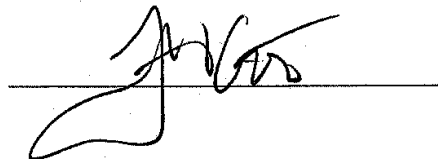
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Abstract

This research examines dynamics and challenges of relationships between international schools (IS) and host country cultures as perceived by educators. Cultural impacts that influence the capacity of educators to manage, lead, and navigate IS are investigated. A sample of 133 educators (administrators and teachers) employed in IS responded to the survey and 13 of those participants were interviewed using a Mixed Method Sequential Explanatory Design (Creswell, 2009). IS promote *international-mindedness* where adverse contact zones are minimized by providing opportunities for students of different races, genders, and nationalities to integrate and work together. Although IS provide a strong basis for cultural diversity and tolerance, this study found that lower socioeconomic status children were not included within the international-mindedness spectrum as many poorer students do not attend IS. Attending IS provide a competitive pathway for students to attend universities overseas. Gender inequality related to access to and quality of education was not a factor at IS. This research also found that teachers generally do not adapt to teaching styles of the host country culture and therefore employ a student-centered learning model engaging students from multiple countries. Further, the status of the diplomatic relationship between nations, rather than cultural differences between two countries strongly influenced the ability of an IS to obtain work visas for potential employees. This research is significant because it provides implications for practitioners and illuminates models used by IS to successfully integrate cultures, races, and religions, as well as explore areas needed for further study.

Keywords: International schools, American international schools, international-mindedness, global mindedness, socioeconomic status, gender, race, religion, culture, diversity, social justice, diplomatic relationships, universities, curriculum, teaching styles, parental

expectations, NEASC, ELL, English Language Learners, professional development, ethical international-mindedness, international elite-mindedness, economic

DEDICATION

With love to Mike, my family, Wizzar, Rogue, Rusty, Tweedy, Iggy, Pippin, Brutus, Sally

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

In a global society where parents travel for work, children often accompany them to various countries abroad. Over the past few decades, corporations have downsized moving businesses overseas. As workforces move with these companies, expatriate parents traveling abroad for work want to preserve their own cultural identities by having their children attend schools that have similar qualities, ideologies, and values as their own country and culture. An expatriate or expat is a person living outside of their native or home country. For instance, US parents may want to retain a “US identity” by having their children attend American International Schools abroad while they travel (Ketterer & Marsh, 2001, p. 3).

Many different types of international schools exist overseas. They range from American, United Kingdom, bilingual, religious, or country-specific international schools. For example, two types of American schools exist overseas which include the Department of Defense Dependent Schools (DoDDS) and schools assisted by the US Department of State Office of Overseas Schools (Ortloff, Warren, Escobar-Ortloff, & Marina, 2001). Unlike DoDDS that only enroll students from US military families, American International Schools or other international schools are truly multicultural because they enroll students from the US, host country, and third country cultures (Ortloff, et. al., 2001). Because cultural diversity is important, this study focuses on all non-military international schools including the US Department of State Office of Overseas Schools, but not DoDDS or other military schools.

Many families often only stay in each country for an average of two to three years (personal communications with head of schools during interviews). The lack of longevity in each country provides challenges for continuous and quality educational experiences for children. One

way to eliminate inconsistent education for these families is to send their children to international schools while traveling abroad from country to country because international schools provide a level of consistency in a foreign country, or a country or culture that is not familiar in the home or mother country. The home or mother country is the nation in which the international school was founded or affiliated. International schools were developed “as a way for expatriate, or foreign, workers to educate their children while following geographically mobile careers” (Bailey, 2015, p. 85). For instance, over 3 million students attend international schools around the world and that number is expected to grow exponentially over the next decade (Tan, 2012). Historically, international schools were created for foreign students to attend, but now many native host country parents also choose to send their own children to international schools (ISC Research, 2012).

However, within each country, different cultures have distinctive attitudes and ideologies associated with education. Educational philosophy is unique depending upon the nature of the culture and the country in which the educational system is established leading to disparities in academic performance. For example, distinct philosophies exist between Eastern and Western cultures. Eastern countries such as Japan, China, and South Korea view education from differing perspectives than Western countries such as the United States (US), Canada, and some European nations. Differences and successes have been established in nations due to historical implications in conjunction with current cultural attitudes. Eastern Asian cultures have been outperforming the US for decades and it may have to do with variations in the educational philosophy of the countries.

Although international schools have predominately been for transient families, more and more parents that are from the country in which the international school is located find these

schools attractive for their children, but not without controversy (Bailey, 2015). On one side, nationals, or host nation parents, are opting out of having their children attend local schools in exchange for attending international schools. One of the main draws for the host country students to attend international schools is to learn English (Ketterer & Marsh, 2001). Conversely, some nationals may rather have children attend local public schools because their own culture is preserved within the country (Bailey, 2015). Further, in international schools, students may be showing a decreased sense of cultural identity. Students attending international schools, whether a national or an expatriate student, are impacted by cultural differences.

Personal Interest Statement

I come from a small mid-west town strongly influenced by evangelistic religion and accepted underlays of gender inequality. Strong sociocultural forces frequently skewed thinking within my hometown and cultural diversity was scarce. The intense religious opinions, gender inequality, and confining perspectives encouraged me to pursue other cultures and religions and therefore, I began to travel to support my passion. The further and more remote the country and culture, the greater the adventure and the more fascinated I became.

Because of the nature of my passion, I pursued two Bachelor of Science degrees. One in Psychology and the other in Biology, followed by a Master of Science degree in Biology/Marine Biology. My degrees were my ticket to traveling the world, which took me to a variety of new countries where I could study and have adventures in different cultures. These trips became a springboard into my appreciating and learning diversity by launching my exposure into various cultures and religions. My first real exposure was living on the Pacific coast at the edge of a rainforest in 100 year old banana barracks in Central America where I conducted my research as a marine biologist. On the other latitudinal extreme, my father and I spent a couple of summers

exploring the Arctic tundra and wildlife by getting dropped off by bush plane to experience the extreme remote and uninhabited forests and mountains of Canada's Yukon Territory.

Years later I started a new career in teaching. I took professional development trips to South and Central America, such as Peru, Ecuador, Galapagos Islands, Costa Rica, and Panama to learn more about different cultures and what students were learning. I visited community schools and churches, both rich and poor, and stayed with indigenous families in the remote areas of the rainforest. I later became a member of the International NEASC (New England Association of Schools and Colleges) team which took me to Guatemala, Qatar in the Middle East, and Morocco.

In my travels, I witnessed the two sides of humanity. On one extreme, the compassion and altruistic nature of people providing access to education for orphans, restoring damaged environments, and working to educate, feed, and clothe the poorest of children. On the converse, I have witnessed the cruelty of extreme poverty, abhorrent working conditions, excessive subordination of women, and brutality to animals. While immersed in some of these cultures, I was not immune to the two sides of humanity. I participated in building schools, restoring devastated environments, and rescuing and caring for beached marine mammals and other animals. On the contrary, I have also personally experienced radical sexism, racism, and intense religion tensions while visiting various host cultures.

Not all countries are as diverse or practice autonomy as the United States (US) or other Western countries. For example, the US is particularly diverse and is comprised of a multitude of people from various races, genders, and religions. Citizens of the US pride themselves and their freedom because residents are guaranteed the basic freedoms such as speech and religion through the First Amendment. The First Amendment in the Constitution of the United States says that,

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances (US Constitution, Bill of Rights, 1776)

However, because the US is such a melting pot of diverse people, some religious or cultural practices may work against the First Amendment and try to limit individual freedoms within the country. Some cultural or religious organizations may attempt to limit the constitutional rights of each citizen. However, basic human constitutional rights trump these limitations. In fact in the United States (US), the pressure to uphold each citizen's freedom is so recognizably strong in societal and cultural norms that the US federal government initiated legislative and policy changes such as the Equal Pay Act in 1963, Title VII Civil Rights Act 1964 that prohibited sex discrimination by employers, and Title IX providing females access to higher education without discrimination based upon sex (Allan, 2011).

Not all citizens in every country experience individual freedoms or autonomy because of culture or religion. McConnell & Hurst (2006) propose that religion creates a type of cultural cohesion leading to insularity that limits outside knowledge entering the community or family eliminating diverse outside cultural awareness. According to the United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child in 1989, the rights to education should "overcome the boundaries of religion, nation, and culture across the world" (Hodgson, 2012, p. 12). Hodgson (2012) suggests that education should be a balance between reconciling values that are diverse through respect of differences and dialogue.

After being exposed to considerable cultural diversity in various countries, I am interested in understanding how diverse cultures and religious orientations influence education in

countries. Particularly in international schools overseas that adhere to their own mother country ideologies and values in a host country that may not practice democracy or other freedoms similar to their own. For the US Department of State, Office of Overseas Schools (2016), the purpose of American International Schools is to “increase mutual understanding between the people of the United States and the people of other countries by upgrading educational institutions which serve to demonstrate American educational principles and methods employed in the United States”. In other words, American cultural values will be at the center of American International Schools. Yet, these schools must integrate and assimilate the host country’s cultures and laws to be successful.

Statement of the Problem

Despite international schools providing cultural and ethnic exposures serving different nationalities, challenges in understanding various cultures still exist for students bouncing between locations (Murakami-Ramalho, 2008; Sears, 2011; U.S. Department of State, Office of Overseas Schools, 2016). Even in the US, many schools also consist of a diverse population of students and understanding cultural identity and diversity is usually inadequate, creating multi-ethnic divides (Murakami-Ramalho, 2008) and fostering cultural and economic inequalities in education (Giroux, 1995).

Regardless of demographic location, Fraser (2003) suggests that some ethnicities are privileged due to cultural background because society establishes constructs as to whether other people are considered inferior and are discriminated against by others. Therefore, according to Giroux (1995, p. 55) significance should be placed upon “negotiating and constructing the social, political, and cultural conditions for diverse cultural identities to flourish within an increasingly multi-centric, international, and transnational world”. Examining issues international schools

face related to the political, curricular, and educational leadership constructs may provide insights and ideas into how to actively manage cultural differences so that students are able to feasibly access education and learn tolerance within assimilated cultures.

The problems of this study address issues that American International Schools and International Schools face abroad when adhering to set home country ideologies and values. Specifically, to provide insight into the perceptions and issues American International Schools and International Schools educators must adapt to on foreign soil related to cultural norms and differences in host countries. A further problem of this study focuses on the similarities and differences in cultures and the impact on international school educators in their capacity to manage, lead, and navigate cultural aspects to provide a successful school and a quality education.

Purpose of the Study

As a doctoral student, my main interest is in exploring international education. I am interested in the synergies between cultural norms in connection with diversity, religion, gender, and access to education in foreign countries. Having experienced constraints in other countries myself, I want to explore and understand how international schools overseas adapt to host country cultures.

For this study, I am most interested in learning how cultural norms in various countries shape education. I am interested to know how international schools, specifically American International Schools and International Schools affiliated with other countries incorporate host country cultures into these schools and curriculum. Since culture is shaped by various internal and external forces and norms, demographic differences such as nationality, gender, religion, and ethnicity all contribute to diversity (Allan, 2011; Hopcroft, 2009; Neff, Cooper, & Woodruff,

2007). Different countries have distinctive levels of diversity within their nation. Some countries are accepting of other nationalities and religious orientations, and some are not. Some countries practice democracy and individuality where others are more authoritarian.

For the purpose of this study, *international schools* include both American International Schools (AIS) and International Schools (IS), unless otherwise noted, located in a country other than the founding *home* or *mother* country territory in which they are affiliated. For example, an AIS located in a country outside the continental US but is still associated with the home country of America. These international schools still must adhere to home country tax laws, policies, etcetera from which they are affiliated. On the converse, *host country* (HC) or *host country culture* (HCC) identifies another country and culture in which an international school is housed outside of their founding or affiliated home or mother country.

The purpose of this study is to examine the dynamics and issues of relationships between international schools and host country cultures as perceived by educators in international schools. This study will examine how dynamics impact and influence the capacity of educators to manage, lead, and navigate the cultures in the school. By asking educators to share their perceptions and experiences in the enhancements and issues of working at an international school in a host country, this study plans to illuminate the intrinsic and extrinsic factors that contribute to working overseas. Through this mixed methods study, country and cultural differences will provide information on what techniques and strategies educators in international schools employ to be successful, which has implications for practitioners.

Guiding Research Questions

Guiding research questions help to focus and steer the research project. This study contains three guiding research questions. The first research question concentrates on what

international educators report to be the role the host country culture plays in influencing how AIS and IS are managed. The first research question specifically asks, what cultural dynamics exist that have an effect on educators in American International Schools and International Schools?

The second question focuses on what international educators believe to be the intrinsic and extrinsic factors and conditions that affect the quality of education in their international schools. Factors and conditions are related to internal dynamics, or intrinsic dynamics, such as gender, religion, or the SES of families in an AIS or IS. External factors, or extrinsic factors, include facets such as host country type of government, policies, and finances. This second guiding research question asks, what are the perceptions of educators related to intrinsic and extrinsic cultural enhancements or issues in American International Schools and International Schools that might affect the success of the school and quality of education?

The third question focuses on how educators incorporate host country cultures into the school. Therefore, the third guiding research question is, what accommodations or compromises do American International School and International School educators make because of host country culture expectations or influences in order to manage, lead, and navigate the school?

Definition of Terms

1. *Abroad* - a country outside of the US or country in which an international school is affiliated.
2. *AIS* - American International Schools are schools in which the U.S. Department of State provides direct and indirect assistance to programs that support US ideals and styles (US Department of State, 2016); Non-military schools.

3. *Culture* – the history, myths, and traditions that are created and reproduced where they are learned and values are internalized creating cultural (Diamond, 1993; Ketterer & Marsh, 2001).
4. *Cultural Identity* – the originating culture in which a person most closely aligns themselves.
5. *Cultural Norms* – an acceptable form of behavior in a country or region.
6. *Host Country* – the location in which an international school resides, outside of the home or mother country.
7. *International School* – an international school that is specifically affiliated with a home or mother country.
8. *international schools* – general term that includes both American International Schools and International Schools.
9. *NEASC* - New England Association of Schools and Colleges is an independent, non-profit organization that works to maintain high educational standards in levels PreK- doctoral level schools and institutions (NEASC, 2016).
10. *Overseas* - Any country or location outside of the continental US, Alaska, and Hawaii.

Significance of the Study

This study provides both US and international educational policymakers, Ministries of Education, Head of Schools overseas, administrators, teachers, school board members, and US or other nations' Department of Education Overseas Schools important comprehension regarding the issues of managing, leading, and navigating international schools. The significance of this study was to promote a greater understanding of how intrinsic (gender, religion, socioeconomic status) and extrinsic (types of government, policies, finances) factors contributed to the enhancement, issues, or challenges related to strategies used to manage, lead, and navigate

international schools. The rationale for effects associated with the findings are significant to the stakeholders. First, data provide information to fuel conversations between government policy-makers and educators. Second, international educators are geographically isolated from each other so this study provides implications for practitioners to constructively operate their schools. Third, this study promotes a better awareness of intra- or intercontinental similarities and differences related to enhancements and issues experienced by international schools. Last, information utilized and shared by this study about international schools offer successful guidelines or strategies useful for other international schools.

Delimitations of the Study

This study is delimited in the following ways. First, not all administrators and teachers invited to take the questionnaire took it. Second, since surveys were distributed for the quantitative portion of this research, the actual participants may not have taken the surveys themselves. For example, it is out of the researchers control as to whether a head of school will actually take this survey or pass it on to her or his administrative assistant to complete. The researcher did not have control over the person who actually took the survey. Third, the parameters of the study include sampling a population from international schools abroad. Not all international schools are NEASC affiliated or accredited and therefore will not be considered for the study. The commonality between participants surveyed is that they are all NEASC affiliated or accredited and are non-military. As a result, this study does not sample the populations of public schools in countries that are managed by the country's Department of Education or Ministries of Education. Therefore, the literature for this study does not review the policies of public or private schools abroad run by host country's Department of Education or Ministry of Education, although it is mentioned during the results and findings of the study. In terms of

methodology, the methodological procedures do not include longitudinal research or studies. A Mixed Methods Sequential Explanatory Design approach was used to obtain quantitative and qualitative data.

Chapter Outline

This dissertation is comprised of five chapters summarized in the following section.

Chapter One: Introduction

Chapter One introduced the background of this study and served as a framework. The first part of the chapter started with a summary of the topic addressed in this study and the impact of host culture in international schools. The next section segued into a Personal Interest Statement providing background information on the logistics and reasoning of how the researcher became interested in the research topic. Immediately after, The Statement of the Problem is provided focusing on similarities and differences in cultures that impact international schools in their capacity to manage, lead, and navigate cultural aspects to provide successful school in the quality education. Chapter one also includes The Purpose of the Study which is to examine the dynamics and issues of relationships between international schools in host country cultures as perceived by educators. The last section of this chapter includes definition of terms, the significance of this study, and that the delimitations of the study.

Chapter Two: Review of Literature

Chapter Two consists of a relevant literature review contributing to the conceptual framework of this study. The literature review examines the historical background of the development of educational systems in a variety of countries based upon government, economics, and country interactions. In addition, educational leadership theories influencing educational reform and best pedagogical practices utilized in US schools and international

schools are discussed. The literature review then segues deeper into examining both extrinsic and intrinsic factors affecting the dynamics within an international school relative to the host country culture influencing culture, climate, and construct of schools. Intrinsic factors examine gender, religious orientation, socioeconomic influences within the international school based upon host country culture. Extrinsic factors include host country's type of government, policies, laws, and financing that international schools must adhere to and assimilate into the school community. Last, this chapter takes both intrinsic and extrinsic factors and examines the impact of cognitive styles and curriculum within an AIS and IS. How host country cultures integrate influential factors such as teaching styles, students' views, and parental expectations are also examined.

Chapter Three: Methods

Chapter Three explains the design process of this study including investigation of three Guiding Research Questions followed by eleven Aspects of Research questions. The chapter presents the procedures and framework for data collection and analysis. A brief restatement of the purpose of the study, context for the research, and guiding research questions framing the study are in this chapter. A Mixed Method Sequential Explanatory Design (Creswell, 2009) was used to collect data on country and cultural differences along with information on techniques and strategies employed by AIS or IS to be successful.

The design of the study begins with the quantitative part of the study which includes methodology, the researcher's role, significance of the study, selection of participants, demographics, survey instrument selected, quantitative data collection, and data analysis. The second part, or sequence, of the Mixed Method Sequential Explanatory Design contains qualitative follow-up interviews, digging deeper into the quantitative findings. The quantitative data analysis and findings were used to inform and direct the qualitative interviews. The chapter

continues with discussions of measures of validity and reliability along with the study's limitations and delimitations. The last part of chapter three provides a brief conclusion for the research design.

Chapter Four: Data Analysis, Results, and Findings

Chapter Four presents the quantitative and qualitative data from The Mixed Methods Sequential Explanatory Design addressing the research questions along with the aspects of research as the organizational framework using both quantitative and qualitative analysis to examine differences between regions and cultures. The first component of chapter four consists of the quantitative data analysis from the online survey. This chapter described the findings from the survey participants and their demographics. Demographics included host country, sexual and religious orientations, cultural composition of personnel and students, type of school, and the type of governance of the host country. Further, intrinsic and extrinsic factors were examined related to cultural enhancements that impacted the successes and challenges of the international schools. Last, the quantitative analysis examined the standards, curriculum, and assessments used within international schools. Findings from the quantitative online survey were used to drive the development of the qualitative interview questions.

The second component of this chapter discusses the qualitative portion of the analysis related to individual participants that volunteered to be interviewed. For the qualitative portion of this chapter, the results from the quantitative data analysis were used to inform the qualitative interview questions and dig deeper into information about international schools. The qualitative data from interviews was coded into categories. The summary analysis of the qualitative data further supports and enhances the quantitative data collected.

Chapter Five: Conclusion, Discussion, Future Research, and Final Reflections

Chapter Five begins with a brief summary of the statement of purpose followed by a section on the context of study, relating the study to the literature review from chapter two. The study design is again outlined in the next section followed by an overview of the results and findings. After the results, the discussion of the findings related to the three guiding research questions were examined related to the context of the study. Implications for all of the major findings were addressed for each discussion point in addition to implications for practitioners and educational leaders. This chapter concluded with further research needed and final reflections of the study.

Summary

Chapter one presents the orientation of the study along with expectations for the study. The need for expatriate parents to have their students attend international schools abroad is important for consistency among transient families. The researcher was interested in this topic because of experience and exposure to various countries and cultures piquing an interest in the effects of culture on education. The problem of this study addresses the similarities and differences in cultures and the impact on international school educators in their capacity to manage, lead, and navigate cultural aspects to provide a successful school and a quality education.

The purpose of this study is to examine the dynamics and issues of relationships between international schools and host country cultures as perceived by educators. This study examines how dynamics impact and influence the capacity of educators to manage, lead, and navigate the cultures in the school. This investigation was guided by three research questions and the

implications for the significance of the findings. Specific delimitations were addressed to understand the breadth and boundaries of the study.

The next chapter examines and reviews prior literature related to international schools and education. Chapter two addresses the historical aspects of educational development and the impact in various nations. The chapter continues with intrinsic and extrinsic factors, along with potential accommodations that some international schools make in order to be successful in another country.

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

The Review of the Literature section reiterates the purpose of this study and discusses background and support for the research. The Purpose of the Study is to examine the dynamics and issues of relationships in American International Schools (AIS) and International Schools (IS) in host country cultures as perceived by educators. The literature to support the research will first examine the historical components of educational development. A special emphasis is placed on the history of the US educational system and reform in this study for three reasons. The first reason is because countries historically developed their educational philosophies and reform based on the US educational systems such as Germany and Japan. The second reason is that currently the US educational system is still being used as a model for countries in the Middle East such as United Arab Emirates and Qatar. Third, democratic values are so strongly ingrained in the US educational system that these values are preserved in AIS or other Western-based IS with a democratic type of governance.

The historical background provides a foundation and comparison of how and why educational systems adapted from the US in various countries have converged or diverged based upon unique forms of government, economics, and country interactions. Therefore, some examples of the development of other country's educational system is discussed and compared. Due to the overwhelming vastness of the number of countries to examine, this literature review is narrowed to the historical development of regions including the US, Europe, and Eastern Asia where educational philosophies are deeply rooted in these areas. The history of convergence and divergence in educational philosophies and reform between countries also provides background on ideologies and values transferred to AIS and IS. This background is important because it

sheds light on issues and challenges related to how an AIS and IS leads, manages, and navigates host country cultures in which it is housed inclusive of potential cultural conflicts.

Over the past century and a half, the US as well as many other countries created and developed an educational system based on a country's history, philosophy, and models from other countries. The importance of examining the basic philosophical attitudes in education is how these attitudes and philosophies impact different educational systems and structures across the globe. The first part of this section of the chapter starts with the development of the US educational system based upon American value philosophies. The next part of this section discusses how the US educational system provided a model for other country's educational systems. Further review examines how other countries are either integrating the US model or reasons why countries are diverging from the US model. This section also builds background knowledge regarding development of Western and US values in AIS and IS simultaneously with the need to adapt to host country cultural norms when housed abroad. The last part of this section explains why some expatriates and host country nationals value Western and American education overseas for economic implications. In addition, it is about why expatriate parents want to continue to send their children to an AIS or IS abroad because of uniform standards and pedagogical practices. It is not only about the pride and development of Western or American values that are transferred to AIS and IS abroad, but about the pride and values host country cultures bring to AIS and IS.

The last section of the review of literature contained in this chapter then segues deeper into examining both intrinsic and extrinsic factors that influence culture, climate, and construct of schools. Intrinsic factors include elements such as gender, religion, and social economic status. Extrinsic factors include the types of government (for example, democratic, monarchist,

socialist, communist), policies, and laws. Last, this chapter takes both intrinsic and extrinsic factors and examines the impact of cognitive styles and curriculum within an AIS and IS. How host country cultures integrate influential factors such as teaching styles, students' views, and parental expectations are also examined.

Growth and Development of Educational Systems

The growth and development of a country's educational system depended upon the era and the politics in each country creating what is seen today. Although many countries were going through educational reform, the reasons or motivation behind the changes had some similarities and some differences. Current events and world demands drove changes to the educational systems around the world in order to increase rigor. Countries were motivated to increase a nation's economic competitiveness through educational reform, particularly in the areas of math, science, and foreign language yet keep their identity through history. The competitiveness to upgrade the educational system was primarily fueled by two elements: the various wars and the types of government in each country. These elements created philosophies for an educational system that was either controlled by a national government, *centralized*, or control was at the local level, *decentralized*. A few different countries will be used as an example based upon the historical components of war and governments. Discussion of centralized or decentralized governments assist in setting the foundational development of educational systems in various countries.

Variations observed between countries regarding educational reform were predominantly due to their ranking or status within the world. The success or failure of a country depended upon the effectiveness of the educational system (Ketterer & Marsh, 2001; Orr, 1981). For example, while some countries such as Japan and Germany over the last couple of centuries were going

through educational reform based upon creating a nationalistic identity (Sang, n.d.), this was not the case for the US. The US already had a rudimentary educational system in place not developed by a nationalistic identity, but on two other factors instead (DeBoer, 2012). First as part of the social efficacy movement in the US, educational reform was being constructed along the same developmental parallel as was the Industrial Revolution (Waldrow, 2015). The US was already a world power with a strong identity, so the focus at the turn-of-the-century was to build citizens to contribute as adults to the work force during the Industrial Revolution. Second, educational reform in the US also responded to pressure from global events (Davies & Guppy, 1997). In other words, world political events strongly affected educational decisions and structures (Ball, 2003). Further, education in the US has been largely about teaching and preserving freedom whether on American soil or abroad. This section of the study on US educational reform will discuss the evolution of the US educational system as it relates to influences from global pressure and domestic policy makers. It is also important to note the power dynamics between federal (centralized) and local (decentralized) governments discussed in the next section. The purpose of describing the historical aspect of US educational reform in this section is to provide information regarding the significance as to why expatriates send their children to AIS or IS while working overseas. The next section discusses the difference between the role a centralized or decentralized government plays in relation to an education system, the significance of the historical growth of the US and other educational systems, and the value of national standards.

The Birth of Centralized versus Decentralized Dynamics of the 20th Century

Educational System

In this section of the study, it is important to address the underlying dynamics of shifting governmental power within educational reform. This is important for AIS and IS abroad because the schools need to be cognizant of host country government philosophies related to education. In addition, AIS and IS bring a country's history, ideology, and values with it to a host country culture despite being housed abroad. Case in point, power shifts in federal versus local control occurred in the US because of the evolution of the American economy in conjunction with global influences driving the political dynamics of the educational system. The degree of federal or local governmental control in the US educational system can be compared to educational reforms in other countries. In order to understand the structure of the American educational system, it is important to look at both *centralized* and *decentralized* trends compared to other nations. Centralization is defined as “decision-making to a more concentrated authority” such as at the federal level, whereas decentralization is defined as less concentrated authority used in educational decision-making process, or local level (DeBoer, 2012, p. 418). Examples of countries that are centralized include Greece, Italy, and Turkey, whereas Canada, Brazil, Norway, and Zimbabwe are considered to have decentralized education systems (StateUniversity.com). DeBoer (2012) states that the trend in the US has historically been more decentralized but is currently moving toward centralization as the nation grows, which is currently similar to countries such as Japan and Germany. For instance using the US as an example, more centralized control is observed where the US is working to develop national standardized tests and policies between states. Nationalization of standards started with the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) in 1964 and sprouted additional

standardized test and policies for every state. (NAEP) provided the first federally funded effort to increase the capability of the average American student (Hunt, 2015). Some examples are policies such as Title I and No Child Left Behind (NCLB). Title I and NCLB pushed the federal government agenda for “the urgent need to improve academic outcomes to mirror the language of international education competition” within the entire US (DeBoer, 2012). Although these are national education policies, some tasks and power are still controlled at the local level discussed next.

More power at the local level is considered being decentralized. A decentralized education system in a country provides more flexibility to keep up with current national and international trends. A decentralized system puts more power of decision-making into a state or local government. However, in the US, policymakers are driven by the most recent educational restructuring trends seen in other countries (DeBoer 2012). This trend in working to keep up with international communities is actually making the US more centralized, while other countries are working toward becoming more decentralized. The next section reviews the growth and development of the US educational system exemplifying the cultural significance of the value that the American educational system has two Americans.

The Educational Awakening of the 19th Century

Different periods in US history influenced the American educational system. The first important period to mention is the 19th Century. The US educational system was first founded in the eastern part of the US in the 1600s. The first school was established in Boston in 1635 by the Puritan settlers (City of Boston, 2016). Between the 1600s and the early 1800s, not much had changed in the educational system. As a matter of fact in the 1840s, most voters felt education was working and therefore no changes were needed between 1780 in 1830 (Bernard & Mondale,

2001; Kaestle, 1983). Little change was observed in the construct of lessons or instruction during this time in the classroom (Cuban, 1984). However by the mid-1840s, a change toward providing free education developed. A Common School Movement allowed students to attend schools free of charge so that poor children could go to school with the intention of the government to begin to prepare all citizens in the US for the workforce (Hanna, 2015).

By the late 19th century, the US began to see strong trends in educational reform movements. Schnuth (1986) uses the term *educational awakening* to describe the industrial revolution effects on the educational system at the turn of the century. Schools were essentially preparing students for both adulthood and contribution to industrialization (Waldrow, 2015). Further, schools were “desirable instruments of moral education” (Kaestle, 1983, p. 141). Students were essentially being trained to build and grow America.

The 20th Century Educational Growth between 1900- 1945

The beginning of the 20th Century was another important period influencing the US educational system. Between the turn of the century and 1945, the US had witnessed the Great Depression, World War I, and World War II which had an impact on the educational system such as the implementation of standardized testing. Schnuth called this era the time of *educational growth* (1986). All of these events had an impact on education propelling reform forward. Two educational progressive philosophers surfaced, John Dewey and Horace Mann, but with different ideologies under the Progressive Movement. John Dewey had popular educational concepts seen both in the US and in Japan. His innovative philosophies on education during this time period can be best described by his quote on education:

the ideal aim of education is the creation of the power of self-control....impulses and desires that are not ordered by intelligence are

under the control of accidental circumstances. It may be a loss rather than a gain to escape from the control of another person only to find one's conduct dictated by immediate whim and caprice...a person whose conduct is controlled in this way has at most only the illusion of freedom. Actually he is directed by forces over which he has no command. (Dewey, 1997, p. 64 & 65)

Dewey was about culturing freedom and exploration in education. However, Dewey's philosophy was counter to some of the other educational philosophers of the time.

Although Dewey had substantial impact in education, the idea of psychometric measurement seemed to outweigh Dewey's progressivism (Waldrow, 2015). The author further claims that Dewey did not want to create a curriculum based on the goals that were predetermined. For example, Horace Mann thought that the US should:

universalize education for all to keep the unity of the country intact with pedagogy like American history and civics (Hanna, 2015, p. 6).

The author further states that Mann wanted to focus education on common values rather than cultivating future citizens that could think independently, contrary to Dewey's Progressive Movement. Dewey thought that education should teach children that they have the freedom to control their actions and perform acts of moral virtue (Hanna, 2015).

The two opposing ideologies of Dewey and Mann in education were snowballing around WWI. The idea of introducing educational standards during this time period was controversial, however the idea to use standards overpowered the thoughts of freedom of education that Dewey proposed. The definition of educational standards are "normative specifications for the steering of educational systems" (Klieme, et. al, 2003, p. 32). The authors further discuss that standards

in schools have an *output* value where goal attainment is evaluated and can be segmented into performance or content standards. Performance standards address achievement levels whereas content standards address educational goal attainment (Klieme, et. al, 2003; Waldrow, 2015). Oelkers & Reusser (2008) state that educational standards were beneficial because they gave rise to correlations between a *standardization* used in education and the industrial standards used in the workforce. The concept of educational standards were attractive because they were compared to or paralleled the 20th Century industrial workforce standards. Embedding industrialized standards in teaching were important in keeping the US afloat during the wars.

In the US, the educational Progressive Movement in the early 20th Century had a social efficacy component to the reform (Waldrow, 2015). However, the author attests, a controversy existed between two progressive processes, *pedagogical* and *administrative*. Pedagogical progressives were based on Dewey's concept that instruction is child-centered and students learn by discovery. Conversely, administrative progressives were based upon another educational philosopher named Frederick Winslow Taylor who coined the concept of *scientific management* of having the ideology that schools should prepare students for adulthood and industry (Waldrow, 2015).

A professor by the name of John Franklin Bobbitt (1909 – 1941) was highly supportive of Taylor's scientific management and became a strong influence in the conception of educational standards in the US with the “aim of making processes of instruction and learning more efficient, and thereby improving the educational system as a whole” (Waldrow, 2015, p. 51). Bobbitt's mindset was so influential because of the timing of the educational connection to industrialization. He can be quoted as saying, “education is primarily for adult life, not for child

life” (p. 52). He took it as far as basing the educational standards from community needs, which were then translated into curriculum.

Bobbitt supported standards-based education that was created based upon the outcomes of what was needed to make students successful during the industrialization era. Dewey, on the other hand, did not support standards-based education but rather took a stance that educational outcomes can not be predicted and students should learn by discovery (Dewey, 1944).

Educational Reconstruction and Expansion post- 1945

Post WWII marked another important era in the development of the US educational system. Post WWII, the US began to see more clarity around standardization along with a step toward centralization predominantly due to the rise of federal aid in supporting education. Schnuth (1986) refers to this era as the *educational reconstruction and expansion* phase. This was a time in history where an increase in civil rights, educational reform, and national defense was rising. Hunt (2015, p. 23) states that “communism overshadowed most of history of the 20th century in the US” especially following World War II. This section of the study, shows evidence regarding how the federal government became more highly participatory in education because of the Cold War. Clarity regarding standardization in curriculum and assessments will be discussed initially followed by the federal government’s role in education.

Standardizing education was further developed and strengthened by Bobbitt’s predecessor Ralph W. Tyler because of his understanding of education. Tyler was able to translate Bobbitt's idea of social efficacy into a form that educators could accept and understand (Tyler, 1987; Waldrow, 2015). Bobbitt repudiated academic curriculum, but Tyler was able to bridge studies of learning and knowledge of subject matter to policy-makers and educators (Kliebard, 1995b). Tyler designed curriculum-making steps in education creating the foundation

of educational standards today. Although Tyler was an administrative progressive, he was able to separate the industrialization metaphor used in education to construct steps to create curriculum and communicate it to educators which was well received (Hunkins & Hammill, 1994). The authors further indicate that Tyler's rationale was a step away from current day standards-based education.

The era of the Cold War and Civil Rights Movement created a more centralized role in education from the federal government. It was in response to the Soviet Union's world power on the rise and prompted the federal government to pass the National Defense Education Act (NDEA) of 1958 (Cibulka, 2001; Kaestle, 2007). The authors discuss that the launch of the satellite *Sputnik* by the Soviet Union created a communist threat to the US and the world. During the Cold War of the 1950s, the competition of launching the first satellite was a threat to the American democracy and therefore the federal government wanted to increase the rigor of the educational system (Botsein, 1997). The push for NDEA policies was to amplify curricula in math, sciences, and foreign language to intensify competition for national defense purposes.

The American government also thought that the nation needed an educational report card. The National Assessment of Educational Progress of 1964 (NAEP) was the nation's first report card (Berliner, 2009) that allowed for the comparison of student scores between states (Office of Educational Research and Improvement, 1990). Soon after NAEP, President Lyndon Johnson's *War on Poverty* developed the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965 with the intention to educate all American citizens especially the socioeconomically depressed (Cibulka, 2001; Kaestle, 2007). Programs under ESEA focused on supporting and strengthening the education of the poor and disadvantaged. An example of a fallout from his program was Head Start. Head Start programs began in the 1960s focusing on educating the people living in

poverty. Further, this era saw an increase in the civil rights movement that supported racial justice and desegregation of schools (Cibulka, 2001; Kaestle, 2007). Soon after, in the 1970s, a *back to basics* movement focused less on curriculum and honed in on more content specific learning (Hunt, 2015). WWII was the era when the US was highly attentive toward the disadvantaged, poor, and racial inequities.

The Educational Reform of the 1980s

In the 1980s, the federal government started to play a larger role in education. What spurred the reform was declining test scores and reduced college admissions (Hunt, 2015). Bjork, Browne-Ferrigno, & Kowalski (2014, p. 448) stated that, “public schools failed children placing the nation in economic jeopardy”. They further attest that the federal government claimed that schools were the reason for economic decline and should be held accountable. Thus, enter the first wave of educational reform of the 1980s.

Initially, President Ronald Reagan actually looked to reduce the federal education budget in the national agenda beginning in the 1980s (Kaestle, 2007). However, his Secretary of Education contradicted him and stressed the importance of education. The educational system was saved by a federal report called *A Nation at Risk* (ANAR) printed in 1983. ANAR was “an important step in placing accountability on the education reform agenda” (Jaiani & Whitford, 2011, p. 20). *Accountability* became the new catchword of the 1980s where standards-based education was reinvigorated (Waldrow, 2015). Standards and assessments became a large part of educational policy. The focus of the agenda was the claim that the US had functional illiterates that were graduating from the educational system. Illiterate students that were graduating were an issue for two reasons. First it compromised the US future in the international marketplace and second, the US was in the middle of the Cold War (Johanningmeier, 2010). According to the

ANAR report, it stated, “we have been committing an act of unthinking, unilateral educational disarmament” (ANAR, 1983, p. 112). The imposed purpose of ANAR was to improve the quality of education through focus areas such as raising standards, teaching at risk kids, increasing accountability, and restructuring education (Hunt, 2015) which carried through into the 1990s.

1990s to present

Heated debates regarding education increased during the 1990s (Kaestle, 2007). The conservative political agenda gained strength influencing national policy. By the 1990s, curriculum was more rigorous because the number of academic courses had increased (Office of Educational Research and Improvements, 1990). The decline of mutual trust between parents and teachers was sliding. The slide was the result of the demographics of communities with large English Language Learners (ELL), poor, minority, and single parent homes. The connection between home and school was lacking.

Many non-governmental groups also influenced educational reform during the 1990s such as the *Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation*, *the Edison Project*, and *Achieve* (Office of Educational Research and Improvements, 1990). The author further discusses that these groups became more responsive in regard to ethical issues. In terms of the federal government’s role, President Bill Clinton proposed his *Goals 2000* which was a national movement towards standards-based reform ((Office of Educational Research and Improvements, 1990; Ravitch, 2010; Smith, 2014). After President Clinton, President George W. Bush took Clinton's educational reform a step further and created the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) in 2002 to strengthen standards and ensure that every child is educated. NCLB was another act to legitimize the transfer to standards-based education in order to close the achievement gap (Waldrow, 2015).

The author more explicitly states that the motivation was to promote accountability and “improve academic achievement of the disadvantaged”. NCLB echoed military and religious philosophies of salvation and redemption that students would not be left behind and connected accountability with civil rights (Waldrow, 2015). According to Bush, students would be redeemed through assessments and standards-based education (Waldrow, 2015).

Further educational reform continues to evolve. Although educational reform focused more on children and their learning rather than organizational structures of schools, by 2003 the use of international test scores for comparison against other countries was on the rise (Bjork, et. al., 2014). The author continues that the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) and other international scores created efforts to have consistent curriculum across the US. For example, in 2011 the national Common Core State Standards were implemented. Here we continue to see more of a see a shift toward centralization of the education system through implementation of programs such as NCLB, Race to the Top (RTTT), and most currently President Obama's Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) to leverage the adoption of national government reforms (Bjork, et. al., 2014). The ESSA was developed by “the Obama administration ... to create a better law that focused on the clear goal of fully preparing all students for success in college and careers” (US Department of Education, 2015). The impact of the new Act that replaced NCLB has yet to be determined.

The historical background regarding the development of the educational system in the US has been quite complex. The educational system changed due to different philosophies, economics within the country, and competitions between other countries. The next section of this study briefly discusses examples of the development of other educational systems in various countries. The purpose is to understand the similarities and differences in educational

philosophies and styles between the US and other countries. These differences and similarities are important because they shed light on cultural impacts to the educational system in which AIS resides. Further, cultural influences that need to be abided by within a host country culture at times may need to be observed by AIS.

Examples of the Historical Development of Educational Systems in Other Countries

Despite the similarity of government roles regulating schools, the US and other countries have cultural differences that create different policies, styles, and values within the educational system. A wide gap exists between cultural stereotypes and realities creating pedagogies that must be adjusted to meet the needs of the cultures (Woodring, 1996). Countries with shared languages, cultures, and histories allow for similar policies to spread quickly (DeBoer 2012). For instance, Anglo-American countries traditionally have mimicked each other over the years in educational reform. This mimicking is because of shared political and cultural histories such as the case with President Ronald Reagan and England's Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher sharing similar educational philosophies, which created international convergence (DeBoer 2012; Davies & Guppy, 1997). International convergence is responsible for the globalization of education (Astiz, Wiseman, & Baker, 2002; Davies & Guppy, 1997). In other cultures, Confucian traditions in Asian countries link historical heritage to modern experiences interwoven within the social structure of the nations (Han & Makino, 2013). Confucianism can clash with European and Western ideals and experiences. The difference is that in the East Asian Confucian tradition learning is about human development and social cultivation, whereas Western philosophy is more about the individual (Han & Makino, 2013). In the Arab world, a more authoritarian culture exists where a country's government reduces the ability to 'adapt to, absorb, and

ultimately resist pressures for political reform” and therefore tends to repress any opponents (Heydeman, 2007, p. 21).

Wars also accelerated cultural influences initiating international competitions. The US competed with the Soviet Union to be the most powerful nation in the world after WWII. However, that diminished after the first International Educational Achievement Science Survey Assessment when the US started to compete against Japan in educational system in the 1980s because Japan outperformed the US on international assessments in math and science (Dahawy, 1993). Another example, China modeled their educational policy after the Soviet Union’s policy in 1949 after the communist revolution in China (Chiaromonte, 1990).

Countries with changing economic, social climates, and structures have varying motivations. A good comparison is Japan and Germany. Bjork (2009) suggests that some countries have teachers that transmit centralized ideologies to create a national identity, but this national identity is not present in the US. Japan had a strong argument to create a national identity and is highly centralized and less driven at the local level (DeBoer, 2012). The author further contends that although Germany began with a more centralized level of policymaking, the country is moving toward a more decentralized educational system. The move toward decentralization is opposite to the US movement toward centralization.

In Europe, Germany pulled away from the democratic Western style of educational philosophy around World War II (WWII) and created an educational system that was more appropriate for their needs. Germany produced an educational system consisting of moral teachings, military instruction, and nationalism. In Japan, the shift between democratic and ultra-nationalism was prompted by Germany’s political world stance and involvement in the

wars. In the following passage, Dewey (1944) explicates the role Germany played in educational reform:

under the influence of German...education became a civic function and the civic function was identified with the realization of the ideal of the national state. The “state” was substituted for humanity; cosmopolitanism gave way to nationalism. To form the citizen, not the “man”, became the aim of education (p. 89).

Japan also had a similar philosophy to Germany regarding nationalism. Dewey continues and states:

the German states felt that systematic attention to education was the best means of recovering and maintaining their political integrity and power. The individualistic theory receded into the background (p. 89).

In the school systems, Germany practiced the importance of being a nationalistic state. Education was used as disciplinary training rather than of personal development (Dewey, 1944; Shibata, 2004). Although Japan had similar philosophies to Germany about nationalism, their educational philosophy was distinctive because they operated by educating all citizens equally. Japan also was isolated from the rest of the world until the beginning of the 19th century when they chose to upgrade their educational system in order to create an international identity. Japan adopted the Pestalozzi principal in 1878, adopted from the Swiss philosopher Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi (Anderson, 1975). The philosopher discussed that the principles of a good education include letting nature develop in its own way (Hewes, 1992) and that “if a man is to become what he ought to be, he must be as a child, and do as a child, what makes him happy as a child” (Pinloche, 1901, p.103) falling in line with the Japanese educational philosophy, but not the

German educational philosophy. Japan began its educational reform with a centralized mindset but is moving toward decentralized (DeBoer, 2012).

The European educational system also had some traces of influence in Japan though not as influential as the US. For example, in the 1880s, Japan mimicked the structure of European-style secondary schools and universities that carried through to the turn of the century (Anderson, 1959). Although the European educational methods and styles may have been beneficial, it is not surprising that by 1913 the educational deficits that Europe witnessed trailed into Eastern Asian countries causing similar issues (Yamasaki, 2010). In addition, the author suggests the remedies the Europeans found to renovate education could not be applied to Japan because the dissimilarities in culture, history, and customs were not compatible (Yamasaki, 2010). Therefore a separate practice and system was needed to correct the deficits that Europe and Japan encountered, which is why Japan turned to the US to make improvements to the educational system. Although Japan had some impact from the European-style of education, the US had the largest influence. A brief discussion involving Germany's influence on the nationalistic attitude and influence is important to address within the study. Therefore, the focus of the historical section will primarily be the US influence on the Japanese educational system with an interlude addressing Germany's role in Japanese educational development. This section of the study considers the multiple waves of educational reform in Japan highly influenced by the Western cultures.

Even other countries were influenced by Western education systems. Other countries such as United Arab Emirates (UAE) and Oman recently have or are undergoing educational reform. Educational reform in UAE was based upon Finland's highly successful educational system along with New Zealand's (Chrystall, 2014). The author further discusses the results of

Finland's successful education system was from decades of work where teachers were given the freedom to educate and were held in the highest esteem. However, one advantage Finland has is one primary language within the country whereas many other countries deal with bilingualism. Oman on the other hand, began reform efforts before UAE and based their reform on Omani heritage and culture (Chrystall, 2014) rather than just Western educational philosophies. Another difference between United Arab Emirates and Oman educational reform was the financial wealth. Oman nationals did not receive oil wealth shares and currently educate students for more service industry type of jobs, whereas UAE did share oil wealth with nationals and focuses on bilingual and Western education in order to become more global (Chrystall, 2014).

This section provided an overview of the historical development of educational philosophies for many countries. Many countries develop their educational system based upon what was going on in the country at that time, whether it was economics or the need for national identity. The implications for the development of educational systems is important to AIS and IS because many of these schools overseas have foundations based on nationalistic values and ideologies that may or may not coincide with a host country culture. The next section discusses internal and external factors within a host country culture that may influence or challenge how an AIS or IS is managed, led, and navigated in order to be successful.

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Factors Influencing Culture

Cultural development is influenced by many different factors within a society. Both intrinsic and extrinsic factors manipulate what is acceptable or not acceptable within a nation or culture. Intrinsic factors that impact culture include gender, religion, and social-economic status (SES). Extrinsic factors include governments, policies, and laws. A combination of both intrinsic and extrinsic factors also weigh heavily on how a nation functions. An example of a

variable that the researcher discusses combining intrinsic and extrinsic factors is cognitive learning styles within a country region. Because intrinsic and extrinsic factors are closely intertwined in a country, the impacts of these factors trickle down and influence the functions of an educational system. This next section focuses on how intrinsic and extrinsic factors influence culture. This literature review also examines a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic factors which are noted as cognitive styles within different countries based on cultural influences developed throughout a country's historical growth. The section following discusses the impact of these factors on the educational system within countries in terms of standards, curriculum, and assessments, as well as teaching styles. Intrinsic and extrinsic factors are important to address because AIS and IS must consider gender, religious orientation, and SES in combination with a host country's type of governance, policies, and finances. Implications for the impact these factors have on the student body within an AIS and IS housed in host country culture are addressed in this study.

Intrinsic Factors

The intrinsic factors are addressed in this section of the study. The sequence of intrinsic factors related to cultural dynamics are discussed including the impact of gender followed by religious orientation, and SES. Gender is examined as it relates to social factors as well as biological considerations. The effects of overlap between religious orientation and gender within a country are contemplated. The last sections discuss the implications related to students' SES.

Gender. Historically, women have struggled with gender inequality, whether it relates to physical strength, reproduction, religion, wages, education, or fundamental basic civil rights. Gender inequality is a broad category that deserves recognition in two distinct categories that pose obstacles for females. The first component is in boundaries imposed by society under the

pretext of social forces, and the second is in the evolutionary biological aspect of the female gender not related to social forces. This section will discuss the social and the biological factors that may contribute to and shed light on explaining gender inequality. Gender inequality is a complex issue that merits acknowledgement in both social and biological areas.

Social factors related to gender. Culture is shaped by various social forces. It does not matter where a person lives, inequality is visible within cultures. Demographic differences such as race, gender, and socioeconomic status and inhabitation of geographic regions contribute to gender inequality (Allan, 2011; Hopcroft, 2009; Neff, Cooper, & Woodruff, 2007). In general, society is still plagued with norms that are shaped by masculine perspectives and cultural influences (Allan, 2011). For example, Guatemalan indigenous women experience sexual subordination based on class and race (Forster, 1999). In many cultures, textbooks have used male pronouns as the default gender referencing *his* or *him* even when referring to females. Curricular materials in schools addressed people as males regardless of gender, and very few (if any) textbooks discussed female contributions in history which may attribute to behaviors of male dominance in society (Forster, 1999). Although textbooks have added more female historical figures and role models, female contributions to society are not well documented nor are they as equally discussed as male equivalents. Females were largely in charge of child-rearing at home.

Media greatly contributes to the perceivable social role of females and therefore predetermined gender roles are difficult for women to disassociate from media-influenced roles. According to English (2006), women are raised to be vulnerable and empathetic to societal struggles and therefore females grow and develop best in roles that assume these types of environments. Women, until recently, typically watched more TV because they were in the home

most often and role models were in subordinate and vulnerable roles that females would relate to such as soap operas and relationship dramas and therefore learned how what is socially acceptable in the role of a woman (Wright, 2008). Because of exposure from the media, Neff, Cooper, & Woodruff (2007) found that one of the first social categories learned among children, whether male or female, is a distinction between genders. They found evidence that gender inequality increases with age as exposure to social factors increases (Neff, Cooper, & Woodruff, 2007). Stereotypical social roles in the media influence children's view on gender. Children typically observe males as having dominant and independent traits, such as positions high in power with higher educational degrees, and observe females in more submissive roles that dependent on males (Levy & Haaf, 1994; Neff, Cooper, & Woodruff, 2007).

The pressure of societal norms regarding gender are so recognizably strong in fact, that the U.S. federal government initiated legislative and policy changes such as the Equal Pay Act in 1963, Title VII Civil Rights Act 1964 that prohibited sex discrimination by employers, and Title IX providing females access to higher education without discrimination based upon sex (Allan, 2011).

When examining performance based on gender for schools administering international assessments, dissimilarities are found between males and females. In terms of gender, males performed better than females in mathematics and science assessments possibly due to the general lack of females in leadership roles in mathematics and science (Hooper, Mullis, & Martin, 2015; OECD, 2012). Conversely, females tend to perform significantly higher on reading assessments than do males (OECD, 2012). Differences in international assessment scores provide evidence for the degree of impact gender inequality has across varying countries.

Biological. Another aspect of gender inequality may also be attributed to evolutionary biological components. According to Hopcroft (2007) male domination is ubiquitous across most societies that may be the result of evolved predispositions. This may be due to the evolutionary biological aspect of offspring survival. Females in many species are considered resources and their sexual behavior is controlled by male mates in order to ensure that the offspring was paternally his (Trivers, 1972; Apostolou, 2007). Males have evolved in biological and behavioral defenses including “mate guarding” to prevent cuckoldry, or investment of offspring that is not genetically theirs (McKibbin, 2011, p.20). This suggests that males have adjusted their social behaviors in order to invest in the reproductive success of their own children. Therefore, species where parental investment in offspring is high generally results in female subordination (Hopcroft, 2009). Humans have high parental investment in their children. This creates scenarios in some cultures where males control resources for women, such as freedom restriction and access to education in order to prevent male sexual jealousy of their mates (Smuts, 1996). In the U.S., gender inequality is becoming antiquated but the evolutionary aspect of male biological behavior may provide truth to the behavioral roles males and females play in our society and should not be overlooked. For example, although humans practice serial monogamy and men do care for and provide for their partner’s children, biological behaviors leading to inequity seem to be innate and may be some of the driving force behind social norms and male-dominated societies.

Religious Factors. Many people are defined by their religious orientation and gender within their home country culture. It is important to acknowledge that many predispositions and assumptions exist related to cultures that need to be addressed (Mezirow, 2000). Religion and culture are ingrained early during the developmental years and people innately want to be

compliant within their culture and adhere to the cultural norms and religions to have a sense of belonging. In some cases, people are not able to explore cultures or religions outside the environment because it is considered off-limits. This next section of the study explores implications of religious orientation and in some cases in conjunction with gender.

Beliefs can strongly influence how a society functions based upon various religious orientations including Christianity, Confucianism, Islam, and Amish (religious sect in the US). Religion has such a great impact on culture, personal successes, and education. According to the United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child in 1989, the rights to education should “overcome the boundaries of religion, nation, and culture across the world” (Hodgson, 2012, p.12). This next section investigates the reasons why extreme religion may prevent people from becoming educated or improving their life circumstances.

Hodgson (2012) suggests that education should be a balance between reconciling values that are diverse through respect of differences and dialogue. He further proposes that freedom should not be impaired because of religious coercion. However, with extreme religion that is not always the case. What occurs is that people disseminate values that are distorted in order to exploit the ignorance of people in the areas of race, religion, or culture (Hodgson, 2012). People are being taken advantage of because of lack of knowledge and fears associated with diversity that is not in line with what one believes. People do not always make an effort to step outside their comfort zone to find the answers. As a matter of fact, children are taught to follow within the guidelines of their own culture and family beliefs and values.

Children have a sense of innocence and are developmentally vulnerable so it is easy to follow the family or community leader. For example, Rumsey (2010) discusses a concept called “heritage literacy” which are religious literacy practices used within a family or community

transcend multiple generations to maintain compliance. In other words, belief systems are passed on which colors the way in which descendants read and write (Rumsey, 2010). Tolerance for diversity decreases from each passing generation. McConnell & Hurst (2006) propose that religion creates a type of cultural cohesion leading to insularity that limits outside knowledge entering the community or family eliminating diverse outside cultural awareness.

Literal interpretations of religious literacy such as the Bible or the Quran may contribute to adverse effects because some people flawlessly follow the scripture which may alter the development of autonomy in children (Hodgson, 2012; Reich, 2003). Literal interpretation tends to isolate members from other cultures and religions thereby decreasing formal or experiential educational momentum. In fundamentalist Christianity, literal interpretation of scripture is viewed as inerrant (Reich, 2003). He further explains that by exposing children to alternative ways of thinking outside the scripture is considered offensive and undermines the beliefs of parents. In the Amish community, interpretations of the Bible are only conducted by the church leaders and no one in the community is allowed to disagree (Rumsey, 2010). The Amish are required to let the church leaders interpret the scripture for them. They are clearly told that, “anyone who isn’t Amish is not going to heaven” (Rumsey, 2010, p. 140). Amish orders tend to isolate themselves within their own communities without any modern influence. Reich (2003) found that the members of the Amish community are told to remain separate from the world and its modern influences and therefore only attend school until the eighth grade which is enough for them to be effective citizens in the Amish community (Rumsey, 2010). The role of women is to be more subordinate and have restricted activities relative to the men (Johnson, 1998). In addition, women must cover their heads and refrain from talking to any men besides her husband

or talk to any of the English (Johnson, 1998). Other cultures with strong religious influences such as the Amish, have similar regulations.

Women in Islamic religious orientations bear the burden of polygamy, experience discrimination, and lack civil rights (Chickering, 2012; Hajj & Panizza, 2008; Permanyer, 2010). The fertility rate in Islamic cultures is significantly higher than in Western cultures which is an economic indicator that women in cultures with high fertility have limited civil protections (Permanyer, 2010).

In terms of well-being in areas of education, health, and life satisfaction, Middle Eastern men perform better in these non-egalitarian societies such as Qatar and United Arab Emirates (UAE) (Permanyer, 2010). Male and female students at the secondary level in Qatar are segregated because of religion (Amer, Ingels, & Mohammed, 2009). The authors further state that religion is a factor in Qatar as it relates to educational values. Until recently, many Muslim women have not enjoyed the benefits of secondary or higher education because that was reserved for men, and that is only because Islamic men started to marry highly educated foreign women (Al Rawaf & Simmons, 1991; Al-Hariri, 1987). Some research supports that Muslim men are generally fearful that educated Muslim women will become liberal (Oplatka & Lapidot, 2012) and learn Western values with increased education (Al Rawaf & Simmons, 1991). Marrying outside the Islamic culture is an issue because it would weaken the strong religious and family culture that is valuable to Muslims.

In societies that are highly patriarchal such as in the Middle East, men in the family are the ones that grant permission to wives and daughters to attend school and become literate (Ghose, 2007; Rankin & Aytac, 2006; Oplatka & Lapidot, 2012). For example, in many countries such as parts of Egypt, Pakistan and India, most women are not provided an education

(Chickering, 2012). Obtaining education for many women in the Middle East is challenging. Access to knowledge for women may be restricted or inconvenient because education is either taught by another female professor or conducted digitally if the professor is male since women are not allowed in the same room as men (Al Rawaf & Simmons, 1991). This restrictive environment provides limited freedom to learn and explore educational and cultural advancements. Further, although women attend similar courses as men, emphasis is put on traditional women's courses and religion such as home economics, women's proper role in Islamic culture, the Quran, and family roles (Al-Hariri, 1987; Al Rawaf & Simmons, 1991). Islamic religious values set the precedence in the role of education for women. The premise is based upon her contribution to societal and home needs, not necessarily educational freedom of inquiry.

Last, employment is relatively restrictive for women in an Islamic setting. Girls begin covering their heads around age nine so that they don't cause any sexual tensions or feelings for men (Al-Hariri, 1987). The veil or *Burka* not only cover the female body to prevent sexual attractiveness, but restricts physical movement preventing women from working in traditional male careers (Al-Hariri, 1987). With few females having obtained higher education and many staying in their home, very few career opportunities exist for women in Islamic counties (Oplatka & Lapidot, 2012). However, in Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates, women are beginning to have more access to education. Scholarships are available for them to travel globally to receive higher qualifications, however in other areas of the Gulf region the barrier of employment for educated women is still crippling (Chrystall, 2014). The author continues that one of the greatest changes in the Gulf region needs to be toward gender equality.

Socioeconomic status. Socioeconomic status (SES) is another intrinsic variable influencing cultural dynamics. Not all students from different SES in all countries have equal access to education, including the potential to attend an AIS or IS. Schools with students attending from advantaged backgrounds tend to be better-equipped and creating enhanced learning outcomes (OECD, 2012). For example, results from international test scores show that disadvantaged students from low socioeconomic status perform lower in general on mathematics assessments because educational equity available for students is different between countries (OECD, 2012). Aside from the OECD international ranking, Eastern Asian countries tend to promote academic excellence more than the US (OECD, 2012). For example, more opportunities of equity in education occur in Japan than in the US for students of different socioeconomic statuses. Eastern Asian countries expect more from students than does the US, including the lower socio-economic status levels (Tucker, 2016; Trung, Cheong, Nghi, Kim, 2013).

Another factor worth mentioning is the disadvantage of students in a lower socioeconomic status. The access or quality of education may differ based on socioeconomic background (Knipprath, 2009). In Guatemala, children's attendance at school declines over time because of reduced parental resources and inclinations (Yount, Maluccio, Behrman, Hoddinott, Murphy, & Ramakrishnan, 2013). Families from lower SES backgrounds weigh the costs and benefits of their children attending school as opposed to working to support the family. Impoverished families in Guatemala may not see the benefits of children attending school over providing direct income from child labor (Irwin, Engle, Yarbrough, Klein, & Townsend, 1978). In Ecuador, poor indigenous families might "sell" their children to wealthier families to work in fields or in the home without these children receiving any education or learning how to read (Resau, & Farinango, 2011). Making money for the family is a priority over education. Despite

the priority of financially supporting the family, third world countries in Latin American and Caribbean Islands did see a spurt in the increase in the number of children attending school from the 1930s to the 1970s (Behrman, Duryea, & Szekely, 1999).

Some countries may actually provide better educational resources for those students that show high performance and achievement. Japan found high variance in *between-school* data meaning that Japanese students are “allocated to high schools according to their achievement level and their economic, social, and cultural background” (Behrman, Duryea, & Szekely, 1999, p. 403). Therefore, the higher achieving the student is in school, the better education than they will receive. In the US, the government continues to work to correct the disparity in SES students to prevent inequities related to student performance and achievement. The US first had to work toward acknowledging and correcting disparities. The disparities in the US were a result of two prominent issues. The first was because of the decline of mutual trust between parents and teachers over time, and the second was also the result of the demographics of communities with large English Language Learners (ELL), poor, minority, and single parent homes (Office of Educational Research and Improvements, 1990). To continue the work to counter the disparities, the US government increased rigor in curriculum by increasing the number of academic courses and increasing the connection between home and school. These efforts were a part of Lyndon Johnson's *War on Poverty* in the 60s and 70s along with Ronald Reagan's *A Nation at Risk* in the 80s. Thus, academic rigor therefore increased in the 1990s as previously reviewed in this study. Although equality of education is highly valued in the US, efforts to eliminate SES disparities is ongoing and the US continues to work toward narrowing the achievement gap. The value of working toward diminishing the disparities between students in the US is an ideology that is also carried over to AIS abroad to provide equality in education.

Last, another variable is student's attitudes toward education. Some students with different SES backgrounds may have different attitudes toward learning and education. Student attitudes toward learning have a positive relationship to motivation and student achievement (Hooper, Mullis, & Martin, 2015). Findings suggests that a correlation exists between SES backgrounds and the relationships of students' attitudes toward learning (House & Telese, 2006; OECD, 20129). Children from a higher SES may be more motivated to learn and therefore perform better and become higher achieving students.

In summary, intrinsic factors reviewed are variables related to gender, religious orientation, and socioeconomic background. The next section discusses extrinsic factors that are less personally related and are more under the guise of external influences such as governments, policy, and finances.

Extrinsic Factors

The extrinsic factors are addressed in this section of the study. Extrinsic factors include the types of government, policies, and finances. Types of governments include, but are not limited to national philosophies of leadership such as democratic, monarchical, socialist, or communist forms of controls. These specific types of governments are addressed because they are the most ubiquitous and well-known worldwide and defined in the next section. In conjunction with types of governments are policies within the nation. Policies are born from global pressures and national needs. Last, finances play a large role in the establishment and economics of a country. All three of these extrinsic factors play a role in how AIS are instituted and managed.

Foreign governments and policies. Many forms of governance exist throughout the world. The most common types of governments include democracy, monarchy, socialist, or

communist leaderships (Governmentsvs.com, 2016) and are defined here. Democracy is the ability for citizens to elect government officials and vote for philosophies strongly aligned with beliefs in equity of freedom. Democratic types of government are found in the US as well as many European, Caribbean, and Latin American countries. Conversely, Monarchical governments are ruled by a king, queen, or emir and they have absolute rule in the country such as in many Arab and African countries like Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and Morocco. Communism exists in Vietnam and North Korea and the government believes in the common owning of all goods belonging to the country. A socialist country is where resources belong to everyone within a nation rather than a few capitalists that make the majority of the money and wealth is more evenly distributed. Many Scandinavian countries and China are examples of socialist countries. Although the type of governance is different among countries, one component they all have in common is that global economics affect government policies and the educational systems in order to compete against other nations. Educational policymaking is influenced by emerging global policy (Jakobi, 2009).

Because AIS and IS are located in other countries ruled by different forms of government, it is important to keep in mind that these schools value and practice nationalistic ideals on foreign soil. Therefore, the type of government of the host country and the type of government the school is from, or mother country, has impacts on the functioning and managing of the schools.

Host country Dedication to Lifelong Learning and Implications for Economic Growth.

A host country's dedication to lifelong learning is a common global philosophy and has implications for growing an economy. Many countries are beginning to understand the importance of both child and adult learning in order to economically and financially compete

with other nations. According to Behrman, et. al., (1999, p. 3), “human capital, particularly that attained through schooling, is a major factor in economic development”. The authors further attest that a strong connection exists between education and economic growth and income. Nations are making efforts to improve education for both children and adults as lifelong learners. Since education is now a lifelong learning process it is considered a global policy practice rather than just being left to local or national levels (Jakobi, 2009). Lifelong learning and the implications for economic growth and success are important concepts for AIS and IS to consider in providing a diverse population of students an education. Even adult learning has a long way to go to meet basic educational needs in many different countries in order to improve conditions for economic development (UNESCO, 2005). Educational needs must be met by adults in order to improve access to education for children.

Countries around the world are dedicating more and more resources toward education. In Europe, the philosophy is that people of all ages (children or adults) “should have access to lifelong learning” (European Council 2002b, p. 3). As a matter of fact, starting in the mid-1990s in Europe, educational policy was beginning to be considered lifelong learning (Jakobi, 2009). Prior to Europe, other countries were beginning to see the value of lifelong education to improve their nation. The concept of a learning society in lifelong learning started in the 1970s and 80s in eastern Asia in order to “cure symptoms of post-industrial risk society” (Han & Makino, 2013, p. 444).

Some countries created laws geared toward lifelong learning, and some created intense learning cities in order to promote education. Three different countries including Japan, China, and Korea, all wanted to develop intense learning cities to promote education (Han & Makino, 2013). Despite all three of these countries wanting to promote lifelong learning, each country

used a different strategy in order to promote lifelong learning. Japan incorporated historical traditions. China implemented learning cities as a cultural tool in order to manage urban administration and recover social stability. Korea developed *lifelong cities* by using state leadership, local autonomy, and supporting politics. Korea went so far as to create a *Lifelong Education Law* to include basic literacies foundational to learning through higher education in order to improve citizens' qualifications for employment (Han & Makino, 2013). The author continued that China participated in a global project called Promoting Active Lifelong Learning in Australia, Canada, China, and Europe (PALLACE) where countries created projects to improve lifelong learning in their countries. Although policies were in place for PALLACE, the project did not come without social problems or issues due to changing markets and global economies within each nation. For example, large cities were managed by socialist administrative systems in China, in addition to the growing gap in inequality between rural and urban areas. As part of national values and ideologies, AIS and IS take these concepts with them.

Despite the call for lifelong learning in various nations, not all countries have the same background or motives for education. Different parts or regions of the world's encounter different land resources, economic status, or cultural adversities. For example, Ketterer & Marsh (2001), explain how Latino students are becoming mayors and judges in Latin America because of the strong US influence in terms of political, pedagogical, and democratic values taught to students in Central and South America. Arab nations have different influences and motives linked to US and Western values. Chrystall, (2014) explains how over the next 50-150 years, oil in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) will be depleted so the country is setting a vision of revenue to grow tourism and business. In order to do this, the Abu Dhabi Education Council (ADEC) is currently reforming the educational system by replacing Arab teachers with Western, English

speaking teachers. The reformation of the educational system has adverse implications for a disconnect between Arab students and their culture and language.

However, it is important to note that not all countries value education through the same lens. Social cohesion or conflict can be promoted within education depending upon a country. For example, in Kenya some programs provide a common type of instructional delivery for an ethnically mixed student body that positively contributes to ethnic tolerance, whereas in Sri Lanka different types of instructional medium are used to deliver curriculum ensuring that different hierarchical classes of people are socialized and educated separately (Little & Green, 2009). The type of formal curricula delivered by educators and schools to students can either hinder or promote values, attitudes, or skills of learning. Although the importance of educational policy has increased and global discussions are on the rise, actual action steps to implement new educational policies that are conducive to learning for a more diverse and global population are challenging to implement across nations (Jakobi, 2009). The issues and challenges come from differences in attempting to blend culture, values, and types of government policies in a host country culture. Other influential contributions to creating and sustaining an AIS or IS comes in the form of funding or financial stability. The next section focuses on funding and finances of an AIS or IS overseas.

Finances and integrating AIS and IS. AIS and IS must adhere to host country culture's government, policies, and financial regulations and constraints. Regulations from foreign governments overseas highly influence how AIS and IS are managed (Ortloff, et. al., 2001). Laws contributing to host country needs must be followed despite the fact that these laws may conflict with the AIS or IS views of the school's mission and vision (Ortloff, et. al., 2001). For example, within the US, public schools are highly regulated by federal, state, and local

government. In addition, democratic values are adhered to in schools. Although public schools in the US are heavily influenced by state and federal regulations, AIS overseas have a higher degree of independence. IS from other countries housed overseas also experience similar influences from the mother country in a school abroad. In both AIS and IS, stakeholders such as parents, investors, and the school board, do significantly influence and partake in school governance and bylaws, which is different than observed in host countries (Ortloff, et. al., 2001). In other words, host country policies and laws dictate the composition of the AIS and IS school boards overseas, yet locally school boards have influence over the schools as well.

The host country's government may require different rules and information from an AIS and IS than what would be required within the US or other mother country. Documentation in a host country may require financial records, school board minutes, public meeting minutes, and official reports (Ortloff, et. al., 2001). In addition, AIS and IS adhere to the host countries holidays, required vacations, health restrictions, and labor laws. The location of the school within a host country also has specific and strict guidelines in order to maintain establishment. AIS and IS may deal with cultural constraints when establishing a school such as adhering to law and finances associated with building facilities, renting or owning a building, purchasing supplies, paying taxes, and utilities (Ortloff, et. al., 2001). The ability to navigate host country laws and finances is a balancing act for AIS and IS on top of the task of managing the educational part of the school.

The specifics of finances and budgets under host country law may present issues for AIS and IS and therefore schools need to find creative ways to manage the school. Finances generally have a different organizational structure overseas than they do in the US or other countries. For example, resource applications, practices associated with accounting, and financial planning

required by the US or other country to maintain a school may not meet the unusual conditions characterized by international schools housed in a host country (Ortloff, et. al., 2001). The way in which AIS and IS are funded is challenging in and of itself. Most AIS and IS operate based solely on funds from tuition and fees from families or companies. Therefore, some international schools have high tuitions or are constantly raising fees which are not always feasible and sustainable (Ortloff, et. al., 2001). AIS and IS fees may cover updates to the physical facilities and building infrastructures to accommodate structural codes of a host country. Further, fund-raising has become a necessity to increase the finances needed by the school. Therefore, some schools struggle to stay established due to the lack of finances needed to pay educator salaries, maintain facilities, and adhere to host country regulations. However, some overseas support is available. International school support for managing an international school is offered by independent nongovernment organizations such as the Association for the Advancement of International Education (AAIE) as well as approximately 15 other associations that unite IS worldwide (AAIE.org).

Government opinions on host culture kids attending AIS and IS. Some governments are open to having their host country students attend AIS or IS, and other nations state concerns. Host country governmental opinions influence the acceptance of AIS and IS in host country nations. For AIS and IS, the impact of an international educational experience for host country students is important to understand (Bailey, 2015). For example, educators and students may be more careful about what they say in a classroom full of diverse students composed of host country students and students abroad. Host country culture students may experience cultural shock similar to other international students traveling to another country because the classrooms are so diverse and students are attending schools from diverse countries (Ward, et. al, 2001).

Culture shock is the immigration to a new culture without fully getting a sense of belonging (Alder, 1975; Dunn, 2011; Fail, Thompson, & Walker, 2004). Bailey (2015) defines culture shock as evoking feelings of uncertainty, anxiety, or stress. Students attending international schools may not have a full comprehension of their cultural identity because of their multiple experiences and exposures known as *disjointed identity* (Sears, 2011).

However, at the government level concerns are different and based upon whether the needs of the country are being met. National and state governments have different and evolving responses as to whether they want local children to attend international schools because “national cohesion and identity will consequently be reduced” (Bailey, 2015, p. 86). Local children are considered host country national students. The author further discusses that many countries are now open to having host culture students attending international schools, but did not begin with that opinion without hesitation. For example, some countries such as China, Malaysia, and Switzerland have placed restrictions on the number of local children that are permitted to attend international schools. Malaysian government rules before 2006 made it clear that in order for a child to attend an international school, one parent had to be of foreign descent, or the student was to have lived abroad for at least three consecutive years. Between 2006 and 2012, only 40% of an international school could be comprised of Malaysian students. By 2012, the country of Malaysia began to soften their roles and evolve the attendance requirement to allow unlimited attendance of local national children in international schools. The Malaysian government now has a goal of serving 75,000 students at international schools by the year 2020 (Bailey, 2015). As seen by this example, many countries may hesitate to have host country students attend international schools, but many are beginning to see the value of making their students global.

This last section discussed the extrinsic factors influencing AIS and IS. Extrinsic factors included host country government and policies, laws, and finance. In addition, dedication to lifelong learning, implications for economic growth, and government opinions of AIS and IS were presented. The next section considers cognitive styles as a blend between intrinsic and extrinsic factors that affect managing an AIS or IS.

Cognitive Styles

Cognitive styles are a blend between intrinsic and extrinsic variables. Intrinsic because of how students learn and extrinsic because of cultural or social norms or pressures with a society or region. Variations in cognitive style based on cultural norms may be a major contributing factor to explaining differences in educational practices between different nations. For the purposes of this study, cognitive styles are best described as how a person thinks, remembers, or solves problems (InstructionalDesign.org). For example, when comparing cognitive styles between the US and Eastern Asian countries, the cognitive styles of the US are more *analytic* whereas those of Eastern Asia are more *holistic* (Imada, et. al, 2013). The author uses an example from Japan where people spend more time using indirect communication to maintain harmony than do the people in the US. During cognitive studies, “Japanese children were more context sensitive than American children” developing through socialization and cultural environments seen in elementary schools (Imada, et. al, 2013, p. 205). As a matter of fact, the authors go on to say, awareness of culture begins to emerge around the ages of four and five.

In other regions of the world such as the Middle East, cognitive styles also differ from those from the West. For example, Tellis, et.al. (2014, p. 157) states, Qatar still has “a society that is still not hospitable to many ideals and practices that underlie an intellectual culture that is conducive to the freedom of inquiry and expression in the autonomy of the individual”. However

in places such as Abu Dhabi, a real push is being made to provide students with freedom of inquiry and autonomy by providing English language skills in conversation and academics in addition to collaboration and innovation of ideas within and between students (Chrystall, 2014).

The author continues that in a culture where religious leaders are the knowledge source, it is challenging to change an authoritative mindset to one of collaboration and openness within the classroom. Peters & Roberts (2012, p. 5) discussed open-mindedness as those whom “possess the virtues required of the future global citizen who emphasizes openness to others above all”.

Therefore, changing the cognitive style from a religious source as the primary authoritative leader and teacher to a style of collaboration of open-mindedness is progressing in the Middle East.

Implications for genetic differences between cultures may also have some merit. Imada (et. al., 2013) suggests that genetic makeup may play a role identifying discrepancies in cultural cognitive styles. The difference in context sensitivity may be because of the dopamine D4 receptor gene, a highly linked gene associated with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder. The US actually has a significantly higher rate of the gene within the population than the Eastern Asian nations, implying a genetic connection to cognitive styles.

Development and learning in younger children has significant implications. Genetics and neuroscience have indications that early childhood is a critically sensitive period for brain development in children (Tobin, Hsueh, & Karasawa, 2009). In addition to genetics influencing development, cultural values contributing to the differing cognitive styles between countries influence learning and must be taken into account for AIS and IS. For example, when compared to Japan “Americans are more likely than the Japanese to use informal logic to categorize objects and understand events, whereas the Japanese are more likely to group objects upon intuitive

reasoning” (Takeuchi, 1997, p. 1). One way cognitive styles may be caused by cultural differences might be in how individuals perceive themselves and the world, called *construals* (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Construals are best summed up in the quote, “in America, the squeaky wheel gets the grease. In Japan, a nail that stands out it's pounded down” (p. 224). In other words, in the US it is important for people to stand out and express individualism and autonomy, whereas in Japan people value blending into society.

Cognitive styles in various countries related to language and content also impact students' learning experience. Evidence exists for language differences between cultures in the area of math. In a study conducted by Miura, Okamoto, Kim, Chang, Steere, & Fayol (1994), the researchers found that Asian children performed better in math because of the structure of the number language system in Chinese, Japanese, and Korean language relative to Western languages such as French, Swedish, and English. Differences in math achievement may be contributed to variations in school and home experience, where parental expectations may be higher for academic performance in Asian countries. The relationship between language and content is evidenced by international math achievement assessments where higher achievement scores are consistently performed by students of Asian descent (Byrne, 1989; Husen, 1967; Miller & Linn, 1986; Stevenson, Lee, & Stigler, 1986).

People in Eastern Asia and the West have divergent views of themselves. Western individuals are seen as autonomous, self-contained, and independent, whereas Eastern Asian individuals are interdependent and they see themselves in relation to and connected to each other (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). The differences between independent and interdependent cultures is seen through psychological processes of cognition, emotion, and motivation (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). The authors further suggest that in cultures such as Japan, a higher priority is

placed on a sense of belonging, empathy, dependency, and reciprocity whereas in the West people feel the importance of standing out as being distinguished from the rest of the population. For example, more ego-focused emotions such as anger are expressed for independent selves such as seen in the US, but with interdependent cultures cooperative social behavior such as empathy is more acceptable such as in Japan (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). People in the US feel the emotions such as anger more intensely and longer than do people in Japan. Anger is considered threatening and highly dysfunctional in the Japanese culture and therefore positive emotional expressions are the commonly exhibited emotions in public instead. Markus & Kitayama further suggest that in cross-cultural studies examining anger, the Japanese are more likely to feel anger towards strangers and describe the situation in third person whereas in the US anger is expressed more toward close relationships and individuals and people describe themselves as the victim in anger situations.

The differences in socialization between independent and interdependent cultures is reflected in the developmental structure within schools. Although the West and Eastern Asia agree that early childhood education itself prepares students to succeed, the strategy of child development is viewed differently in education. In the US, child development is influenced by social traditions within an industrialized type of society focusing on individual development and ethnic diversity coinciding with scaffolding of higher levels of skill and ability development to prepare children to become adults (Hoffman, 2000). Although, the author continues, Eastern Asian early childhood education is progressive, it lacks references to developmental stages and measurements of an individual's progression toward developmental norms linked to cultural beliefs. In other words, early childhood education focuses on children being children and not yet preparing to become independent adults.

This last section provided a description of those intrinsic and extrinsic factors influencing culture. Intrinsic factors are inclusive of gender, religious orientation, and SES. External factors included foreign governments, policies, and finances. In addition, extrinsic factors were also related to countries promoting dedication to lifelong learning as a resource for potential economic growth of the country. The aspect of cognitive styles regarding how students learn was also discussed as a blend between intrinsic and extrinsic factors contributing to the impact of a host country culture on international schools.

This section discussed the complexity of cognitive styles and their importance to how children learn. Arguments in this literature review discussed both genetic and cultural connections to cognitive styles. The next section discusses the impact of teaching and learning on students. Cognitive styles in teaching and learning should not be considered independent of each other, but rather interrelated to one another. This is important because AIS and IS have a highly diverse student body with a varied teaching and administrative staff that contribute to student learning and success.

Educational Practices in AIS and IS

Educational practice within schools are important driving forces in AIS and IS. Practices include elements of curriculum, instruction, and assessments meeting both the school's needs and host country culture needs. A balance between the host country culture and international schools is a fluid, fine line in managing, leading, and navigating the success and challenges of an international school abroad. This next section discusses the balance of educational practices of an AIS and IS in a host country culture. Educational practices reviewed in this section include aspects of teaching and learning, students views on teaching styles, parental expectations, students with special needs, professional development, and community relationships. The last

part of this section focuses on international assessments that AIS and IS used to remain competitive along with potential reasons for differences in test scores between countries.

Teaching and Learning

This next section discusses teaching and learning and the implications for diversity by nation. Teaching and learning consider cultural aspects acknowledged within the classroom. Each nation tends to have their own teaching and learning styles. Differences in teaching and learning styles are examined under aspects such as the language instruction, pedagogical practices, and academics such as democratic values, student views and parental expectations, taboo topics, and differentiated instruction for students. In working with a diverse population of students, administrators and teachers need to be sensitive to the cultural and religious differences within the school population. This next section examines points of view school faculty must be cognizant of within a school abroad in order to manage an AIS and IS especially with a diverse population of students.

Language. Every region or nation has different cultural norms and views that the population of people living there generally adhered to in order to be successful. Curriculum delivered in international schools may clash with the country's own nationalism and nationalistic values (Bailey, 2015). Han & Makino (2013) suggest culture and cultural heritage need to be acquired or learned especially in education because it is not something that is automatically built within a society. One important aspect of culture and cultural heritage is the predominant language used within a region or nation. Many AIS and IS are required to teach the host country's official language and in many cases incorporate the host country curricula (Ketterer & Marsh, 2001; Ortloff, et. al., 2001). Bailey (2015) discusses that taking a child's dominant language away from them is the first step in taking away their cultural identity. Therefore, staff

in AIS and IS must understand and appreciate the issues that accompany language and cultural diversity within the school (Ortloff, et. al., 2001). The authors further suggest that schools overseas have a much highly diverse population of students than do schools stateside in the US or in other countries and thus educators need to provide effective instructional practices that touch diverse learners (Ortloff, et. al., 2001). The type of values delivered by an AIS or IS are important constructs to establish an educational ideology. In the next section, the researcher touches upon the most common worldwide ideology which is democracy, particularly by the West.

Democratic values. Democratic values and ideals are the foundation for many Western schools. The development of educational standards in the US was important because the standards evolved as the country grew to meet the needs of the nation. Policymakers and politicians strongly influenced the structure of schools in the US. NCLB had a dramatic effect on early childhood education in order to improve assessment outcomes and achievement standards (Tobin, et. al., 2009). In another article, Tobin (1995), discusses that the post-Vietnam era allowed the US to shift from a more modern to a post-modern, industrial and post-industrial nation to become a more service-oriented economy, which is where early childhood curriculum made headway in self-expression pedagogy. A strong cultural belief in the right to pursue happiness exists in the US and therefore, is reflected in the curriculum, which values choice and promotes individualism provided by democracy and capitalism (Tobin, et. al., 2009). The promotion of individualism is where early childhood educators believe self-expression becomes exhibited. Self-inexpression is a positive core quality exhibited by people of the US and therefore teachers believe that students should have opinions and be able to verbalize them (Tobin, et. al., 2009).

Tellis (2014) found that educational philosophies and values are weighted differently depending on the country. AIS and IS do not always have cultural commonalities because of diversity in the host country in which it resides (Bailey, 2015). Adhering to educational philosophies and values for an AIS or IS in a host country can present challenges. In taking the US as an example of incorporating democratic values, two types of American educational elements are imported into a host country (Tellis, 2014). Tellis states the first element is easy to import, which consists of American curriculum and instruction. However, the second element that gets incorporated is more challenging to integrate, which consists of values different than the American democratic spirit. Democratic spirit is the tension between competition and cooperation, freedom of speech and expression, and the development of autonomy. Host country students need to be socialized or become familiar with the democratic style of education in many AIS and IS. For example, democratic spirit can be especially difficult to learn in countries such as Qatar where science, politics, and cultural allegiances clash (Cohen, 2013). Qatari students need to understand the social aspects of an American type of education in AIS (Tellis, 2014). However, Qatar has slowly begun to integrate and experience a modern and liberal educational value system experienced in the West from countries such as the US, the UK, and Canada at the university level as of 1998 (Tellis, 2014).

Not only are values important in pedagogical practices, but other factors as well, such as how parents and students view the teaching styles of such diverse faculty within the schools. Students, which are the biggest stakeholders, also have views and opinions on the teaching styles of teachers. The next part focuses on students views on teaching styles, parental expectations, and how they contribute to the success along with students with special needs.

Students' view on teaching styles. Teaching style is a significant factor in the success of students in AIS and IS because of cultural identity and type of pedagogical instruction.

Expatriate staff may hinder the cultural identity of students attending an international school in the host culture country because of their own education and background (Bailey, 2015). For example, teachers at international schools in Thailand found that teaching methods they used previously were ineffective in Thai schools (Bailey, 2015). Asian students in an Australian international boarding school had difficulty succeeding because of “contrasting conceptions of learning and teaching” (Major, 2015). Students from different nations may be accustomed to different types of teaching, and therefore students would also need to adapt to how teachers deliver instruction and how students themselves learn. For example, Asian students are generally less satisfied and less successful with independent learning and instruction rather than lecture-based lessons and have difficulty adapting in their new academic setting in a different country (Lemke-Westcott & Johnson, 2013; Campbell & Li, 2008; Bailey, 2015). Therefore, not only do teachers need to adapt their teaching styles to integrate the host country culture styles, but students also require an adjustment period to pedagogical styles of teachers when attending an AIS or IS. In Malaysia, students have specific expectations of how their teachers will teach in order to effectively learn despite teachers being from a Western culture (Bailey, 2015).

One person raised in India relayed his experience as an Indian student coming into the American educational system in higher education. He relayed that the American system of education comes with choices of academic courses and extracurricular options that are generally foreign to international students (Tellis, 2014). In addition, he continues that classrooms are set up to have free ranging conversations that have emerged from readings or experiences. He was not prepared for the difference in the cultural educational standards in the US where students

were more self-driven, critical, and adventurous. Another author also found cultural differences in academics in the Middle East. Yaakub (2009) found that in the Middle East, Islamic and Arabic studies reflected politics in studies rather than academics as seen in other countries.

Teaching styles not only impact how students learn, but parents also have expectations of how their children are taught. The next section reviews parental expectations of teachers teaching abroad in a host country culture.

Parental expectations. Teaching styles and curricula used by teachers in AIS and IS are sometimes in conflict with parental expectations from the host country culture. Parents that have students attending AIS or IS want their children to be successful and motivated to learn. However, a parent and student from one country entering a different host country culture may not have the same views regarding the success and motivation of how students learn. Different styles of teaching and learning may affect the success of student achievement. For example, in Western countries such as Australia and Canada, students tend to be motivated by competition, where as in Asia and Qatar students are motivated by social approval (Bailey, 2015). Even at the college level motivation is social. Asian students tend to spend more time socializing rather than participating in college activities that are diversified because Eastern Asian cultures highly value time with friends (Zhao, et. al., 2005).

Parents at international schools expect to see their own country's values and ideals through the teaching style of the instructor. Parents in Qatar want educational values to reflect religious knowledge, which is not typically seen in educational values within Europe or the US (Amer, et.al., 2009). Parental expectations of what makes a good teacher and a good lesson in Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates, is if the teacher has exceptional skills in classroom management and spends about 40 minutes in teacher-directed instruction (Chrystall, 2014).

Teacher-directed instruction is not always favored by parents from other countries. Differences can create issues between AIS and IS and parents who have children attending schools.

Although parental expectations in teaching styles are not always met, AIS and IS do provide consistency in curriculum between schools in countries for those families that work abroad. Many AIS and IS have common standards used between nations to provide consistency in education for overseas families who travel frequently. For example, AIS and US public schools (and IS and UK public schools) have a commonality between their schools in the fact that similar textbooks and curricula are utilized regardless of where the school is housed. Common standards, curricula, and textbooks are used overseas because parents want their children to receive a similar education as if they were in their own host country (Ortloff, et. al., 2001). In addition, parents overseas examine schools to see if they have acquired accreditation from nonprofit organizations such as New England Association of Schools and Colleges (NEASC) or Commission on International Education (CIE). The reason being that many AIS and IS preferred to be accredited by stateside or country associations because academic work of students is easily transferable between AIS and IS in a diverse array of countries (Ortloff, et. al., 2001) and many colleges and universities accept students from schools that are credited.

Taboo instructional topics. Teachers are also cautious about the type of information they present to students. Because of the lack of uncertainty about host country cultures, teachers may tend to play it safe regarding information they discuss with students in the classroom during lectures. For example, teachers may be weary of offending religious practices, or discussing drugs and sexuality in a foreign country that would otherwise be suitable in a Western culture (Bailey, 2015). Even the concept of teaching democracy and gender equality, especially for AIS or Western IS, can be a sensitive subject. AIS and Western IS are known for offering curriculum

that is rich in democracy (Ketterer & Marsh, 2001; Orr, 1974). However, this is a point of contention in some Arab and Muslim nations. As Waghid, & Davids (2014, p. 343) state, “Democracy is out of step with the tenets of Islamic *Shari’ah* law” and respect for different views and diversity seen in a democratic society are unlikely to flourish in the Arab and Muslim world. Further, the authors continue that pedagogy related to openness is lacking. Until gender inequity is eradicated, then the concept of democratic citizenship and education is non-existent (Waghid, & Davids, 2014).

From a Western perspective, some teachers may use host country culture background information in order to get the objective of the lesson across to students making a personal connection. However this may be done very cautiously. For example, if American schools in the US were to examine what cultural issues or challenges can occur overseas, a point of reference might include an examination of immigrant families into the US schools. Schoorman & Zainuddin (2008) suggest that for Guatemalan children entering US schools, educators should use Guatemalan background as a catalyst for learning by incorporating Guatemala history to bridge the gap in students’ comprehension and learning. However, they further warned that sometimes discussing another country’s history could open psychological wounds that educators are not prepared to deal with such as the Guatemalan civil war that occurred in the 1990s. By including students into the dominant culture the need to learn skills for survival in accordance with understanding their own history is disseminated while simultaneously being a part of the US democratic culture (Aronowitz & Giroux, 1998). Educators must help students learn to be successful rather than victimized.

Students with disabilities. Providing an environment for students to be successful is not only for the general education population, but also for students to require differentiated

instruction or may have learning disabilities. In terms of pedagogical practices, the West tends to focus on the link between developmentally appropriate practices through scaffolding and individualized supports. For example, it is important that a match exists “between instructional tasks or activities and developmental level” of students is practiced in the US (Hoffman, 2000, p. 196). Cognitive development, critical thinking, and problem solving are seen as separate from learning social skills (Hoffman, 2000). Curriculum tends to shape the child, but is separate from social development. Therefore, more emphasis is placed on providing extra supports for special needs students because quality education should be accessible with equal opportunities for all (Tobin, et. al., 2009). The US system focuses on individual limitations and deficiencies of children by examining developmental benchmarks and whether children are achieving or are falling behind relative to those benchmarks (Hoffman, 2000). The author further attests that children are grouped by developmental ability rather than thought of as a community of learners, which promotes individualism rather than thinking as a group. In addition, classroom setups are generally structured as whole group instruction and although teachers provide choices for children, they are predetermined choices by adults which do not provide full freedom for the students (Hoffman, 2000). Hence, the offering of individualized services and targeted programs for children are “tied to the cultural belief in individuality... focusing on individual rights and a belief in the importance of individual difference” (Tobin, et. al., 2009, p. 205).

However, AIS and IS do not necessarily have the funding or supports to provide students with disabilities accommodations they need in order to attend and be successful at these schools. Many overseas schools are unable to afford services related to special education and therefore policies exist that do not allow students with severe learning or physical challenges to enroll in AIS or IS (Ortloff, et. al., 2001). For example, although individual differences are recognized

within children in Japan, the diversity among children is not used to determine the type of educational experiences offered to the child and therefore a common educational experience is provided to all children, regardless of potential special-needs instruction (Hoffman, 2000). Children in Japan are not provided differentiated instruction like in the US. The author further states that Japanese classrooms offer long-term small group discussions with positive emotional involvement where children take on tasks and responsibilities including correcting each other's work (Hoffman, 2000). The distinction here is that students in Japan are not provided individual developmental plans focused on content like they are in the US, but rather the focus is on developing social skills along with feelings of empathy.

Students with disabilities also find challenges in competing with other students in general education. Students that need differentiated instruction are not encouraged to be candidates to take international student achievement tests. As a general rule, students with disabilities are usually excluded from international student assessments because they are not the desired target population and do not promote culture of achievement according to Schuelka (2013). These tests have implications for only the best and brightest students taking the international student achievement tests, and not providing equity for students with special needs. This also impacts whether AIS or IS accept students with special needs.

Teaching styles, family expectations, and accommodations for differentiated instruction for students with disabilities contribute to how an AIS and IS navigate the needs of their largest clientele, which are the students. The next section discusses what AIS and IS do to assist in integrating host country culture expectations within the school.

Professional development. Teaching styles and integration of teachers into host country culture is important not only for the success of the students but for teacher training in cultural

sensitivity. Professional development (PD) for staff employed in AIS and IS provide opportunities for expatriate new administrators and teachers to respectfully learn about international education and cultural norms associated with the host country. Educators working at AIS and IS are employed within a culture that is very different than their own and therefore staff work and live under unique and sometimes difficult circumstances (Ortloff, et. al., 2001). Even host country teachers would benefit from professional development related to working in an international school. Ortloff, et. al., (2001) suggests that host country teachers provide the benefit of diversity for students, but challenges arise in the ability for schools to meet their professional development needs. The authors go on to say a strong need exists for professional development in AIS and IS, especially regarding the most current educational techniques and strategies implemented in the West, such as student-centered work. For example, even in public schools in Abu Dhabi, Arab teachers are working toward pedagogical change where they begin to use English as the mode of instruction and work toward implementing student-centered approaches (Chrystall, 2014). The author further discusses that the concept the Ministry of Education and Abu Dhabi is taking is to develop existing Arab teachers rather than replace them with Western teachers.

Although training does occur in AIS and IS, pertinent and easily accessible professional development available in international education is sometimes lacking. Some examples of lack of PD include technology integration and strategic planning related to student learning (Chrystall, 2014). Student learning is an important aspect for teachers to understand because of the diversity of students attending the school. Zhao, et. al., (2005) believes school staff should share the responsibility of monitoring the quality of life students have within the school. Sharing responsibility is not always easy if educators are not trained in diversity sensitivity and host

culture norms. Educators in international schools benefit from learning best pedagogical practices and diverse cultural sensitivity in order to help students be successful in the environment in which they are going to school. In addition, professional development from the school provides opportunities for administrators and staff to learn about the local culture in the community and create relationships, which are discussed in the next section.

Community relationships. One major component to establishing a successfully managed AIS or IS is the quality of the community relationships with the host country. Building community relationships with the region in which the AIS or IS is housed, provide an opportunity for the schools to integrate themselves into the local culture and form partnerships. Ortloff, et. al., (2001) suggests one major role of school administrators is to present strategies that promote effective relations with the local community and the country. One way to determine if host country cultures are integrated or assimilated into the school is to identify whether host country holidays are given off for students (Bailey, 2015). Some schools observe host country culture national holidays, celebrations, and/or religious holidays, which help schools develop beneficial relationships country.

To keep AIS and IS competitive on an international scale, delivering a rigorous educational experience for students is key to maintaining and sustaining a school. Much of the motivation to offer a strong comprehensive education and a competitive educational experience come from the community or the host country itself. AIS and IS receive pressure from the school community to maintain rigor and be on the cutting edge of instruction and learning (Ortloff, et. al., 2001). For example, the schools may ask expatriate and host country parents what their vision of good education looks like based upon their own experiences and values (Ortloff, et. al., 2001) and then try to adopt and match rigorous experiences. The ability to assimilate and

integrate a community's values of international competitiveness and rigor assist in developing strong partnerships with the public and sense of belonging for the school within the host culture. One way in which AIS and IS are accountable for being competitive is through the performance in international student achievement tests. International benchmark tests and scores are addressed in the next section.

Comparison of International Test Scores

During the evolution of the educational system, evidence was provided for different learning and instructional strategies used in early education between the countries. The development of the educational philosophies between many countries including the US became divergent. Much has to do with the differences in cognitive styles and culture. However, some questions are posed. What difference does educational philosophy have on student achievement and performance? How have these events impacted the manifestation of international test scores?

The International Tests

In order for countries to compare the success of their educational policies regarding student achievement, international tests were developed. In mathematics, general international testing began in the 1960s and in the sciences in the 1970s in the US (Ravitch, 2013). During these decades the US scored comparable to Eastern Asian students. However, by the second round of international tests administered in 1981, the US students performed at the global median while Eastern Asians' average was higher than the top 5% of the US. Since the 1980s, Eastern Asian countries have significantly outperformed the US continuing to this day.

The purpose of the results of international tests assists in creating educational policies to become key predictors for student learning (Hooper, Mullis, & Martin, 2015). The first official international test in mathematics was launched in 1995 and was called the Trends in International

Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS), which was given to students worldwide in grades four, eight, and high school for advanced mathematics and for physics (Ravitch, 2013). A second test called the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) was launched in 1997 and was given to 15-year-olds (Ravitch, 2013). These two international assessments are still currently used as a benchmark for assessing international student performance between countries recognized by the global Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). TIMSS and PISA “data can be utilized for examining the current educational practice and student environment for indicating success of education policies” (Liou & Hung, 2013, p. 1462). The authors continue to describe the analysis behind the tests, which include comparisons using the most common statistical descriptive statistics, correlations, and independent *t* tests. In general, PISA is more popular and more frequently utilized than TIMSS (Liou & Hung, 2013). An overview and example of the PISA score results will be discussed first followed by the TIMSS scores. The most current available data is summarized. Since multiple nations utilize TIMSS and PISA, two nations will be used as an example for comparison, which are the US and Japan. The significance of the example is to illustrate country competition and cultural dynamics between countries trying to improve their economics and be a strong world identity.

Despite a slow start to achievement scores in the 60s and 70s, Japan’s performance improved between 2003 and 2012 on the math PISA (OECD, 2012). Results also showed that in 2012 Japan scored significantly above the OECD average whereas the US achieved significantly below the average. PISA scores in Japan decreased between 2003 and 2006 but still performed well compared to other OECD countries in mathematics and science, unlike the US that remained at the median (Knipprath, 2009). Overall Japan performed significantly better than the US on the PISA assessments.

In comparing the most recent TIMSS scores from 2011 (the 2015 results were not yet available at the time of this study), Japan again outperformed the US in both science and mathematics. In examining science scores for the fourth graders in Japan and the US, Japan ranked fourth world-wide and the US ranked seventh demonstrating that Japanese students performed significantly higher than students from the US (Martin, Mullis, Foy, & Stanco, 2012). The authors point out the same significant difference for the eighth grade student scores, where Japan ranked fourth globally and the US ranked tenth. The TIMSS mathematics assessment scores followed suit. Fourth graders in Japan ranked fifth in the world whereas the US ranked 11th in the world in mathematics (Mullis, Martin, Foy, & Arora, 2012). The authors further demonstrate the same for eighth graders. Japanese students ranked fifth globally versus ninth in the US making the difference in scores significantly different. Both PISA and TIMSS assessments show Japan significantly outperforming the US in both mathematics and science in grades four and eight.

Potential Reasons for Differences in Test Scores between Countries

Many contributing factors may exist accounting for contrasts between international test scores between countries. One idea is that pre-kindergarten and kindergarten may have a significant impact on the grade four TIMSS scores. Countries that had students attend pre-kindergarten and kindergarten performed significantly higher in grade four mathematics in TIMSS in 2011 than other countries that either did not provide pre-kindergarten or kindergarten or provided inconsistent access to pre-kindergarten and kindergarten (Sandoval-Hernandez, Taniguchi, Aghakasiri, International Association for Evaluation of Educational Achievement, & Hiroshima, 2013; Wagemaker, P., 2007). OECD countries that have children attend pre-kindergarten and kindergarten performed 535 points higher on PISA scores than did children that

did not attend pre-primary schools (OECD, 2012). As a matter of fact, researchers suggest that attending preschool education contributes to more positive learning outcomes in later grades. “Participation in preschool education and mathematics achievement was positive significant” for grade four students (International Association for evaluation of Educational Achievement, 2013, p. 6). The more time and money spent on pre-kindergarten and kindergartens, the greater the significant correlation to higher achieving scores in mathematics and science in grade four (Wagemaker, P., 2007).

Another major factor suggested by this literature review that may influence international scores were distinctive styles of teaching practices and problem-solving skills. Although international assessments are a “larger cultural and collective process based around shared global values and ideas of legitimacy” (Smith, 2014, p. 11), teaching styles may contribute to success on international tests. Cultural variance between countries contributes to distinctions in teaching practices and therefore impacts student assessment scores (Lyons & Niblock, 2014). For example, House & Telese (2006) found that the higher international assessment scores are a reflection of Japanese teachers integrating more active learning in instruction. Students in Japan score higher on problem-solving questions that require multiple steps whereas students in the US perform better on interactive problems requiring students to uncover information needed to solve a problem (OECD, 2012). In Abu Dhabi, future employment for teachers is terminated if educators do not perform to the expected high standards (Chrystall, 2014). It behooves teachers to adapt to the teaching styles necessary to make students successful.

Successes and Challenges in Creating Cultural Cohesion

Although AIS and IS having many commonalities, such as providing an international education that meets the rigor and standards of an international school abroad, cultures may not

always be in sync. Different types of governance within a host country, western ideologies, teaching styles, and student adaptation may create cultural clashes. For instance, the same education may hold different weights and values to different people in separate cultures. Trellis (2014), found that a college level education in India gets a person a low-level government or corporate job, whereas in Qatar a college education gets a person a senior level position with high responsibilities and influences. This next section specifically examines cultural clashes and adaptations between host country and international schools and the reasons behind cultural issues.

Cultural ideals and values between different nationalities can be a challenge to navigate for a school. Not all nations agree on the same morals or philosophies. Integrating host country culture in an AIS or IS needs to be managed and navigated in order to sustain a school. Cultural challenges occur when two different societies converge in a *contact zone*, indicating a place where “cultures meet, clash, and grapple with each other, often being contexts of highly asymmetrical relations of power” (Pratt, 1991, p. 34). Areas of contact zones are recognized between cultures, but some cultures have limited tolerance for race, class, and gender with underlying accusations of “elitism, racism, sexism, homophobia, radicalism, liberalism, and conservatism” (Brodkey, 1996, p. 28). Educators in AIS and IS must be aware of the differences in cultures, taboo topics, and ideologies since they are guests in another country that may not have matching philosophies. Students also must be aware of the diverse cultures within a school, and awareness takes adaptation on their part. The next section discusses ways in which students adapt to other cultures in international schools. The student adaptation perspective is taken by both the host country student and a student from outside the host country culture.

Student Adaptation

Although host country students do not need to adapt to a new culture, they do need to be open to other cultures attending the international schools because of the diverse population. Host culture kids that stay in the country's national education system differ from their peers in that they have limited interaction with third culture students that attended international schools (Bailey, 2015). He also notes that host culture students are not as transient as third culture kids because they live within their host country and therefore the international setting does not envelope all aspects of their lives or distract them from their home culture. Third culture kids are national or expatriate students attending American International Schools or International Schools and are impacted by cultural differences (Bailey, 2015). Host country students and parents are not concerned about losing their cultural identity because they already live in and are immersed within their own culture (Bailey, 2015). For instance, Malaysian students don't think it is the responsibility for the international school to help maintain the cultural identity of the students because students are more interested in gaining the cultural capital at the school than they are worried about losing their host country value (Bailey, 2015). Therefore, although adaptation is required of host country students toward other non-host country students, it may produce as much anxiety as it would be for a student coming from abroad. More cultural adjustments need to be made by the transient student population.

Students entering an AIS or IS from a country different than the host country may experience more extreme culture shock than host country students. Many students entering a new host country culture experience culture shock which manifests itself in the form of feelings of stress and anxiety as well as rejection and isolation. (Zhao, et. al., 2005). Students may isolate themselves or gravitate toward others of similar cultural identity. Students prefer to make friends

with people in the same country but adapt better if they cultivate friendships with students of host countries (Zhao, et. al., 2005). Maintaining a personal cultural identity is also a risk with transient students. Zhao, et. al, states that “adapting to customs... may conflict with aspects of the personal and cultural identity of international students” (2005, p. 211). Students may even try to socialize more with other students from a similar culture. When students first arrive in an international setting in which they do not know the language, students tend to use a lot of technology to avoid embarrassing situations within an unfamiliar culture, but this use decreases over time as socialization with peers increases (Zhao, et. al., 2005). Accepting students into an AIS or IS is more than just an application, but requires an understanding that they will be merging with many unique cultures that may or may not have similarities to their own. Despite the issues and challenges of students attending an AIS or IS, many good reasons exist for children having an exposure to a global culture. The next section examines the reasons for parents sending their children to an international school.

Attending International Schools

Parents and students within a host country culture may choose to have their children attend international schools for various reasons. At times, parents may not have a lot of choices so they look for consistency within an education as they work overseas.

According to Bailey (2015), international schools must contain five aspects or structural components. The first is that the medium of instruction is English. Some children attend international schools not only so that they can learn English, but because they learn a new culture and it provides access to higher education overseas (Bailey, 2015). For example in Japan, parents want children to have exposure to other cultures and access to universities overseas. In Buenos Aires and in India, parents and students choose an international school for exposure to bilingual

education and because they value academics over full integration of their own host culture values. Parents and students feel that an international education will provide them with access to better colleges overseas. However for students that do not understand English where it is used as the dominant language, some students' cultural identity can become confused.

Second, an international school must have an international curriculum usually pertaining to a Western curriculum. Attending an international school builds a cultural capital of students, which is the exposure to Western values and ideals through education (Bailey, 2015). Third, approaches to teaching at an international school are different than national government schools. For example, national schools tend to have larger class sizes with more disciplinary issues and practical constraints for the teachers. Bailey (2015, p. 91) states that, "the Malaysian teachers add a different dimension to teaching because expatriate teachers tend to be more focused on learning and creativity and Asian teachers tend to be more exam-centered". It is also interesting to note that in most cases expatriate staff do not discuss education with national government faculty in local schools about teaching styles related to the host country, and the local students actually do not prefer the Western style of teaching in Malaysia. The fourth aspect is the approach to learning. Learning new cultural context for staff can create challenges. For example, some countries particularly from the Asian region have students with a higher level of motivation to learn and less ability to embrace mistakes relative to the US culture. Asian students generally do not like to make mistakes which makes them uncomfortable in an international school setting. The last aspect is the school's cultural orientation. Attending international schools is a way for students to get exposed to new types of cultural behaviors, especially in preparation for going to schools overseas. The ability to get into a university overseas surpasses any current social or

ethnic difficulties because students feel they learn and experience cultural capital in an international school (Bailey, 2015).

Conversely, although international schools are located within a host country culture, sometimes they are isolated and operate in a bubble separate from the host country culture. For example, the international school in Malaysia was set in the country but the school itself did not necessarily reflect Malaysian reality. In other words, topics in international schools related to the host country society that are considered taboo to discuss are easily discussed in international school settings.

Summary

This review of the literature on host culture impacts in American International Schools and in International Schools has discussed the complexity and evolution of educational systems globally. The purpose of this study is to examine the dynamics and issues of relationships of AIS and IS in host country cultures as perceived by educators. The literature to support the research first examines the historical components of development in educational systems along with reforms. The historical review focused on the US, Japanese, and German educational systems in conjunction with examples of other countries that have either adopted or adapted their philosophies and curriculum from the forefathers of educational development. The purpose of the historical component of the review of the literature was to provide a foundation for educational values and ideologies seen as important in various countries and developing educational philosophies pertinent to their nation. Further, these foundations have significant implications for values and ideologies taught in AIS and IS abroad. This chapter then segued into intrinsic and extrinsic factors influencing culture.

Intrinsic and extrinsic factors of host country cultures influence AIS and IS abroad. Intrinsic factors that were reviewed included the impacts of culture related to gender, religion, and socioeconomic status. The extrinsic factors discussed included the type of government, policies, and finances. Different types of cognitive learning styles straddled both intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Cognitive styles may have to do with a combination of genetics, culture, and learning environments. Other factors contributing to a host country culture's influence on AIS and IS consisted of teaching styles of teachers and learning styles of students. Concepts educators need to deal with and students work to adapt to are differences in language, democratic values, a student's view on teaching styles, parental expectations, and taboo instructional topics. Students with disabilities and English Language Learners integrated into AIS or IS along with challenges for these populations were also factors discussed and examined within this chapter.

In addition to what occurs within the classroom of an AIS or IS, other aspects contribute to host country culture relationships outside of school. These aspects include the building of community relationships and competing on international benchmark tests. The chapter concludes with identifying possible successes and challenges in creating cultural cohesion between a host country and in international school. Definitions of culture shock or culture clashes were examined, along with integration of host country celebrations and holidays.

This review of the literature has summarized studies related to host country culture's influences on AIS and IS abroad. The multitude of forces and factors contributing to how successful an AIS or IS manages, leads, and navigates a school illustrates the urgency of research needed to understand the ways in which a host country culture impacts in international school. In addition, considerations for accommodations made by international schools are also examined.

The next chapter describes in detail the investigation protocol the researcher took to conduct the study. Chapter three discusses the Mixed Methods Sequential Explanatory Design used to capture information, analyze data, and utilize results in order to understand the significant impacts of host country culture bestowed upon an international school.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

Introduction

Chapter three presents the procedures and framework for data collection and analysis. The chapter begins with a brief restatement of the purpose of the study, context for the research, and guiding research questions framing the study. The design of the study begins with the quantitative part of the study which includes methodology, the researcher's role, significance of the study, selection of participants, demographics, survey instrument selected, quantitative data collection, and data analysis. The second part of this chapter contains the qualitative data collection process along with data analysis. The chapter continues with discussions of measures of validity and reliability along with the study's delimitations and limitations. The last part of chapter three provides a brief conclusion for the research design.

Methodology

The purpose of this study was to examine the dynamics and challenges of relationships between American International Schools (AIS) or International Schools (IS) and host country cultures as perceived by educators. This study examines how these impacts influence the capacity of educators to manage, lead, and navigate the cultures in the school. By asking educators to share their perceptions and experiences in the challenges of working at an AIS or IS in a host country, this study looks to illuminate the intrinsic and extrinsic factors that contribute to working overseas. Three guiding research questions were used to direct the research which is discussed in the next section.

In this study, international schools, both AIS and IS, were identified to examine the influences and impacts host country cultures had on the success of the school and the quality of education. Instead of seeking out all international schools worldwide that meet different levels of

standards, the researcher wanted a common baseline for comparative purposes. Therefore, American International Schools and International Schools were selected based on their affiliation or accreditation by the International New England Association for Schools and Colleges (NEASC) in order to provide a level playing field for consistency in standards and educational quality. The intention of the research was to remove varying levels of educational standards and quality and focus on addressing the extent to which cultural norms influence how educators perceive, integrate, or adopt host culture norms to promote the success of an international school.

The Research Focus

Three guiding research questions provide the guidelines for this study. The first question identifies the cultural dynamics currently in existence that have an effect on educators in American International Schools or International Schools. The second guiding research question focuses on the perceptions educators have related to intrinsic and extrinsic cultural enhancements or issues in American International Schools or International Schools that might affect the success of the school and quality of education. Further, this second question focuses on how educators perceive and act based upon internal, or intrinsic dynamics, such as gender, religion, or socioeconomic status (SES). External or extrinsic factors, supporting this question include facets such as type of host country governance, policies, law, and finance. The third guiding research question concentrates on the accommodations or compromises American International School or International School educators make because of host country culture expectations or influences in order to manage, lead, and navigate the school.

Research Questions

- 1) What cultural dynamics exist that have an effect on educators in American International Schools and International Schools?

- a. This question concentrates on what international educators report to be the role the host country culture plays in influencing how AIS and IS are managed.
- 2) What are the perceptions of educators related to intrinsic and extrinsic cultural enhancements or issues in American International Schools and International Schools that might affect the success of the school and quality of education?
- a. This question focuses on how educators perceive and act based upon internal dynamics, or intrinsic, such as gender, religion, or the SES of families in an AIS and IS. The socioeconomic status and religion of families attending the school are collected in order to understand the context of the school and provide a fuller sociocultural perspective.
 - b. External factors, or extrinsic, include facets such as host country law, funding, and policies.
 - c. How do educators incorporate host country cultures into the school?
- 3) The third question focuses on how educators incorporate host country cultures into the school. What accommodations or compromises do American International School and International Schools educators make because of host country culture expectations or influences in order to manage, lead, and navigate the school?

Aspects of Research

The various aspects that are going to be studied will include elements related to synergies between home and host cultures. These aspects will become the specific areas explored in the surveys and interviews as guided by the research questions. The purpose of these aspects will provide the ability to preview my data collection approach and guide follow-up interviews.

1. What are the perceived dynamics between home and host cultures?

2. Do home and host cultures differ significantly?
3. Do host cultures vary across sites based on region?
4. What are the perceived effects of assimilation or integration of a host culture?
5. What barriers do integration of the host culture pose for educators at various sites?
6. What perceived intrinsic or extrinsic enhancements or issues are correlated to a site or region?
7. Are enhancements or issues the same across or between sites?
8. Are survey results different based upon whether the educator is American, from the host culture, or from a third culture?
9. How do perceptions differ between male and female educators?
10. How do perceptions differ based upon predominant religious affiliation in a host country?
11. How do perceptions differ between administrators and teachers?

Research Design

A Mixed Method Sequential Explanatory Design (Creswell, 2009) was used to collect data on country and cultural differences along with information on techniques and strategies employed by AIS or IS to be successful. The first part of the Mixed Method Sequential Explanatory Design begins with quantitative data collection and analysis based upon literature reviews and information from schools. The second part, or sequence, of the Mixed Method Sequential Explanatory Design contains qualitative follow-up interviews. The quantitative data analysis and findings were used to inform and direct the qualitative interviews. Qualitative interviews were supportive of the quantitative findings which were used to dig deeper into the research questions, or the exploratory portion of the Mixed Method Sequential Explanatory Design. Data collected on diverse locations and cultures offered a comparison across non-

identical cultural schools removing regional influences to look for common issue areas for best diversity practices.

The rationale for using this approach and method is to obtain information from a population sharing common characteristics. The common characteristics for the participants in this study consist of four mutual themes. First, the teachers and administrators were currently employed in American International Schools, International Schools, or Bilingual Schools working abroad, or outside of the US. The commonality is that these schools, regardless of location, identify types of programs, mimic global communities, and represent a diverse enrollment of students and staff potentially consisting of US, national, and non-national students and teachers. American International Schools, International Schools, or Bilingual Schools also share a second common characteristic in that they are autonomous, independent, and non-government institutions. Third, these schools use identical learning standards such as Common Core State Standards, United Kingdom (UK), or International Baccalaureate (IB) standards for consistent measurement in performance across schools. Fourth, they are New England Association of Schools and Colleges (NEASC) or Council of International Schools (CIS) affiliated schools consisting of various grade levels ranging from kindergarten through grade 12. The four themes mentioned are collectively shared attributes that all international schools in this study contain.

For the purposes of this study the international schools will be categorized as either AIS or IS. IS will consist of all International Schools, Bilingual Schools, or other international or English-speaking schools that are not American or US-affiliated. For clarification purposes, some of the descriptions of the IS need to be mentioned. One school used in this analysis did not meet all four common characteristics mentioned but the researcher integrated information from

this English-speaking school for the purposes of obtaining cultural data from an Eastern Asian country, which was Japan. No volunteers from AIS or IS chose to be interviewed from an Eastern Asian country or could not be contacted.

It is important to note all administrators and teachers interviewed were currently employed at an AIS or IS overseas during the time of this study, but some worked at other AIS and IS in separate countries prior to their current status. Therefore, information from the participants that worked in multiple settings provided information related to other countries of employment in AIS and IS in addition to their current school. However, those schools may or may not fit the four identified common characteristics previously discussed. Data from these schools is used to strengthen the cultural and governmental comparisons between schools and countries meeting the objectives of the research questions. Again, the purpose of obtaining information from these participants was to capture cultural information related to integration of host country culture into an international school.

Researcher's Role

The quantitative online survey tool and the qualitative research questions were designed and utilized by the researcher. The creation of the online survey questions was informed by literature in the fields of historical educational development, international and domestic educational studies, and social justice articles (Keddie, 2011). The researcher contacted international participants for the online survey via access to emails on international school websites. In addition, for both the quantitative and qualitative designs, the researcher collected, analyzed, ran statistical analyses, interpreted, and summarized data using best research practices (Creswell, 2009; Maxwell, 2005).

The researchers background was very influential and provides a frame of reference as to

the reason this international educational study occurred. First, the researcher is a district-level administrator overseeing curriculum, instruction, and assessment in a public school in Massachusetts. Prior to being an administrator, the researcher was a science teacher and secondary Science Department Chair. In addition, the researcher frequently attends and is a member of the NEASC visiting team to international schools throughout the world.

Despite having a strong background in education, the researcher was previously a biologist and scientist that worked as a field biologist on research using the scientific method in a variety of international countries. The type of data analysis used was through collection of quantitative and descriptive data culminating in statistical mathematics methods and results. For this study, a mixed methods approach was used to move beyond the quantitative statistics and investigate perceptions of educators abroad based upon their experiences. The qualitative portion allowed for the researcher to obtain more in-depth results than what the online survey provided.

Significance of the Study

This study provides both US and international educational policymakers, ministries of education, head of schools overseas, teachers, school board members, and US Department of Education Overseas Schools meaningful insight into the issues of managing, leading, and navigating AIS and IS. The significance of this study is to promote a greater understanding of how intrinsic (gender, religion, and SES) and extrinsic (type of host country governance, policies, law, and finance) factors contribute to the challenges related to strategies used to manage, lead, and navigate American International Schools and International Schools. In addition, this study will promote a greater understanding of intra- or intercontinental similarities and differences related to enhancements and issues experienced by American International Schools and International Schools. Further, information utilized by American International

Schools and International Schools may offer successful guidelines or strategies useful for many international schools in general.

Selection of Participants

The actual schools available for selection were countries throughout the globe including nations within Asia, Arabic Peninsula, Latin America (some Caribbean countries, Central and South America), Africa, and Europe. The reasons for using such diverse locations with different cultures and religions are two-fold. First, these locations provide a comparison across culturally unique regions in which international schools are housed. Influences, similarities, and differences of each culture were then compared. Second, these locations illuminate whether similar issues and challenges exist for American International Schools or International Schools within and between regions.

Two general types of overseas schools exist. The US Department of State Office of Overseas Schools and NEASC affiliated AIS or IS. Although some overlap may potentially exist between US Department of State Office of Overseas Schools and NEASC affiliated AIS or IS, this research study strictly focused on NEASC affiliated AIS or IS because the US Department of State Office of Overseas Schools generally enrolls just US military families (US Department of State Office of Overseas Schools, 2016), which would not provide the diversity for the study. In order to distribute the quantitative survey to the AIS or IS, the researcher contacted NEASC to request the distribution of the survey to all AIS and IS. Due to policy constraints, NEASC was neither able to distribute the survey nor provide the email distribution list for the researcher to send. Therefore, the researcher searched the public NEASC website to gather available emails from administrators and teachers from each school and country. Only administrators and teachers, considered *educators* for the purpose of this study, were selected as part of the study

because the researcher was interested in the perceptions these educators had related to how the host country culture impacts, influences, or challenges the AIS and IS in which they work.

Demographics

The population sampled consisted of both male and female administrators (predominantly Head of School or Principal) and teachers in American International Schools or International Schools abroad, which are affiliated with NEASC either because they are accredited or considered candidates for accreditation. The population of educators sampled was completely random and “blind” so as people responding were not asked to participate based upon ethnical affiliation, cultural background, or religious orientation. There were over 226 AIS and IS abroad listed in 72 nations (NEASC, 2016; NEASC factsheet, 2014) at the time of the study, which were NEASC affiliated schools. Prior to the main quantitative survey sent, a set of five pilot questions (see Appendices A and B) were distributed to 12 AIS or IS in May 2016 yielding a 67% return rate (see Appendix C). Of the 67% administrators and teachers that responded during the pilot at AIS or IS, all of the participants expressed interest to taking a more comprehensive survey with possible in-depth follow-up interview questions. The pilot was used to determine if the study was feasible based upon the quantity of responses and interest level of the participants. After data were collected from the pilot study, the researcher attempted to contact all 226 IS in the 72 countries. However, contact information was not available on all AIS or IS websites nor were all countries able to be contacted. Therefore, the researcher could obtain emails from 214 schools in 71 countries based upon availability of access to emails on AIS or IS websites. In some cases, multiple personal emails were available per school and in others only one general email was available, such as an address *info@*.

Survey Instrument

The approach that is used for this study is a Mixed Method Sequential Explanatory Design (Creswell, 2009). The Mixed Method Sequential Explanatory Design collected data from AIS or IS outside of the US ranging from a culturally diverse array of countries on five different continents including Europe, Asia, Africa, North and South America. No contact information was available for Australia.

The Mixed Method Sequential Explanatory Design was used to collect both quantitative and qualitative data from the participants. Mixed methods design provides a comprehensive approach to collecting data from a population. For the quantitative data collection piece, Qualtrics Survey Software was used to develop the online survey instrument for distribution consisting of 28 questions with 12 of those questions having subsets (for example, a-d) of additional questions in a Likert Scale format. Other questions were open-ended write-in answers. For the quantitative piece of the Mixed Method Sequential Explanatory Design, the researcher's goal was to obtain at least a 50% response rate from the 71 countries that were contacted and represented the IS population. The researcher also had a goal of obtaining at least a 20% response rate from the 214 AIS and IS combined. The purpose of a sufficient sample size was to be able to obtain enough NEASC affiliated participants by global region to find common themes for this population. For the qualitative data collection piece, 55 participants identified themselves as available for a Skype interview and provided email contact information. Once volunteers identified they were willing to participate, a Letter of Consent form was sent via email to have them sign, scan, and return to the researcher prior to the interview. An interview day and time was scheduled and was conducted via Skype. Participants were notified through the Letter of Consent and verbally through the Skype interview that the sessions were being recorded for

transcription purposes only and would remain confidential. Only 13 of the 55 participants were chosen to be interviewed. More detail regarding the participants is discussed during the qualitative portion of this chapter and chapter four.

The next section of this study discusses the quantitative methods used in the study, followed by the data analysis. The findings from the quantitative part of the study direct the qualitative piece of the research, which can be found in the section after quantitative data analysis. A summary concludes the chapter three.

Quantitative Data Collection

The Qualtrics online survey was used to collect quantitative data from participants to identify patterns in the data across and between countries used as a comparison between regions and populations. The survey questions were based upon a comprehensive literature review and items from various survey instruments that focused on the guiding research questions for this study. Some questions and items within the survey instrument were adapted from and based upon research from DeLeon (2015), Douglas (2010), Fleetham (1997), Frethiem (2007), Muller (2012), and Robinson (2012) that met the needs of the research questions in addition to new questions developed by the researcher to meet the needs of the study. Questions on the survey were divided into subsets consisting of school demographics, cultural dynamics, school boards, school leadership, school and community climate, curriculum and instruction, and successes and challenges for the school. The information on demographics provided clear information on country, religious orientation, and governance. The remaining parts of the survey asked in-depth questions related to cultural dynamics within the school.

Examples of types of questions found in the cultural dynamics section are linked to intrinsic or extrinsic factors. Intrinsic factors included perceptions between male and female

educators, religious orientation differences between families attending the schools and the host country culture, and SES of families. Extrinsic factors included the type of governance, policies, and laws. Each question provided a space for participants to explain why they answered the way they did. The online survey was reviewed by four peers prior to the distribution to AIS or IS to remove ambiguity and provide reliability, readability, and smooth functionality of the survey.

All 214 NEASC affiliated American International Schools or International Schools overseas in 71 countries that were available on the website (NEASC, 2016) were contacted. Only adult employees were contacted at the American International Schools or International Schools that were educators consisting of male and female administrators and teachers. Some countries contain multiple schools and others only have one school. Therefore, the researcher could not control who may have taken the actual surveys. One of three scenarios could have occurred with survey responses. First, multiple participants could have responded and provided feedback from one school, for example two administrators and four teachers from school “A”. Second, in countries with more than one school, one or more responses per school could have taken the survey. For example, school “B” in one particular African country had one administrator and two teachers respond whereas another school “C” in the same country only had one teacher respond. Third, only one school was available per country to partake in the survey and therefore one school represented a country or region. Because of the variability of quantity of feedback, the response rate and percentage were calculated first by the number of countries participating and second, the number of schools participating which provided the response rate. No parents or minors were asked to participate in the research project. In addition, no intrusive intervention or manipulation was part of this research project.

A personalized email inviting participants to take an online survey was sent to 834

administrators and teachers in 214 schools located in 71 countries. The email contained an introduction letter, the survey link, and the letter of consent all approved by the Internal Review Board at Lesley University. Administering 834 emails served the purpose of maximizing contact and obtaining responses from both administrators and teachers from as many of the 71 countries as possible to get a significant return rate. Two weeks after the initial email was sent to potential participants, a follow-up reminder email was sent to all participants either thanking them for participating or asking them to complete the survey by a provided due date which closed the survey one week out.

The quantitative data collection process allowed for the acquisition of a large quantity of data that was representative of the international school population. Through examining the results of different international schools, themes or patterns emerged from the data providing an opportunity for follow-up interview questions with the intention to obtain more detailed cultural information and data. The qualitative interview piece of the data collection was used as a follow-up questioning method based on survey results and themes. The qualitative process attempted to clarify any confusion in the quantitative data that may need an explanation. Once the quantitative data were analyzed, the results allowed for and informed the development of questions used for qualitative interviews measuring items more specifically relevant and detailed to the primary research questions. Examples of patterns leading to additional interview questions examined cultural norms, parental expectations, teaching styles, curricula, instruction, and assessments used by schools. The data and patterns analyzed allowed the researcher to obtain additional pertinent information from the participants.

Quantitative Data Analysis

After the online survey closed, data collected in Qualtrics was downloaded into SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) and Excel for data analysis. Both SPSS and Excel provided a venue to examine descriptive statistics, compare data, and conduct Chi-square analyses. In addition, comments provided by participants were coded and categorized according to common content and findings observed throughout the results. Data collected was also examined for trends or patterns. Having engaged in the survey and analysis, noteworthy findings were striking and directing and therefore the quantitative results were utilized to direct and inform the qualitative process of the Mixed Method Sequential Explanatory Design. The next section elaborates on the quantitative findings used to target the qualitative exploration.

Qualitative Data Collection

The qualitative interview piece of the Mixed Method Sequential Explanatory Design data collection was used as a follow-up questioning method based on the quantitative survey results and themes. The qualitative process held two purposes. The first purpose was to clarify any confusion in the results of the quantitative data that needed further explanation. The second purpose was to dig deeper into any results found within the quantitative data results by the researcher. Based from the quantitative analysis, questions were created to capture more detailed qualitative information through interviews. The rationale for creating interview questions, along with the development of seven interview questions, were peer-reviewed by the dissertation committee. The committee offered feedback and updates prior to distribution and interviews to participants.

As part of the online survey, participants were asked if they were willing to partake in a 20-minute follow-up qualitative interview to offer more information on the answers they

provided in the online survey. Administrators and teachers that volunteered provided their name and email address. The respondents were made aware that by providing contact information, confidentiality would be breached but they would not be personally identified in the research. The pool of participants providing an email for the qualitative interview questions were selected based upon their answers to the quantitative survey questions that warranted further inquiry. The interview questions were developed based on the results of the survey. Criteria for further inquiry was determined by the researcher after analyzing the survey results and deciding where more information might be needed. Once volunteers were selected, a Letter of Consent form approved by the IRB was digitally sent to their email address for them to read, sign, scan, and email back to the researcher indicating willingness to participate in an interview. A total of 13 qualitative interviews occurred based upon the willingness of administrators and teachers to participate and the actual ability to connect for an interview. Some of the participants had previously worked in other AIS or IS and in some cases information from these countries and schools was captured.

The rationale to ask individuals for a qualitative follow-up interview was based upon the results of the online survey. First, the researcher attempted to conduct two interviews per region, one from an AIS and the other interview from the IS. However, not all participants that volunteered to be interviewed from particular regions were from AIS or vice versa. For example, neither school in Africa (Ghana or Zimbabwe) was an AIS so the researcher chose one person to be interviewed. On the converse, no school in the Latin American regions were IS and therefore only educators from AIS schools were interviewed.

Second, since no difference was observed between male and female responses during the quantitative analysis, or between administrator and teacher responses, the researcher chose to

evaluate potential participants on other findings from the online survey.

Given the constraints provided of the demographics of participants that volunteered to be interviewed, the researcher decided to invite participants based upon the results that surfaced from the quantitative analysis that were of interest and provided as much regional diversity as possible. In addition, participants were interviewed based upon the comments they believed were important to inform the researcher about additional information from the survey. The areas of interest that surfaced or required more in-depth questioning were in the areas of rationale for expatriates choosing an AIS or IS, HC culture integration in school, standards and curriculum, teaching styles, parental expectations, international mindset, successes and challenges of an international school. In addition, the researcher attempted to contact an equal number of AIS and IS, as well as educators from each region to capture a more diverse population despite some schools not responding.

For the qualitative interviews, the researcher contacted 28 participants that provided contact information. Of the 28, 13 people were interviewed. In some cases, participants that originally provided their e-mail did not respond or e-mailed the researcher that they were no longer able to participate. The researcher provided a range of days and times that best fit the schedules of the researcher and interviewee based on availability and time zones. The researcher required that the Letter of Consent for the qualitative interviews be signed, scanned, and returned via e-mail to the researcher prior to the start of the interview. The researcher then called via Skype to the interviewee at the designated time and provided background information on the researcher and purpose of this study. The interviewee was also informed that the call was being recorded for transcription purposes only and would not be shared. In addition, the interviewees were provided a general list of questions ahead of time prior to the interview so they knew what

would be asked. The participants had the option to fill it out and return it along with being interviewed. Although the interviews generally followed the script of the interview questions, some responses by the participants prompted the researcher to dig deeper into those responses to collect more detailed information.

Qualitative Data Analysis

After the interview concluded, the researcher sent a prompt thank you e-mail to all of the participants. The researcher then transcribed all notes from all the interviews. The information from the interviews was then coded and categorized based on the interview questions and any additional information was added to the results. Information from interviews were categorized into seven codes which were rationale for expatriates choosing an AIS or IS, HC culture integration in school, standards and curriculum, teaching styles, parental expectations, international-mindset, successes and challenges of an international school. Once the qualitative data were coded and categorized, the researcher sent an email to the participants asking them to confirm information prior to the researcher writing the results for validity and reliability purposes. The results were then written according to categories with examples used from various countries to support the findings. Obtaining information from interviews provided an opportunity to discuss qualitative findings and get to the core of the issues that international schools face when educating students.

Confidentiality and Anonymity

The research consisted of two types of data collection during the Mixed Method Sequential Explanatory Design. At the beginning of the survey, participants were required to read a digital letter of consent informing them of their rights to exit the survey at any time. No electronic or digital signature was required so that the participant's identity remains anonymous

unless they choose to provide an email to be contacted for a follow-up interview. The letter of consent allowed participants to understand that the survey and any follow-up interview questions were anonymous and confidential and it was well within their rights to opt-out of the survey at any time. Participants were informed that names or schools were not used, nor would they be identified personally, in any way or at any time to anyone or in any publication.

All information collected was kept private by the researcher. The participants were made aware that the researcher would not be sharing any specific research results regarding persons or schools with anyone. However, with voluntary consent from the participants, the researcher collected e-mail and Skype information necessary to identify participants in the study for follow-up interviews. In addition, information related to the role within the school was used for analysis purposes, but all information provided by the participants remains confidential. However, the participants were also made aware that data collected from them may be analyzed by location. Therefore, results from the data collected may be included in the researcher's doctoral dissertation and may also be included in manuscripts submitted to professional journals or other professional publications.

Subjects' identity or private information was not revealed in this study or in any published or presented work except by first name with consent. The letter of consent specifically addressed the anonymity, confidentiality, and privacy of participants. Within the letter, participants were made aware that names of individuals and schools have a slight potential risk of being identified if there was a small number of participants from a particular country.

The only personal information collected regarding individuals were names, gender, religion, e-mail addresses, and Skype information. The personal information was used by the researcher in order to conduct data analysis and follow-up with potential future interviews.

Individual names were not used in the results, citation, or any future publications. In cases where the researcher provided quotes from participants, the educators interviewed were notified via email for permission to use the quote in the published research.

Validity and Reliability

One method used during data collection and analysis to ensure validity and reliability of results was to triangulate data (Denscombe, 2010; Maxwell, 2005). The rationale to triangulate data is to get a better understanding of the results through three different venues. For this study, the first venue was through the review of literature. Background literature for this research topic painted a picture of the landscape providing a foundation for the development of the study questions. The second venue was the collection of the quantitative data from the online survey. The quantitative results provided demographic and statistical information collected from all respondents to capture a large sample size. The third venue was the qualitative interview questions. The interview questions were derived from quantitative data findings allowing the researcher to investigate further and dig deeper into the inquiries of the findings from the survey. The triangulation of data assists in the validity and reliability of the research by assisting to eliminate bias during data collection by providing more than one perspective.

Other methods were utilized to strengthen the validity and reliability of the research. First, a pilot study was conducted to sample whether future participants were interested in partaking in an international study and completing a survey or being interviewed for the benefit of study. Second, online survey questions were not randomly created but were designed from incorporating background information from known studies through the literature review. The online survey questions were peer-reviewed by four colleagues for comprehension, readability, and prevention of researcher bias. In addition, the online survey questions were *beta-tested* by

four peers to ensure no technology glitches occurred for participants taking online survey. Last, for the qualitative portion of the data collection, similar steps were taken. The qualitative interview questions were actually based from quantitative data findings, but were also peer reviewed for clarity, relevancy, and to safeguard against bias.

Methods employed to ensure the validity and reliability during the data analysis process were also used. First, all qualitative interviews were recorded. Although the researcher took notes during the interviews, all recordings were transcribed to certify that the correct information was captured from the participant. Second, qualitative interview data were compared to some of the answers available in the quantitative online survey results to check for consistency of results and clarify discrepancies by interviewees. For example, the researcher matched the participant's interview responses in the areas of school type, diploma type, and curriculum to the answers interviewees provided in the online survey. Third, for interview questions that required specific, detailed information, the researcher collated that information and sent an e-mail to the interviewees asking them to validate the findings of what they said and to make any corrections or changes. The researcher wanted to ensure the information the educators provided was correct before writing. For example, confirm specific reasons why host country students may or may not be eligible to attend an international school. And last, during interviews the researcher followed the guidelines of the interview questions which allowed for the free flow of information from the interviewee without leading them in a skewed direction. The researcher's primary role in the interview was to facilitate the questions and in turn bracket any personal views or experiences and to clarify any information provided by the participants.

Delimitations of the Study

This study is delimited in the following ways. First, the parameters of the study include sampling a population from American International Schools abroad (outside of US) and International Schools that are NEASC accredited or affiliated (in the process of being accredited). Not all international schools, public or private, in host countries were surveyed. The one commonality between participants surveyed is they are NEASC accredited or affiliated. Therefore, the list of schools contacted in various countries were based upon the information from the NEASC website. Second, this study does not include educators of public schools in countries managed by the country's Ministries of Education or a Department of Education. Therefore, the literature for this study focuses on the policies of governments and international schools. Third, only administrator and teacher perspectives were taken into account in this study. Parent and student perceptions were not collected and therefore not captured in this research.

In terms of methodology, the methodological procedures do not include longitudinal research or studies. A mixed methods approach is used to obtain quantitative and qualitative data.

Limitations of the Study

The limitations of this research include findings outside of the researcher's control. These limitations may include but are not limited to obtaining completed returned surveys from administrators or teachers from various host countries. In other words, some incomplete quantitative surveys were expected. In addition, not all respondents were open to being interviewed for the qualitative portion of this research were reachable. Second, the researcher had no control over the regions or countries in which administrators and teachers responded. Since quantitative surveys were distributed via email and out of the researcher's control, the

possibility exists that the actual participants may not take the surveys themselves. For example, surveys may have been passed to non-educators such as administrative assistants to complete.

The researcher does not have control over the person who actually took the survey.

In terms of data analysis, results may be best described as a correlation rather than provide causation. The researcher may also encounter variations related to cultural influences by administrators and educators in AIS and IS because of different backgrounds and previous experiences. For example, some educators that responded only worked in one country, while others have worked in multiple other countries and have more experience with different cultures. The educators that have more experience may be able to contribute from a more global perspective. Last, the pool of potential interviewees was less than was available to take the online survey so the researcher was limited in the number of respondents to contact. The survey results are limited to the perspectives of those participants that answered in the countries with which they are associated.

Some areas of weakness occurred in the study. First, once the data were collected from the online survey, more specific numerical data could have been collected to provide detailed data analysis. For example, it would have been beneficial to collect the actual percentage of host country students and teachers that attend international schools to get a visual of diversification and globalization of composition of the international schools. For example, how global or diverse is the international school if most of the students that attend were from the host country? These types of data results would have provided more in depth picture of the school and offered itself to graphical comparisons. Second, the potential pool of participants to be involved in the study was based solely on all the schools listed from the NEASC website. Other sources for

international schools contacts may have been beneficial, yet they may not have provided a common comparison in that they were NEASC accredited.

Chapter Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine the dynamics and challenges of relationships between American International Schools or International Schools and host country cultures as perceived by educators. The research focus was comprised of three guiding research questions. The three questions are stated below.

- 1) What cultural dynamics exist that have an effect on educators in American International Schools and International Schools?
- 2) What are the perceptions of educators related to intrinsic and extrinsic cultural enhancements or issues in American International Schools and International Schools that might affect the success of the school and quality of education?
- 3) The third question focuses on how educators incorporate host country cultures into the school. What accommodations or compromises do American International School and International Schools educators make because of host country culture expectations or influences in order to manage, lead, and navigate the school?

The design of the study used was A Mixed Method Sequential Explanatory Design obtaining both quantitative and qualitative data. The role of the researcher was connected to the study through her background as a current public school administrator, international NEASC visiting team member, and as a former field biologist working in international settings. This study was significant because it provided data regarding international school success and insight into obstacles encountered abroad.

The second part of chapter three reviews the quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis methods along with the selection of participants and the demographics of schools contacted. The chapter then provides discussions of how participants' confidentiality and anonymity were upheld during and after the study. Last, the chapter closes with statements regarding validity and reliability along with delimitations and limitations of the study.

The next chapter, chapter four, provides the results and findings of the research. The first part of the chapter described the demographics of the participants followed by the quantitative data analysis from the online survey. The last part of the chapter provides data analysis on the qualitative interviews that followed the findings from the online surveys.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

Introduction

Chapter four presents the approach to the research and the survey analysis and interview data. The first component of chapter four consists of the quantitative data analysis from the online survey. The second component of this chapter discusses the qualitative portion of the analysis related to individual participants that volunteered to be interviewed. The data collection method used was the Mixed Method Sequential Explanatory Design (Creswell, 2009) using both quantitative and qualitative analysis to examine differences between regions and cultures.

This study contains three guiding research questions. The first research question concentrates on what international educators report to be the role the host country culture plays in influencing how an AIS and IS is managed. The first research question specifically asks, what cultural dynamics exist that have an effect on educators in American International Schools and International Schools? The second question focuses on what international educators believe to be the intrinsic and extrinsic factors and conditions that affect the quality of education in their international schools. Factors and conditions are related to internal dynamics, or intrinsic, such as gender, religion, or the SES of families in an AIS or IS. External factors, or extrinsic, include facets such as host country type of government, policies, and finances. This second guiding research question asks, what are the perceptions of educators related to intrinsic and extrinsic cultural enhancements or issues in American International Schools and International Schools that might affect the success of the school and quality of education? The third question focuses on how educators incorporate host country cultures into the school. Therefore, the third guiding research question is, what accommodations or compromises do American International School and International School educators make because of host country culture expectations or

influences in order to manage, lead, and navigate the school? Table 4.1 provides a clear articulation of each quantitative finding correlated to each guiding research question. Table 4.2 correlates the qualitative findings to each guiding research question.

Table 4.1

Articulation of Each Quantitative Finding Correlated to the Three Guiding Research Questions

Quantitative Category	GQ 1	GQ 2	GQ 3	Quantitative Research Findings
Cultural Dynamics				
HCC Similar to US	1			Most participants (65%) disagreed that the host country culture was similar to the US culture
Cultures clash	1			Most respondents indicated that the culture of the international school and host country culture do not clash (61.7%)
Different religious orientations clash		2		Most participants disagreed that people with different religious orientations clash in the host country (78.2%)
Genders are treated the same		2		A little more than half participants disagreed that genders are treated the same in the host country (57.9%)
Polygamy is practiced		2		The majority of educators indicated that polygamy is not practiced in the host country (72.2%)
HCC has similar law to US		2		A little more than half of the educators indicated that the host country laws similar to US law (51.1%)
HCC is assimilated into school practices			3	Most participants (88.8%) responded that the host country culture is assimilated regularly into school practices
Schools take HCC holidays off	1		3	Most international schools take host country holidays off (88.8%)
Schools take HCC religious observances off	1	2	3	IS mostly take host country religious observations off (74.5%)

Schools maintain HCC identity	1	3	84.9% of participants indicated that it's the school's responsibility to maintain the host culture identification
Taboo topic discussed easily at school	1	3	About 50% of the international schools indicated that taboo topics related to host country society are easily discussed in the classroom (53.4%)
Teachers adapt teaching style to HCC	1	3	Most educators disagreed that teachers adapt their teaching style to match the host country culture (54.1%)
Students have freedom of expression/autonomy		3	The educators viewed the school is open to the ideals and practices that are conducive to self-expression and autonomy for students (91.8%)
Faculty composition			The diversity of administrators and teachers representative of the US, host country culture, and third country culture were represented (79.7%)
HCC religion influences school's operations	1	2 3	Most respondents disagreed that the religion of the host country culture influences how the school operates in functions (73.7%)
HCC educational norms need to be adhered to		2 3	A little more than half of the educators that responded indicated that the host country educational customs that are different than in the US need to be adhered to (58.6%)
School Board and Leadership			
SB annually reviews policy to meet HCC needs		2 3	The school board annually reviews policies to ensure that the host country cultural needs are met (58.6%)
SB communicates with educators on policy, law, \$		2 3	Educators were split 50/50 regarding whether the school board communicates free to leave with the educators to discuss policies, finances, and laws
SB communicates to community	1	2 3	A little more than half of the educators responded that the school board communicates frequently with the school community to discuss policies, finances, and laws (55.7%)
Educational Leadership			
HC law influences how leaders manage schools		2 3	Most of the educational community agrees that the host country's laws influence how school leaders manage and operate the school (83.4%)
Admin collaborate with teachers on HCC influences		3	Educators agreed that the school leaders collaborate with teachers to establish clear understandings of the host culture influence in the school (74.5%)

Admin work with teachers on assimilation of HCC		3	Most educators felt that school leaders work with teachers to assimilate host country culture into the school pedagogy and events (72.1%)
Admin communicated goals of school to teachers		3	88.0% of educators stated that school leaders clearly communicate the vision and goals of the school to teachers
School Community and Climate			
Practices in place to adjust to international settings	1	3	Most educators indicated that practices are in place at your school to assist new educators in adjusting to an international setting (88.7%)
Educators like each other		3	A majority of educators stated that educators in their school like each other (97.0%)
Educators have pride in school	1		Educators express pride in their school (91.7%)
School has a good reputation in the community	1	3	Most educators felt that the school has a good reputation within the host country community (92.6%)
Schools and community conduct events together		3	Some educators indicated that the school and community frequently conduct evidence together (63.1%)
Curriculum and Instruction			
PD given to understand HCC in CIA	1	3	More educators disagree that faculty are provided professional development opportunities to understand how to integrate the host country culture into the curriculum and instruction (51.1%)
HCC is reflected in curriculum	1	3	Most educators agreed that the host country culture is reflected in the school's curriculum (80.4%)
School offers courses relevant to HCC	1	3	62.4% of participants indicated that the school offers specific courses to students related to the culture of the host country
Intercultural literacy is evident	1	3	79.7% of educators agreed that intercultural literacy (the competency that allows for effective cross-cultural engagement) is central to the school's culture
SPED - support services are offered at school		3	A majority of educators agreed that special needs support is available for students with learning differences (83.4%)

Note: GQ = Reference to Guiding Research Question one, two, or three

Table 4.2

Articulation of Each Qualitative Finding Correlated to the Three Guiding Research Questions

GQ	Qualitative Research Question	Findings
2	Reasons expatriate families have their children attend AIS or IS while abroad?	The four common attributes included English as the medium of instruction (extrinsic factor), consistency of curriculum and instruction for a transient population (extrinsic factor), benefits of dual citizenship (extrinsic factor), and international-mindedness (intrinsic factor)
2	How does the IS support HC students that want to attend the AIS or IS?	Some countries offer scholarships for the host country students of lower SES, but many do not because they may not be able to afford to pay the tuition
3	Reasons a HC's national standards and <u>curriculum</u> be more highly valued than an international curriculum?	The purpose of the variety of standards, curriculum, and diplomas offered to students is predominantly for two reasons. First, students receive a Western style education which is generally taught in English. Second, students have an opportunity to leave their international school and have the ability to attend either a host country university or another university. Depending on the country, many universities have different admission requirements.
1, 3	Explain how <u>teaching styles</u> are different between host country teachers and overseas teachers.	The 13 educators interviewed described pedagogical teaching styles of teachers as innovative within their international schools. The teachers that were interviewed prided in the fact that international teachers at their school had Western style instructional training.
1, 2, 3	What is <i>international mindset</i> mean to you?	a frame of mind along with ownership related to global citizenship; A pattern of three common methods of delivery emerged from the interviews that international schools utilized to disseminate the philosophies of international-mindedness. The three methods were through the mission statements or philosophies, the approach, and the inquiry into host country cultures.
1, 2, 3	Provide specific examples of how host country culture is integrated into your school revealing successes and challenges.	Successes are through innovative pedagogical teaching styles and community ties to the host country culture; Challenges are mainly in exclusion of lower SES and diplomatic relationships between HC and home country.

Quantitative Overview

The online survey was the quantitative portion of data collection where participants were asked to answer demographic questions about their country, school, faculty, and students before it segued into answering questions about the perceptions of educators using the guiding research questions as a guideline. Questions ranged from direct demographic information to Likert scale types of questions regarding cultural perceptions. The data from the online survey was then analyzed and data categorized into sections based on demographics, the guiding research questions, and the successes and challenges perceived to be experienced in international schools.

The first section within the quantitative portion of data collection describes the survey participants and their demographics. The demographics of participants captured information about host country, sexual and religious orientation, cultural composition of personnel and students, type of school whether American International School or an International School, and the type of governance of the host country. These descriptions provide a basis or foundation for comparison between educator responses using descriptive statistics or Chi-squared analysis. All significance levels for the Chi-squared analysis were set at $p < 0.05$ throughout the first section and remaining sections where utilized.

The second section of the quantitative data collection analyzed data related to the first guiding research question. The first guiding research question examined the type of cultural dynamics that exist, which influence educators in international schools. Data were analyzed and categorized based upon host culture identity, educators perceptions of culture in their schools, and cultural impacts within the classroom. The cultural impacts within the classroom looked at taboo topics, individual expression and autonomy of the student, and adaptation of teaching styles of teachers to the host country culture.

The second guiding research question defines the third section of the quantitative portion of this study. The second guiding research question addressed the perceptions of educators related to intrinsic and extrinsic cultural enhancements or issues that impact the successes or challenges within international schools. Intrinsic factors are internal school dynamics related to gender, region, or socioeconomic status of families. Extrinsic factors are external factors that pertain to host country laws, funding, and policies related to the school.

The fourth section of this chapter is defined by the third guiding question from the quantitative survey. The third guiding question examined the type of accommodations or compromises international school educators make because of host country cultural expectations or influences in order to manage, lead, and navigate the school. Under this section, information is analyzed regarding collaboration and communication, how leaders from the school, host country laws, and pedagogical practices within the school.

The last sections of the quantitative portion examine the standards, curricula, and assessments used within international schools from data captured from the quantitative portion of the study. This section addresses how standards, curricula, and assessments from an AIS and IS interact with the nation or host country protocol. In addition, commentary from participants highlights the overall successes and challenges within the schools. Many common themes occurred which provided specific feedback regarding how the host country culture contributes to the successes and challenges within an international school.

Qualitative Overview

The qualitative portion of the Mixed Method Sequential Explanatory Design study was a segue and follow-up to the data analysis results received from the quantitative online survey. The qualitative data collection consisted of multiple interviews from volunteers from the online

survey. Criteria for identifying interviewees was two-fold. First, the researcher attempted to contact an equal number of AIS and IS dispersed in all five regions (Asia, Africa, Europe, Middle East, Latin America) in order to provide comparisons between regions and schools. Second, participants were interviewed based upon comments they provided and areas of interest that surfaced within the survey that required more in depth questioning. Areas of interest include reasons why expatriates send their children to AIS or IS abroad, differences in standards and curriculum used, explanation of teaching styles, expectations of parents, international-mindedness, and successes and challenges of how a host country culture is integrated into the schools. However, some constraints existed in that participants offered to be interviewed from each of these regions decided not to be interviewed or could not be reached.

In the first section of this chapter, the quantitative data analysis and findings are discussed in detail. The findings are clearly aligned to guiding research questions along with intrinsic and extrinsic factors. For the second section of this chapter, the qualitative interview findings are categorized and analyzed based upon participants perceptions of host country culture integration within their schools.

Quantitative Data Analysis

Survey Participants

The digital survey was distributed via e-mail to 834 participants in 214 International Schools within 71 countries worldwide using the list of international schools from the NEASC website. Some schools provided access to multiple e-mails of administrators and teachers on their website, whereas other schools only provided a general information e-mail to the school, or no contact information at all. Of the 834 participants contacted, a response of 133 people completely took the survey (16%) from 59 out of 214 different international schools (28%) in 36

out of 71 (51%) different countries. The 31 partial online survey responses were omitted because they provided incomplete data.

Responses to the survey came from the Africa, Asia, Central America, South America, Russia, Europe, and the Arab (Middle East) countries. Because of the diversity and locations of each country along with integrated nationalities, groupings of regions were classified by referencing the US Central Intelligence Agency website to provide consistent descriptions based upon the World Factbook (Central Intelligence Agency, 2016). Because of the eastern European proximity and influence, the Russian school in Moscow was categorized into the region of Europe rather than Asia. In addition, the Canary Islands for the purpose of this study were made distinct from Spain because it is not connected to the mainland and the researcher wanted to examine if any cultural differences existed. Table 4.3 outlines the different countries categorized by region for descriptive purposes in this study.

Table 4.3

Countries by Region that Responded to the Online Survey

Regions	Africa	Arab	Asia	Europe	Latin America
	Ghana	Egypt	India	Bulgaria	Argentina
	Morocco	Kuwait	Japan	Canary Islands, Spain*	Brazil
	Zimbabwe	Lebanon	Mongolia	Czech Republic	Costa Rica
		Qatar	Nepal	Denmark	Dominican Republic
		Turkey	South Korea	Germany	Ecuador
				Italy	Guatemala
				Latvia	Mexico
				Norway	Panama
				Poland	Uruguay
				Russia	
				Spain	
				Switzerland	
				Ukraine	
				United Kingdom	
Countries per Region:	3	5	5	14	9

Note. Although Canary Islands are part of Spain, the researcher made the distinction due to examining the possibility of different cultural values

Demographics of participants. Some countries had contacts for multiple international schools within one country, whereas other countries only had one or zero international schools to contact. Many schools varied in staff size. Therefore, the most important response rate came from the number of different countries so that data could be compared between cultures. Participants were asked to identify their gender, role in the school, the type of governance, and the primary religious orientation of the host country culture for demographic purposes. In addition, they were also asked if the school they worked in was considered an American International School or an International School. The demographic results of the survey are as follows. Of the 133 participants that took the survey, more were female (54.9%), followed closely by male survey respondents (45.1%). In addition, most of the people that participated in the survey were administrators (62.4%) relative to the number of teachers that took the survey (37.6%). Therefore, the majority of the population that took the survey were female administrators. Table 4.4 shows the survey participant count related to gender and role within the school.

Table 4.4

Survey Response Distribution between Male and Female Administrators and Teachers

Role	Male	Female	Total
Administrator/Leader	40	44	84
Teacher	20	29	49
Total	60	73	133

In order to determine if a school was an AIS or an IS, participants responded directly or the researcher was able to make an estimate on the remaining unidentified school by location using latitude and longitude results. For the purposes of this study, IS was defined as all other schools outside of AIS, such as International Baccalaureate (IB) or bi-lingual. A total of 59 different schools responded and of those, 25 (42%) were AIS and 34 (58%) were IS.

Composition of administrator and teacher population. Composition refers to the demographics of the administrator or teacher. Descriptors that are inclusive of the term composition may include, but not limited to, an account of items such as gender, nationality, culture, or host country. Administrators or administrative team are defined as directors, principals, Head of School, business or finance managers, curriculum directors, or those persons in a leadership role. Teachers are defined as those persons that run the classroom or are in front of students. The term educator refers to any administrator or teacher working at an international school. The term Western refers to populations with origins from Western Europe and have similarities in belief systems, traditions, and social norms.

Educators were asked in the survey to identify the most prominent culture of the educational staff employed at the school, along with the second and third most prominent

culture. The purpose was to determine if educators working in the schools were of host country origin or were citizens outside of the host country as a cultural comparison. The categories participants were able to select identified educators from the US, host country culture, third country culture, or *other* with room for an explanation. For this study, the third country culture is defined as an educator from a country that is not American or from the host culture nation. Participants were asked to provide the name of the country since the list of countries would have been too copious for the survey.

The composition of administrator and teacher staff were very similar. The most prominent culture of the administrative team was from the US followed very closely by third culture educators, and last by host country cultures. The category labeled as *other* (7; 5.3%) had explanations identifying those persons in this category as the role of the administrator rather than identification of the culture. The teacher team was equally distributed between US and third culture educators in the categories of most prominent and second most prominent. As with the administrative team, the third most prominent culture among the teaching staff was the host country nationals. The category labeled *other* described the teaching team (3; 2.3%) from different nationalities. Table 4.5 outlines the composition of both the administrative and teacher teams by most prominent, second most prominent, and third most prominent culture to fill the educator positions in an IS.

Table 4.5

Composition of Administrators and Teachers

Country	Administration	Teacher
Most prominent culture of educational staff	US (52; 39.1%)	US and Third Culture Educators equally (45 each; 33.8% each)
Second most prominent culture of educational staff	Third Culture Educators (47; 35.3%)	US and Third Culture Educators equally (45 each; 33.8% each)
Third most prominent culture of educational staff	Host Country (27; 20.3%)	Host Country (39; 29.3%)

Note. Third Culture Educational Staff is identified as a different culture or country than host country or US

What is of interest to note is the difference in where third country culture administrators originated verses teachers. Although the responses in the category for composition of the administrative and teacher teams were similar in that they selected *third country culture*, the descriptions used by participants for the criteria for third country culture administrative team was different then the teacher team.

Table 4.6 examines the composition of administrators employed between AIS and IS. A majority (64%) of administrators at AIS are of US orientation. The second most common culture of employed administrators were not people of host country culture, but of third country cultures at AIS. No discernable pattern was observed as to which third country cultures filled those administrative positions. As related to IS, most administrators were of third culture descent (50%) followed by host culture, and last by US orientation. Overall, when AIS and IS results are combined, most administrators are from the US, followed by third country culture, and last host country. A Chi-square analysis was run by combining the host culture and third culture as a comparison against US hired administrators. The analysis reveals that AIS significantly hire more US administrators than administrators from host country or third country cultures combined at the $p < 0.05$ level, whereas IS significantly hire more host country and third country cultures combined over US administrators at $(X^2 (1, N = 59) = 9.778, p < 0.02)$.

Table 4.6

Composition of Administration at AIS

Is your international school considered an "American" International School?			
	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>All AIS and IS Combined</u>
US	16	8	24
Host Culture	3	9	12
Third Culture	6	17	23
Total	25	34	59

Note: Third Culture Administrators are educators from other countries beside the US or host country

Of the 30 educators that provided comments on the composition of the third culture educators, difference were apparent as to the culture of the administrator versus the teacher. For the administrative team, *third country cultures* were mostly described as being from the Western culture (17), followed by an administrative team being a mix of a Western culture and the host country culture (11). Last, two people commented that host country culture is not part of the administrative team (a school in Germany and a school in Qatar). The major reason provided by participants as to why Western administrators may dominate the administrative field was because schools preferred English-speaking and Western educated staff. One school in Guatemala mentioned that the School Board encourages local educators to be raised or educated in the US, but also be bilingual in English and Spanish. The purpose of having a combination of administrators in a school from a Western culture and the host country culture was so that non-English speaking host countries had both an English-speaking administrator and an administrator

that was fluent in the host country language. For example, many of the schools in Kuwait have an English-speaking and an Arabic-speaking administrator to cater to the student body. However, no pattern was visible by country or region as to whether more Western administrators were hired over a team of third country culture administrators. One school in Africa mentioned that hiring a person from the host culture can have negative impacts, especially if the administrator comes from the same social community and class as the parents. Table 4.7 outlines the composition of administrative teams by region. Most administrators are from the US or third culture countries in Europe, Asia, and Africa. An equal split was observed in Arab nations as to most administrators being US or Host Country citizens. However, the digital survey results show host country culture was most represented in only the Latin region related to the administration demographics of the schools.

Table 4.7

Administrator Composition by Region

	Administrators by Region				
	<u>Latin</u>				
	<u>America</u>	<u>Europe</u>	<u>Arab</u>	<u>Asia</u>	<u>Africa</u>
US	10 (40%)	19 (37%)	7 (28%)	8 (38%)	8 (80%)
Host Culture	11 (44%)	7 (14%)	7 (28%)	1 (5%)	2 (20%)
Third Culture*	4 (16%)	26 (50%)	11 (44%)	12 (57%)	-

Note: Third Culture Administrators are educators from other countries beside the US or host country

The composition of teachers employed between AIS and IS was examined in Table 4.8. A majority (52%) of teachers at AIS are of US orientation. The second most common culture of employed teachers was that of the host country culture, followed by third country cultures. No

discernable pattern was observed as to which third country cultures fill those administrative positions. As related to IS, most teachers were of third culture descent (44.1%) followed by US orientation, and last by host culture. Overall, when AIS and IS results are combined, most teachers are from the US, followed by a combined host country and third country cultures. No significant difference was observed using a Chi-square analysis as to the culture of teachers hired between AIS or IS schools at the $p < 0.05$ level ($X^2 (1, N = 59) = 3.090, p < 0.08$).

Table 4.8

Composition of Teachers at AIS

Is your international school considered an "American" International School?			
	<u>All AIS and IS</u>		
	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Combined</u>
US	13	10	23
Host Culture	8	9	17
Third Culture*	4	15	19
Total	25	34	59

Note: Third Culture educators are from other countries beside the US or host country

As related to teacher demographics, a total of 25 survey participants commented on the third country culture composition. Most participants indicated that teachers were from a Western culture (14), followed by significant decrease in the next population which was a combination of different third culture countries (5). In addition, participants commented that in their schools,

host country cultures were not well represented. The comments from the participants appear to be supported by the digital survey results for the regions of Europe, Arab nations, Asia, and Africa. Most teachers are from the US or third culture countries. However, the digital survey results showed host country culture was most represented in only the Latin region related to the teacher demographics of the schools (Table 4.9). These teacher results are similar to what is observed in the administrative demographics.

Table 4.9

Teacher Composition by Region

Teachers by Region					
	<u>Latin</u>				
	<u>America</u>	<u>Europe</u>	<u>Arab</u>	<u>Asia</u>	<u>Africa</u>
US Educators	5 (11%)	18 (40%)	9 (20%)	9 (20%)	4 (9%)
Host Culture Educators	19 (48%)	11 (28%)	5 (13%)	1 (3%)	4 (10%)
Third Culture Educators	1 (2%)	23 (48%)	11 (23%)	11 (23%)	2 (4%)

Note: Third Culture educators are not from the US or host country

Further comments indicated differences within each country as well as some exceptions. In one East Asian country and one African country, teachers prided themselves for being from the host country culture. Two other countries, a school in Qatar and in Switzerland, stated that no host country culture teachers taught at their schools. Conversely, two schools indicated there was a blend between Western and host country culture teachers at the schools. A school in Kuwait

indicated that teaching staff is almost half Arab nationals and the other half Canadian. Overall, the comments from participants appear to vary by school. One contributor indicated that it is easier to employ administrators and teachers who hold an European Union (EU) passport. Another participant stated that teachers come from all over the world. A large number of educators who have partners from the host country stay for a long time, contributing to a combination of Western and third country or host country culture teachers.

Composition of student population. The composition of the student body at each international school was also identified based upon staff feedback. Of the 133 participants at international schools that responded, most of the students attending the schools were from the host country (85; 63.9%), followed by a different country (33; 24.8%), then the US (15; 11.3%). The responses for a *different country* varied from one nationality outside the host country or US to over 50 different nationalities in one international school. Most respondents indicated that it is a challenge to pinpoint percentages of nationalities because after the first or second most prominent country the population became extremely diversified with no consistent pattern. However, when examining the international school by region, the participants in the Arab sector (Egypt, Kuwait, Lebanon, Qatar, and Turkey) tended to have their most prominent response for *different country* noted as another Arab country or Canada. Mongolia mentioned the high number of Australians due to the mining corporations housed in the country. However, other regions (Africa, Asia, Europe, and Latin America) exhibited no pattern as to a specific nationality or region linked to their school.

Types of schools. Almost half of the 133 participants at various school's personnel identify their school as an AIS (63 schools) as opposed to calling themselves an IS (69). Only one response was not discernable. Under the general IS category, the non-AIS identified

themselves as either general International Schools, International Baccalaureate (IB) schools, Bilingual schools, or a blend of UK and US schools. Because not all people taking this survey identified the name of their school, it was challenging to identify all areas of potential overlap of employees from the same school, duplications, or no response.

Types of Host Country Governance and Religious Orientation. Contributors were asked if the host country in which they were was considered democratic, monarchy, socialist, communist, or other as it related to the type of governance. Most participants identified their country as democratic (107), followed by a monarchy (19), socialist (6), and communist (1). The most prominent host country religious orientation identified by the participants was Christian. The second most prominent religious orientation was equally split between Christian and Islam, and the third most prominent religious orientation identified was that of Islam. The schools hosted students that had the most prominent religion of Christian and Islam.

Educator Perceptions of Cultural Dynamics

Host Culture Identity

The first guiding research question examines what cultural dynamics exist that have an effect on educators in international schools. As an umbrella inquiry, the general question of whether cultures clash within the host country indicated that educators responded that cultures did not clash (82; 61.7%). The researcher asked questions related to cultural observances in schools. One intrinsic factor examining if cultural dynamics influence a school is whether holidays or religious events are days taken off from school. When examining host country holidays, 89% or the majority of educators that responded indicated that the school in which they work takes the host country holidays off (118). However, when asked if the school takes host

country's religious observations off, not as many schools actually observe religious holidays of the host country within the school (99; 75%).

Upon further analysis, a majority of educators, or about 89%, indicated that the host country culture is actually assimilated into school-wide practices (118). About 85% (112) of educators believed that it is the school's responsibility to maintain the host country identity within the school since it is in the host country. Table 4.10 outlines the perceptions of educators related to host country culture assimilation into schools. Using a Chi-Square analysis, no significant difference was seen between administrator or teacher responses relative to whether the HCC is assimilated regularly into school practices and events $X^2 (2, N = 133) = 2.56$, $p < 0.465$. Therefore, administrators and teachers answered similarly.

Table 4.10

Evidence of Host Country Culture Practiced in School

Country	Agree	Disagree
The school takes HC holidays off	118 (88.8%)	15 (11.3%)
The school takes HC religious observations off	99 (74.5%)	33 (24.8%)
The HCC is assimilated regularly into school practices and events	118 (88.8%)	15 (11.3%)
It is the school's responsibility to maintain the HCC identification	112 (84.9%)	20 (15.1%)

Note: HC = Host Country and HCC = Host Country Culture

When examining the results by region, a majority (over 80%) of schools take host country holidays off. Latin American and African regions indicated they took all host country holidays off. Results by region are outlined in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11

Schools Take Host Country Holiday's Off of School

	Region				
	<u>Latin</u>				
	<u>America</u>	<u>Europe</u>	<u>Arab</u>	<u>Asia</u>	<u>Africa</u>
Strongly agree (SA)	72.0%	38.5%	56.0%	14.3%	60.0%
Agree (A)	28.0%	42.3%	36.0%	71.4%	40.0%
<i>Combined SA and A</i>	<i>100.0%</i>	<i>80.8%</i>	<i>92.0%</i>	<i>85.7%</i>	<i>100.0%</i>
Disagree (D)	-	13.5%	4.0%	14.3%	-
Strongly disagree (SD)	-	5.8%	4.0%	-	-
<i>Combined D and SD</i>	<i>0.0%</i>	<i>19.3%</i>	<i>8.0%</i>	<i>14.3%</i>	<i>0.0%</i>

The researcher further examined the data to reveal whether a pattern was visible by region to determine if schools took host country religious observations off. Relative to whether or not IS take holidays off, less regions take religious observances off. A 20% average decrease was visible in the data between holidays being taken off versus religious observances for the regions of Latin America, Europe, Asia, and Africa. Arab nations remained consistent at the 92% in both holidays being observed and religious observances being taken off from school. Table 4.12 shows the response rate for the host country taking religious observations off from school.

Table 4.12

Host Country Religious Observations are Taken Off from School

	Region				
	<u>Latin</u>				
	<u>America</u>	<u>Europe</u>	<u>Arab</u>	<u>Asia</u>	<u>Africa</u>
Strongly agree (SA)	28.0%	23.5%	52.0%	9.5%	40.0%
Agree (A)	56.0%	43.1%	40.0%	52.4%	40.0%
<i>Combined SA and A</i>	<i>84.0%</i>	<i>66.6%</i>	<i>92.0%</i>	<i>61.9%</i>	<i>80.0%</i>
Disagree (D)	16.0%	25.5%	4.0%	33.3%	10.0%
Strongly disagree (SD)	-	7.8%	4.0%	4.8%	10.0%
<i>Combined D and SD</i>	<i>16.0%</i>	<i>33.3%</i>	<i>8.0%</i>	<i>38.1%</i>	<i>20.0%</i>

Cultural Impacts within the Classroom

Influences of educator cultural diversity within the schools were also examined. As mentioned previously, most students that attend international schools are from the host country itself, and therefore tend to follow the host country culture. However, not all educators are from the host country, and therefore may or may not be familiar with host cultural norms. In terms of the anatomy of the faculty within the schools, most educators perceived the faculty to be composed of a representative blend of diversity between host, US, and third country cultures (106; 79.7%).

Taboo topics in the classroom. When examining types of varied or discretionary topics and conversations that occur within the classroom by a diverse staff, a mix of differing perspectives exists regarding what can be discussed within the classroom. For example, when determining if taboo topics related to the host country society are easily discussed within the school most educators provided split results. Slightly more than half perceived taboo topics related to the host country society were easily discussed (71; 53.4%) whereas almost half felt they could not bring up taboo topics (61; 45.9%). When examining discussion of taboo topics in the classroom, differences occurred between regions (Table 4.13). In the regions of Latin America, Europe, and Asia, close to 60% of the educators strongly agreed or agreed that taboo topics related to the host country society are easily discussed within their schools. The schools in Africa revealed that only about 50% of educators strongly agreed or agreed that taboo topics were easily discussed. However, in the Arab countries, no educator strongly agreed that taboo topics are easily discussed, and only 28% agreed that taboo topics could be discussed.

Table 4.13

Taboo Topics Related to Host Country Society are Easily Discussed within the School

	Region				
	<u>Latin</u>				
	<u>America</u>	<u>Europe</u>	<u>Arab</u>	<u>Asia</u>	<u>Africa</u>
Strongly agree (SA)	4.0%	7.8%	-	9.5%	-
Agree (A)	64.0%	51.0%	28.0%	47.6%	50.0%
<i>Combined SA and A</i>	<i>68.0%</i>	<i>58.8%</i>	<i>28.0%</i>	<i>57.1%</i>	<i>50.0%</i>
Disagree (D)	28.0%	35.3%	40.0%	42.9%	40.0%
Strongly disagree					
(SD)	4.0%	5.9%	32.0%	-	10.0%
<i>Combined D and SD</i>	<i>32.0%</i>	<i>41.2%</i>	<i>72.0%</i>	<i>42.9%</i>	<i>50.0%</i>

Student individual expression and autonomy. Despite the nature of the topic, the researcher also examined whether the individual was valued at the schools. When participants were asked if the school is open to ideals and practices that are conducive to the expression and autonomy of the individual student, most felt strongly (122; 91.8%) that the school provides these values and supports for students (Table 4.14). In the regions of Latin America, Europe, Asia, and Africa, more than 90% of educators strongly agreed or agreed that the school values students by being conducive to expression and autonomy of the individuals. In Arab countries,

80% strongly agreed or agreed that the school values students by being conducive to expression and autonomy of the individuals.

Table 4.14

The School is Open to Ideals and Practices that are Conducive to Expression and Autonomy of the Individual

	Region				
	<u>Latin</u>				
	<u>America</u>	<u>Europe</u>	<u>Arab</u>	<u>Asia</u>	<u>Africa</u>
Strongly agree (SA)	36.0%	57.7%	24.0%	52.4%	90.0%
Agree (A)	56.0%	36.5%	56.0%	42.9%	10.0%
<i>Combined SA and A</i>	<i>92.0%</i>	<i>94.2%</i>	<i>80.0%</i>	<i>95.3%</i>	<i>100.0%</i>
Disagree (D)	8.0%	3.8%	8.0%	4.8%	-
Strongly disagree					
(SD)	-	1.9%	12.0%	-	-
<i>Combined D and SD</i>	<i>8.0%</i>	<i>5.7%</i>	<i>20.0%</i>	<i>4.8%</i>	<i>0.0%</i>

Adaptation of teaching styles. The researcher also inquired about whether teachers adapted their teaching style to match the host country styles and values. When examining countries together, teachers generally did not adapt their teaching style to match the host country culture styles and values (72; 54.1%). Examination by region shows that most teachers in Latin America and Arab countries agree that they adapted their teaching style to match the region.

However, in both regions very few perceived teachers to strongly agree that they adapted their teaching style. In Europe, Asia, and Africa, about 40% or less of educators indicated that teachers altered their teaching styles to meet the needs of the host country with the least adaptation in the African region. Table 4.15 summarizes teacher pedagogy style changes by region.

Table 4.15

Teachers Adapt Their Teaching Style to Match the HCC

	Region				
	<u>Latin</u>				
	<u>America</u>	<u>Europe</u>	<u>Arab</u>	<u>Asia</u>	<u>Africa</u>
Strongly agree (SA)	4.0%	-	12.0%	-	10.0%
Agree (A)	56.0%	40.4%	48.0%	33.3%	20.0%
<i>Combined SA and A</i>	<i>60.0%</i>	<i>40.4%</i>	<i>60.0%</i>	<i>33.3%</i>	<i>30.0%</i>
Disagree (D)	40.0%	50.0%	36.0%	38.1%	50.0%
Strongly disagree					
(SD)	-	9.6%	4.0%	28.6%	20.0%
<i>Combined D and SD</i>	<i>40.0%</i>	<i>59.6%</i>	<i>40.0%</i>	<i>66.7%</i>	<i>70.0%</i>

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Cultural Dynamics

The second guiding research question addresses the perceptions of educators related to intrinsic and extrinsic cultural enhancements or issues in AIS or IS that might affect the success

of the school and quality of education. This research question focuses on how educators perceive and act based upon internal, or intrinsic, school dynamics related to gender, religion, and socioeconomic status of families attending the school to provide a fuller sociocultural perspective. External, or extrinsic factors, include host country laws, funding, and policies related to the school set by the school board and school leaders in conjunction with the HC.

Intrinsic Cultural Dynamics

Gender as a factor. Gender was an intrinsic factor that was evaluated by the researcher during the study. The researcher asked questions that were created to examine issues related to gender conflict. In examining the intrinsic factor of gender, more educators than not perceived males and females to be treated equally within the HC (77; 58%). Conducting a Chi-square analysis, no significant difference was observed between the way males and females answered the question at $X^2(2, N = 133) = .414, p < 0.42$. And asking a further question as to whether polygamy is practiced in the host country, more educators perceived that it was not practiced in a particular nation in which they work (96; 72%). An educator in the Russian Federation provided an example explaining students face challenges and discrimination related to sexual orientation, such as Lesbian Gay Bisexual Transgender Questioning/Queer (LGBTQ) students. Another comment spoke to how homophobia occurs in Russia and parents actively work to minimize LGBTQ support groups. In Arab nations, an educator commented that gender inequality is evident in that two females carry the weight of one male.

Religious orientation as a factor. Religious orientation was another intrinsic factor that was evaluated by the researcher during the study. The researcher asked religious orientation related questions to examine if this was an area of conflict. When examining different religious orientations within the HC, this intrinsic factor was not perceived to cause conflict for schools.

More educators agreed that people within the country with different religious orientations were more likely to get along than not (104; 78.2%). Further, the religious orientation of the host country is less likely to influence how the school operates (98; 73.7%).

Socioeconomic status of student population as a factor. The socioeconomic status of the student population was predominantly affluent. The second most predominant category was upper middle class followed by middle-class. *Lower Middle Class* and *Poor* were not selected by any participant. Most participants indicated that international schools were very expensive and parents are required to pay their own tuition. One school in Africa indicated that tuition can cost about \$20,000-\$25,000 for each student to attend. Another school in Switzerland indicated it was the seventh most expensive school in the world having a tuition of around \$100,000 per student. According to the perceptions of educators, the students that have the highest representative population are host country wealthy locals followed by expatriates that are working abroad for either a nonprofit or for-profit companies. According to the survey respondents, parents worked for the types of countries that included non-governmental organizations (NGOs), diplomatic corporations, oil and gas companies, banking or insurance companies, or technology companies.

For parents working for these organizations, most companies that employ the parents pay for the tuition of their children to attend international schools. A small population of students that attend international schools are poor local host country children that are able to obtain scholarships from the school in order to attend. The number of local children that attend international schools was minimal and were rated by educators to be the smallest represented population. Educators also perceived that in some countries, locals are wealthier than foreigners or expatriates, which is the reason why companies pay for tuition. On the converse, other feedback from participants indicated that host country locals are only wealthy by national

standards, but not by foreign or expatriate standards. Because of the clientele that attend international schools abroad, the regions and countries were consistent in their feedback.

School climate. Educators were asked about the school climate where they work. Most educators replied that they strongly agreed or agreed that educators within the school like each other (97%; 129) whereas only a handful disagreed or strongly disagreed (3%; 4). No significant difference using a Chi-square was seen between regions as to whether individuals within different nations answered differently or if they were an administrator or teacher when conducting a Chi-square analysis. Further, a majority of educators also reported that they strongly agreed or agreed they express pride in the school in which they work (91.7%; 122).

Additional Intrinsic Information Provided by Participants

Survey participants were provided an opportunity to add additional information specifically related to host country culture influences, impacts, and challenges that they deal with as an educator in their HC. Conflicting perceptions occurred where some educators spoke to the HC having an influence and some educators did not perceive the HC to have a strong impact. Feedback from some educators from European nations commented culture is not an impact. For example, in both Switzerland and England culture does not have such a big influence. The comments provided suggest that these countries are very similar to the US in that they are a melting pot of cultures and religions so international schools in these European countries are not highly influenced by culture.

On the converse, six countries in different regions commented that host country culture does influence and impact international schools, specifically how educators work with students and families. In one school in Italy, an educator commented that host country culture is taught to all students in primary school. In Germany, German standards must be met, students are

required to take German as a language, and host culture children can only attend an international school for a maximum of five years. Other countries outside of Europe also commented on the cultural effects that a nation has on the school. In Guatemala, discrimination within the HC is observed against indigenous Mayan students which filters into the schools. And in countries in the Middle East, such as Kuwait, maps of Israel are not allowed in schools or textbooks. In German and Arab nations, national curriculum is required to be taught. In addition, children in Arab nations may repeat comments at school that parents make at home regarding cultural clashes between Sunni and Shiite Muslims within the country. In Mongolia, nomadic and urban lifestyles clash and most people claim to be of the Buddhist faith but practice it infrequently. Educators in the Latin American countries of the Dominican Republic and some Central American countries commented that students tend to exhibit acceptable disruptive behaviors and foreign teachers are expected to tolerate HC student behaviors.

Extrinsic Cultural Dynamics

Comparison of host country to US culture and law. When international schools were compared to whether host country culture had a similar philosophy and values to the US, most educators perceived the cultures to be different (87; 65.4%). In terms of similarities of the host country law to US laws, people were split down the middle regarding host country law being similar to the US. However, more educators disagreed (78; 58.6%) than not that host country educational customs that are different than the US need to be adhered to in the classroom and in the school. In addition, most educators perceived that the school in which they work had a good reputation with the host country community (123; 92.6%).

Composition of governing school board. The school board plays an important role in the governance of the school and connection to the host country culture. Most school boards are

considered appointed (45; 33.8%) rather than elected (38; 28.6%). However, some school boards have a mix of advisers that are both appointed and elected (37; 27.8%). If school boards were neither appointed or elected, a space was provided for participants to describe the type of school board associated with their school. The only other two described categories were either that the owners or founders of the school comprised the school board (8; 6.0%) or the participants did not know (5; 4.8%).

The type of members on the school board were also described. Participants had a choice of selecting whether the school board consisted of host culture parents, US parents, a third culture parent that was considered a different culture than the host country or the US, community members that are not parents of children attending the school, or a chance to explain another type of board member. The school board in most international schools were largely comprised of members best described as host culture parents (42; 31.6%). The second and third largest groups that made up the school board was best described by the other category varying and descriptions from embassy members, alumni, owners, donors or founders in a various mix of host country and third country culture members that had an interest in the school.

Keeping educators in the community informed regarding policy in communication of practices within an international school are an important extrinsic factor to note. The perception of most educators was that they indicated the school board annually reviews policies to ensure that the host country cultural needs are met (78; 58.6%). Despite the fact that most educators think that the school board reviews policy, most educators did not feel that the school board communicated frequently with them to discuss policies, finances, and laws (67; 48.3%) important to the school. Further, educators also indicated that the school board did not communicate policies, finances, and laws related to the school frequently enough with the

community (74; 55.7%). Some comments provided by educators as to the lack of communication between the school board and educators, and the school board and the community was that the board members generally did not live in the area or within the same country. However, comments were made that the school board will more frequently communicate with the Head of Schools or principals rather than teachers. Some educators indicated that the school board is working to become more transparent but also wants to provide autonomy to the schools.

Accommodations Made by International Schools Based on HC Expectations

The third research question examined what accommodations or compromises do international school educators make because of host country cultural expectations or influences in order to manage, lead, and navigate a school. The next section discusses how school leaders and teachers accommodate host country cultures within their schools and strategies for cultural assimilation.

Collaboration and Communication within Schools

School leaders. With the host countries influence in mind, participants were asked questions related to school leader interaction with teachers. Educators were asked if they perceived if school leaders collaborated with teachers to establish clearer understanding of the host culture influence in the school. Most teachers and administrators were in agreement (99; 74.5%) that administrators did collaborate with teachers. Table 4.16 provides the detail of differences in administrator and teacher responses.

Table 4.16

School Leaders Collaborate with Teachers to Establish a Clear Understanding of the HC Influence in the School

Country	Administrator	Teacher	Total
Agree	66	33	99
Disagree	16	17	33
Total	82	50	132

Note: The administrator column had one non-response

The researcher also posed the question as to whether educators perceived school leaders to work with teachers to assimilate host country culture into school pedagogy and events. Most educators agree (96; 72.1%) that school leaders do work with teachers to assimilate the host country culture into pedagogy and school events. Table 4.17 shows observations provided by both administrators and teachers. However, a smaller proportion of administrators and teachers thought that the school and community conducted events frequently together (84; 63%).

Table 4.17

*School Leaders Work with Teachers to Assimilate Host Country Culture into School
Pedagogy and Events*

Country	Administrator	Teacher	Total
Agree	66	30	96
<u>Disagree</u>	<u>17</u>	<u>20</u>	<u>37</u>
Total	83	50	133

Note: HC = Host Culture

Last, educators were asked if they perceived if school leaders clearly communicated visions and goals of the school to the teachers. Many responses from both administrators and teachers showed that they agreed (117; 88.0%) that school leaders do clearly communicate visions and goals of the school with teachers. Table 4.18 provides the specific tallies of administrator and teacher responses.

Table 4.18

School Leaders Clearly Communicate the Vision and Goals of the School to Teachers

Country	Administrator	Teacher	Total
Agree	77	40	117
<u>Disagree</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>16</u>
Total	83	50	133

Note: HC = Host Culture

Host country law influences. Most interesting related to host country law, participants were asked if the host country's laws influence how school leaders manage and operate the schools. As mentioned previously, most educators were in strong agreement that host country law strongly influences how the school is managed and how it operates and schools need to make accommodations to incorporate those laws (111; 83.4%).

Integration practices. Educators were asked if practices were put in place at their school to assist with the integration of the host country culture. Contributors were invited to offer input regarding professional development provided by the school to understand how to integrate the host country culture into curriculum and instruction. Less than half of schools abroad (64; 48.1%) indicated that they either strongly agreed or agreed that professional development was provided in this area, whereas 51.1% (68) disagreed or strongly disagreed that any professional development was provided that related to host country culture integration. Upon further questioning, administrators and teachers were asked if new educators to the schools were

provided professional development in adjusting to an international setting. Most responses indicated that educators (88.7%; 118) strongly agreed or agreed that practices are clearly in place for those new educators that are coming into a new host country or international setting.

However, more administrators perceived to have practices in school that assist new educators to adapt to an international setting than did teachers. Table 4.19 provides the overall responses to administrator and teacher perceptions around practices in place.

Table 4.19

Educators' Perception if Practices are in Place at School to Assist New Educators in Adjusting to an International Setting

	Role of Educator		
	<u>Administrator</u>	<u>Teacher</u>	<u>Total</u>
Strongly agree (SA)	38.6%	22.0%	32.3%
Agree (A)	56.6%	56.0%	56.4%
<i>Combined SA and A</i>	<i>95.2%</i>	<i>78.0%</i>	<i>88.7%</i>
Disagree (D)	3.6%	18.0%	9.0%
Strongly disagree (SD)	1.2%	4.0%	2.3%
<i>Combined D and SD</i>	<i>4.8%</i>	<i>22.0%</i>	<i>11.3%</i>
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

As a further analysis, transient rate among educators tends to be high. Slightly over half (54%;73) of educators strongly agreed or agreed perceived the transient rate to be high in their school. A couple of participants commented that overseas hires tend to stay approximately two to three years. Other comments suggested that teachers tend to leave due to not getting along with administration or the weather is too harsh. Some commented that the host country educators, such as in Arab nations, tend to stay longer in the schools up to 20 years.

Standards and Assessments

International schools may use one or a variety of different curricula and assessments within their schools. The type of curricula and assessments used addresses guiding question three where accommodations are made at international schools to accommodate host country cultural expectations or influences in order to manage, lead, and navigate the school.

Standards. Participants were asked what type of standards are used in their school. Respondents could select more than one answer if more than one type of standard was used. Since international schools have a variety of cultures within countries, schools work to remain competitive and provide consistent standards and curriculum between schools in various countries. Therefore, some schools may incorporate more than one type of standard to make the school more attractive and provide a consistent set of standards for those transient families. The options provided in the survey were US Common Core State Standards, United Kingdom standards (UK), International Baccalaureate (IB), or Other which provided a space for participants to comment on the type of standards used in their school. The reason why the US Common Core State Standards, UK, and IB standards were chosen was based on the results of the preliminary pilot survey.

The distribution of standards utilized by both AIS and IS was analyzed and compared. Figure 4.1 provides the results from all of the participants. Some schools used more than one standard or a combination of standards within the school. What is interesting to note, is that more IS used the US Common Core State Standards than did AIS overseas. Approximately 76% (40) of educators in IS said they used the US Common Core State Standards relative to the 24.5% (13) respondents from AIS. Most AIS stated they used UK (63; 52.1%) or IB (33; 67.3%) standards, whereas 47.9% (58) of IS used UK standards and/or 32.7% (16) used IB standards. Based upon the open-ended comments left by participants when they selected the Other category, they mentioned standards related to American Education Reaches Out (AERO) or specific standards of the host nation country. Approximately 45.5% (45) of AIS replied that they may use Other standards, whereas 54.5% (54) of IS also used Other standards.

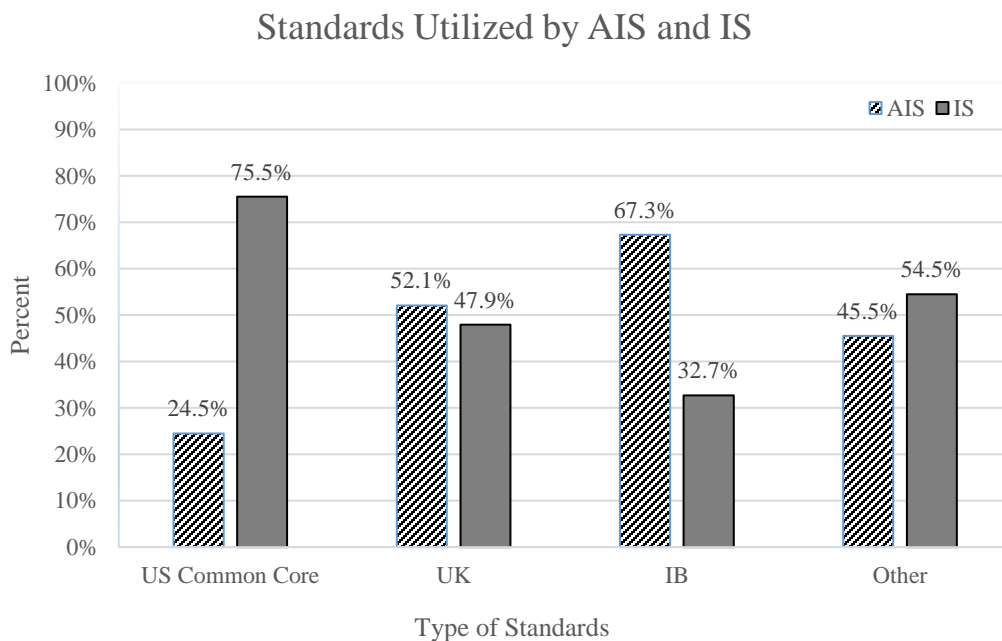


Figure 4.1. Standards Utilized by AIS and IS

Assessments. Survey participants were also asked what type of international benchmark tests are used to assess student achievement. Based upon the results provided in the preliminary pilot survey feedback, respondents were given a choice of six of the most common international benchmark tests mentioned along with an open-ended Other choice. The six international benchmark selections included Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS), The Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS), Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT), International Schools' Assessment (ISA), and International General Certificate of Secondary Education (IGCSE). All schools (100%) reported that they used TIMSS as an international benchmark assessment. The second most common international benchmark assessment was PIRLS (98.5%) followed by PISA (94%) and IGCSE (90.2%). ISA was utilized in 78.2% of schools. A drastic drop was seen in other assessments, which included the SAT assessments (38.3%) and Other assessments (44.4%). Twenty-two of the respondents indicated they used Measures of Academic Progress (MAP) assessments, which are part of the Northwest Evaluation Association (NWEA) assessments. Other fewer comments included the International English Language Testing System (IELTS), Cambridge Checkpoint, and i-Ready assessments. Figure 4.2 is a graph showing the most common assessments used by international schools abroad.

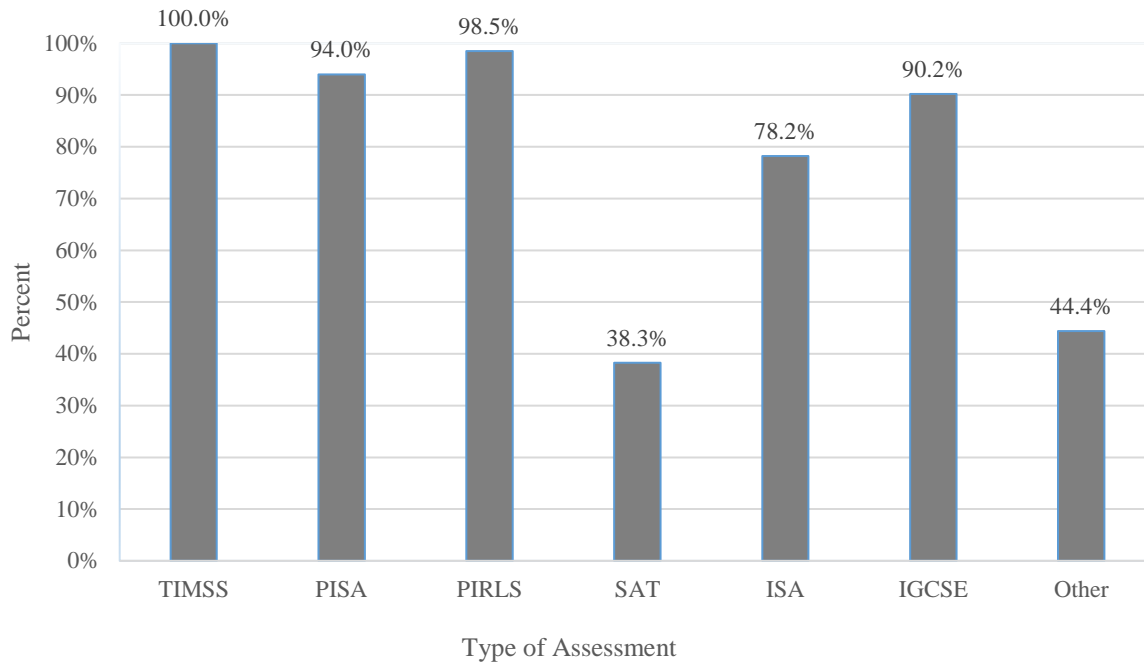


Figure 4.2 Assessment Type Utilized by AIS and IS

Participants also had an opportunity to comment on the type of national country-oriented benchmark assessments that are used to assess student achievement and performance within a nation. The comments provided by respondents were indicative of internal country-based assessments developed by individual nations to meet the country's needs. For example, schools in Germany, Guatemala, Italy, Kuwait, Lebanon, and Switzerland all commented that they use nationally created benchmark assessments that vary based upon individual country's needs.

Curriculum. Curriculum is another important aspect in the ability to integrate host country cultures and diversity into the school. Approximately 80.4% (107) of administrators and teachers strongly agreed or agreed that the host country culture is reflected in the school's curriculum. However, the number of contributors that indicated that the school offers specific

courses to students related to the culture of the host country dropped almost 20%. A total of 83, or 62.4% of educators either strongly agreed or agreed that specific courses related to the host country culture are offered as part of the integration into the curriculum.

One indicator in determining whether information regarding the host country culture is integrated within the curriculum can be found with *intercultural literacy*. Intercultural literacy is the competency that allows for effective cross-cultural engagement and communication within the school. A total of 106, or 79.7%, of educators strongly agreed or agreed that intercultural literacy is central to the school's culture. In addition, when examining diversity especially for students with special needs, 83.4% (111) of participants indicated that additional support is available for students with learning differences.

Contribution of Host Country Culture in International Schools

Participants were asked to respond to open-ended questions asking them their perceptions regarding how host country culture adds to the success or challenges of their school. Responses ranged from perceptions related to intrinsic variables to extrinsic accommodations. The next two sections discuss how the host country culture contributes to the success of a school and how the host country culture contributes to the challenges of creating a successful school.

Successes

When contributors were asked how the host country's culture contributes to the success of their school from their perception, most answers were centered about actual cultural attributes. Six general themes emerged from the responses that were perceived to contribute to how schools are successful centering about the benefits the actual host culture brings to the schools. The themes the host country culture provided in the schools were appreciation of cross-cultural perspectives, tolerance and diversity, international-mindedness, integration of cultures, a sense of

connection to host culture community, and the role of families. Participants provided examples of how host culture is integrated into the schools and creates the six themes.

Cross-cultural perspectives. In the first theme, appreciation of cross-cultural perspectives, responses to how the host culture is integrated into schools included the merge of multiple cultures in one setting. One participant in a school in Zimbabwe stated that, “the host country students and parents in our school are very Western, so ideals and practices tend to be closely aligned. As a result, successes are determined by exposing the international student to the host country culture.” Many schools stated that they take field trips within the host country so students are exposed to the culture and experience the country (89). A school in Argentina referenced how the rich and colorful history of the country is integrated into the curriculum and culture. In the country of Turkey, schools use the city and landscapes as a resource for authentic learning experiences encouraging students to engage with the culture and therefore provide them a positive experience of collaboration. Family days, heritage month volunteers, and luncheons are common in one Moroccan school. Administrators and teachers also said they and students participate in community events outside of school as well as bring community events, country celebrations, and traditions into schools.

Tolerance and diversity. The second theme discusses promoting tolerance and diversity within the school community. One contributor from Japan stated that, “as guests in another country, it reminds us of the similarities and differences and provides a context for teaching tolerance, understanding, and perspectives”. A couple of different schools in India mentioned the spirit of ethos of India incorporates the awareness of others along with the values of hospitality and kindness to one another. Arab schools such as Lebanon and Morocco promote tolerance and encourage families to look for the best allowing learners to be diverse and aware of the country

in which they live. Kuwaiti schools perceived to have success in blending the best of Eastern and Western cultures. Participants from multi-cultural countries such as Guatemala, discuss how the blending of cultures makes it easier for students to learn from each other. An educator in a school in Italy mentioned the warm and friendly atmosphere of the country and how it creates an environment where students are very accepting of each other's ideas and beliefs.

International-mindedness. For the third theme, international-mindedness is about having a respectful and open-minded attitude toward others where ideas are shared, host culture originations are accepted, and opinions are recognized, which is crucial to educating students in a global society (IB community blog, 2014). In Mongolia, schools provided information related to how host country culture adds to the success of their school. For example, one school that uses the IB curriculum (41) stated that part of the mission statement includes the idea that diversity and internationalism is respected. Another educator commented how students become reflective thinkers and risk-takers and learn new ideas because students observe different cultures.

Participants from a couple of European countries had some similar comments. A school in the Russian Federation perceived the school as having global citizenship opportunities, since it is located in the host country. A participant from a school in Poland specifically stated, "We strive to develop our students as international-minded learners. The host country culture, and our inclusion of various aspects of the culture in the program of study support our efforts to provide a broad experience for all of our students toward cultural understanding and acceptance of differences".

In Latin America, participants tended to comment about students and acceptance of liberal views. Students bring their own view to education in a school in Brazil. In Uruguay, the perceived liberal country accepts people from all different backgrounds and cultures so students

feel welcome in the country and school. And in Guatemala, the host culture gives cultural guidelines to assist with establishing goals with students.

Integration of cultures. Many schools embed the heritage of the host culture into parts of the curriculum so that students learn about the host country traditions, values, and celebrations. Schools in Latin America such as the Dominican Republic and Guatemala, take pride in host country tradition and historical events which are integrated into activities into the curriculum in order for students to appreciate and learn from similarities and differences between cultures in the school. For example, the Mayan culture in Guatemala enriches the school environment and provides an area of ongoing research for the students. In Arab nations such as Lebanon, educators perceive the country to have a strong cultural mix that is represented in their school. In Turkey, host country culture is celebrated in the curriculum by modifying and adding cultural and geographical links with the Turkish culture to supplement the National Curriculum for England. In Japan, an educator commented that Japanese culture is integrated and assimilated into the curriculum with the assistance of the International Center for Japanese Culture.

Eastern European nations also provided comments. An educator in the United Kingdom commented that although the school is English-speaking, the school's success depends more on integrating other cultures of students and not just the British culture. In a school in the Ukraine, host country holidays are celebrated, physical education uniforms are based upon the Ukrainian Vyshyvanka patterns, and they participate in local community events.

Community. Developing a sense of community not only within the school, but with the host country community assists in developing and maintaining relationships between school and country. Comments from educators related to community ties were evident to supporting

successful AIS and IS. In Bulgaria, one participant (93) perceived the host country culture to have rich traditions assimilated into the school community, which contributed to the overall sense of community between the school and host country. School community events tend to mirror local events such as St. Martin's celebration, spring festival, and Christmas bazaar in Germany. An educator in Italy commented that the integration of the host culture gives the school the "cheerfulness of Neapolitan culture".

Many schools in various countries commented they hire local educators and support staff within their schools. Having local staff in the school provides a sense of pride and connectedness to the host country. One administrator from a Mexican school replied that they are proud to have many teachers from the host country. In India, employing local staff are a benefit to the school because they are friendly and dedicated employees that help to maintain the school, which was also mirrored by a school in the Ukraine. One educator in Mongolia commented that educators and staff from the country are hardworking and do their best for the school. In one school in Poland, a teacher commented that "Polish teachers and teacher assistants in our school are well-trained, enthusiastic, conscientious, and very welcoming".

The role of families. The role of families within the schools was a large contributing factor to the success of the schools. Many educators stated families that have students attending international schools are very supportive within the facility. One person in a school in Egypt commented that, "the school motto capitalizes on the Egyptian value of community and family in creating a collaborative and supportive environment for learning". Another educator in an Arab (46) school explained that the culture is very "family-centered" and strongly cultivates family-school relationships and sense of community, and therefore families are generous in donations, supportive of school causes, and kind. An educator in a school in Switzerland commented

families stay for a long time in the school because of the efficient, effective, organized, matter of fact, and predictable attributes of the Swiss culture.

Challenges

When contributors were asked how the host country's culture contributes to the challenges of their school from their perception, five major issues became predominant. Three of the challenges were extrinsic and two were intrinsic. The extrinsic challenges the educators perceived to be issues in the school were host country laws or government regulations, parent expectations, and curriculum integration. The two more intrinsic challenges were cultural differences of teachers and their teaching styles, and the host country culture. No specific trends were identified in the intrinsic challenge of host country culture, but rather a blend of different aspects related to the culture itself. Participants provided examples of how extrinsic and intrinsic aspects create challenges within international schools. The following section discusses the comments provided by the participants related to the challenges and issues educators perceived to encounter working in a host country setting.

HC laws and government regulations (Extrinsic). This first section discusses the most commonly commented responses related to challenges international schools endure. Operational matters related to international schools are significantly impacted by HC laws and government regulations. Most comments came from educators in Europe, particularly in Denmark, Czech Republic, and Switzerland. Many people made reference to the *red tape* that is associated with obtaining visas and residence permits for both students and faculty. Educators in schools in Mongolia and Japan mentioned labor laws are challenging because schools need to deal with the government regarding labor. For example, host country labor laws make it challenging to remove a teacher. School educators in India described how compliance is constantly changing within the

country and keeping up with the changes as well as interpreting them for use within the international schools are demanding. Further, since the cultural norms of the host country culture may be different than the predominant culture within the international schools (i.e., founders of the school and faculty composition versus the host country culture), perceptions of education and how a school is managed present challenges in Panama and Qatar.

Parental expectations (Extrinsic). Parental expectations were the second most widely commented extrinsic factor creating challenges within an international school. The primary umbrella issue was that because families may come from different cultures within the schools, parental expectation and comprehension of how curriculum is delivered and the pedagogical format associated with the delivery is not always clear. Different educational goals, curriculum delivery, and work effort perceptions between parents and schools do not necessarily coincide and parents do not always understand how schools are managed (Turkey, Dominican Republic, and Morocco). An educator in the UK commented that language development and unreasonable demands made by parents make managing and leading the school tricky. Some parents have different styles, sensitivities, and educational views than the school as commented by a participant in Turkey. An international school in Bulgaria takes a proactive approach to help parents “understand the differences and similarities of the school’s approach relative to our host country, and others’ home countries”. Therefore, most parental expectations come from lack of understanding between how an international school approaches education versus how their own home country expects the IS to be managed.

Curriculum integration (Extrinsic). Curriculum integration was the third most common challenge presented by international school educators. The main premise was focused on attempting to integrate an international curriculum along with the host country national

curriculum. Educators in Argentina, Costa Rica, Germany, and Guatemala identified similarities and challenges in that national curricula and diplomas are required by the Ministry of Education while the international schools are integrating in international curriculum, such as IB. An educator in Germany commented that Germans take pride in the quality of their educational standards and curriculum, and therefore are not as accepting of an international curriculum. For example, IB recognition is difficult because the German officials do not feel it is as adequate or as rigorous as the national curriculum. On the converse, one school in Lebanon mentioned that the national curriculum is too rigid compared to the international curriculum and it is difficult to integrate both simultaneously.

Another factor related to curriculum integration was the language barrier between host country language and English. Comments were made by educators in Germany, Egypt, and Poland that the language barrier not only makes it a challenge to teach students, but also that students will revert to their mother tongue during private conversations and communication making it difficult for teachers to communicate with students. Last, a teacher in Poland commented on the influx of English Second Language (ESL) students creating language barriers for students during learning without supports in place for these children. She stated, “with the influx of students there is no concurrent increase in ESL (and SPED) supports creating considerable challenges for teachers”.

Perceptions of teaching styles (Intrinsic). The most common intrinsic challenge conveyed by both administrators and teachers was the cultural differences in regards to the perception of delivery of education and teaching styles between US, host, and third country culture educators within a host country. The conflicting delivery of pedagogical styles is best described as the difference between traditional and new teaching practices. Traditional teaching

practices were defined by participants as teacher-centered or the lecture-based pedagogical styles predominately visible from local host country teachers. Many overseas or internationally-based teachers presented new pedagogical styles that included student-centered, inquiry-based, and independence-emphasized (teaching students to be independent and autonomous) modes of delivery. The difference between traditional teaching practices and the new teaching practices was a common theme from teachers and administrators in several countries including India, Ukraine, Brazil, Japan, Poland, Kuwait, and Zimbabwe. For example, a teacher in Poland commented that “the residue of a post-Nazi or communist regime has contributed to the lack of awareness regarding Western educational theory and practice”. Therefore, some of the new pedagogical techniques expatriate teachers use is not widely accepted.

In regards to support for teachers, some educators mentioned the stronger need for integrating new teachers into the host country culture. Some educators in the Latin American countries of Guatemala and Brazil both commented on the need for cultural adjustments for new international hires and better induction programs to justify host country culture. An educator from a school in Zimbabwe mentioned curriculum is very disciplined and content-based within the country which is a different pedagogical technique than what she is used to conducting. As part of pedagogical practices for new hires coming from abroad, teachers need to understand what topics may be taboo in the classroom. For example, an educator from a school in Kuwait mentioned topics of evolution and sex are taboo in the classroom whereas those topics may not have been prohibited in his or her previous school.

Perceptions of cultural contexts (Intrinsic). Another commonly highlighted challenge addressed by educators was the adaptation to the host country culture. Some faculty in the countries from Latin America such as Guatemala and Panama mentioned local events can

become expensive and the number of celebrations culminating in days off from school can at times be excessive. In Europe, comments were made regarding how the appreciation of rules by host country nationals were sometimes seen in a different way than by employees from abroad (Switzerland). An administrator in Bulgaria mentioned cultural norms within the country are significantly different than norms from staff that are from the US, the UK, Canada. Difference in cultural norms can lead to confusion between IS and host country cultures.

Some educators also mentioned the political cultural climate can be antagonistic toward foreigners in some countries across Europe (Switzerland) which “can lead to unwelcome generalizations about some members of our community”. For example, an administrator in Germany commented regarding in anti-Islam movement within Europe. He said, “the PEGIDA organization (Patriotic Europeans Against the Islamisation of the West) poses challenges with internationals in the city. Essentially, anti-Islam sentiment, which does impact on the daily lives of the students to a limited degree”.

Some other countries, at times, commented they may experience cultural resistance. In Kuwait, approximately 92% of the students are from the host country and therefore diversity is a challenge. Further, one educator stated that “getting the students to accept that other cultures, nationalities, and religions have validity is difficult. Getting them to think and act globally is quite a challenge also”.

Other challenging perceptions. Two additional challenges mentioned by participants included the perceptions of wealthy student entitlement and the focus on testing. Educators in both Kuwait and Poland perceived that some families are very wealthy and therefore students tend to be less motivated, predominantly comfortable, and more entitled. The attributes associated with student entitlement present a complicated task for teachers to teach these

children. A teacher in India discussed how entrenched the local culture is in the caste system and that most students in their school are from the highest caste, making them extremely wealthy and entitled which is problematic to the teaching and learning process to get through the curriculum.

Comments regarding a high focus on testing and assessments for students was also perceived to be a challenge. One administrator in a South Korean school suggested there is a high focus on testing rather than skill-based learning. This was also the case in Egypt where high test scores are valued along with memorization rather than inquiry. In the UK one school is very exam focused, which is not necessarily compatible with the IB approach.

This concludes the quantitative section of this chapter. Findings from the quantitative data analysis were used to guide the qualitative interview questions and answers. Not all participants that responded to the survey volunteered to be interviewed. The next section of this chapter segues into the qualitative data analysis and findings of the interviews which were used to dig deeper into the quantitative findings.

Qualitative Data Analysis

This section of chapter four examines the questions used to discover additional and more in-depth information related to the perceptions of educators working in schools abroad. Qualitative data collection was used to purposefully structure interviews for maximum variation between countries and types of schools. For the interviews, the researcher wanted to provide comparisons between regions and schools, and therefore made an effort to contact an equal number of AIS and IS in Asia, Africa, Europe, Middle East, Latin America. Interview questions were developed based upon areas of interest that surfaced from the quantitative online survey that required more in-depth questioning. Areas of interest included reasons why expatriates send their children to AIS or IS abroad, international-mindedness, differences in standards and

curriculum used, explanation of teaching styles, expectations of parents, and successes and challenges of how a host country culture is integrated into the schools. Appendix D contains the questions derived from the quantitative findings and used for the qualitative interview process. Participants being interviewed were provided with the questions via email prior to the interview so they were aware of the themes of questions that would be asked of them. Some participants chose to type answers and send them to the researcher via e-mail in addition to being interviewed. The remainder of this chapter discusses the findings from the interview participants followed by a conclusion.

Participants Interviewed

This section presents the demographics of the interview participants. A total of 55 educators offered to be interviewed from the online survey. Some of the 55 educators were from the same school or did not provide complete contact information, therefore these educators were not considered for the interviews. The researcher was able to contact 28 participants from different schools that provided their complete name and email information to be interviewed. A total of 13 people were selected to be interviewed. Some of the participants (15) that were contacted opted-out of being interviewed or did not respond to the request to be interviewed. Despite trying to obtain interviews from educators in all five regions, not all participants returned the request email. For example, although contacted, the schools in Africa did not respond for interviews, therefore the researcher was only able to obtain interview information from an educator that previously worked in South Africa.

Interviews lasted for an average of 49 minutes, with a minimum range of 34 minutes to a maximum range of a little over 84 minutes long. In some cases, educators interviewed disclosed that prior to their current international school they were employed as educators in international

schools in more than one country. Therefore, these educators provided cultural information from other countries in which they were previously employed in international schools. Although these schools were not the primary focus areas during the interviews, participants were able to provide pertinent comparisons with ancillary cultural and school information from previous employment.

The type of school in which educators were employed were categorized as either AIS or IS. AIS is specifically associated or affiliated with America or the US. For this study, IS combines all the other international schools including bilingual, British, or other English-speaking schools as a means of comparison. Almost all international students usually have an affiliation with another country, whether they have dual citizenship or are traveling because their parents' employers send them to work in different countries every two to four years. A total of eight teachers interviewed were currently employed at AIS at the time of this study. Three educators provided essential ancillary information on AIS from previous employment, which provided the researcher with information from a total of 11 AIS. In addition, interview participants from the Latin American countries were all currently or previously employed at AIS. Therefore, no IS comparisons were available to be made from Central and South America international schools.

As for the IS, a total of 11 educators were interviewed. Five of the educators were currently employed at an IS as of this study, and six educators provided information from former IS in other countries. Four international schools were not distinguished to be either AIS or IS and one school was public, which was used as a comparison. Table 4.20 provides a list of educators from AIS and IS that were interviewed by various countries and regions. The top portion of the table shows the countries in which the educators were currently employed at the time of the

study. The lower portion of the table provides a list of countries where the educators previously worked providing the researcher with pertinent ancillary information.

Table 4.20

Educators Interviewed in 27 AIS and IS by Country and Region

Type of School	Current Country of Employment	Region
IS (<i>bilingual</i>)	Kuwait	Arab
AIS	Lebanon	Arab
IS	Turkey	Arab
AIS	India	Asia
IS (<i>English-speaking</i>)	Japan	Asia
AIS	Mongolia	Asia
AIS	Russia	Asia
AIS	Poland	Europe
AIS	Switzerland (AIS)	Europe
IS	Switzerland (IS)	Europe
IS	UK	Europe
AIS (<i>Christian</i>)	Panama	Latin America
AIS	Uruguay	Latin America
Type of School	Previous Countries of Employment	Region
AIS	South Africa*	Africa
IS	Iraq*	Arab

BIS (<i>British IS</i>)	Oman*	Arab
IS	Saudi Arabia*	Arab
IS	Indonesia*	Asia
-	South Korea*	Asia
-	Thailand*	Asia
IS	Vietnam*	Asia
Public School	Belgium*	Europe
-	Italy*	Europe
IS	Netherlands*	Europe
-	Romania*	Europe
AIS	Columbia*	Latin America
AIS	Ecuador*	Latin America

Note: Additional information provided by educators interviewed that worked in other countries and regions in which they were previously employed. However, not all information provided by educators from previous countries was used.

- Researcher was unable to obtain information on Type of School

Previous data analysis from the quantitative section of this chapter showed no significant difference between answers given by administrators and teachers, or between male and female educators. However, the researcher still attempted to obtain an equal number of both administrators and teachers as well as male and female participants. The gender of the interviewees was fairly equally distributed. However, more administrators offered to be

interviewed so therefore more administrators than teachers participated. Table 4.21 shows the distribution and composition of the 13 educators interviewed.

Table 4.21

Number of Male and Female Administrators and Teachers Interviewed

Role	Male	Female	Total
Administrator/Leader	4	4	8
Teacher	3	2	5
Total	7	6	13

The next part of the chapter analyzes the results based upon the findings from the interview questions. Each finding was analyzed by area of interest including reasons why expatriates sent their children to AIS or IS abroad, international-mindedness, differences in standards and curriculum used, explanation of teaching styles, expectations of parents, and successes and challenges of how a host country culture is integrated into the schools.

Reasons to Attend AIS or IS Abroad

The first area of inquiry for the interviews was related to specific reasons why expatriate families chose to have their children attend AIS or IS while abroad, as opposed to being homeschooled or attending public national schools. The reasons families have their children attend AIS or IS abroad relates to the second guiding research question of educator perceptions on cultural enhancements or issues that might affect the success of the school and quality of education. Specifically, some intrinsic and extrinsic factors accounted for reasons why parents

have their children attend international schools. The researcher was interested in examining any differences in reasons why a parent might enroll their student in an AIS as opposed to an IS while overseas. This question originated from the researcher noticing that during the quantitative data collection and analysis, many different types of international schools were in existence within one country. The significance of the multitude of international schools meant that families had choices in which school to have their children attend. From the online survey results, the researcher wanted to dig deeper regarding what the similarities or differences were of either attending an AIS or an IS and why families would choose one international school over another.

It is fundamentally important to understand the commonalities that exist between international schools so that a comparison can be made after identifying similarities. The first part of this section outlines and discusses the common attributes or similarities existing across international schools as perceived by educators. Four common themes or attributes were categorized based upon educator feedback from interviews. The four common attributes included English as the medium of instruction (extrinsic factor), consistency of curriculum and instruction for a transient population (extrinsic factor), benefits of dual citizenship (extrinsic factor), and international-mindedness (intrinsic factor).

Here, it is important to make a comment regarding international-mindedness. Despite the breadth and comprehension of questions utilized on the digital survey, international-mindedness was not a term the researcher specifically used in the quantitative survey (nor was familiar with) until the results of the questionnaire were returned and analyzed. International-mindedness was a frequently used term throughout the comment sections of the quantitative survey questions by educators. Because of the rate of recurrence of the term *international-mindedness* on the survey, the researcher specifically added a question to the qualitative interviews for educators to define,

describe, and provide examples of what international-mindedness meant to them. International-mindedness, although a separate question on the qualitative interview, was consistently addressed by educators as an attribute within this first question regarding reasons families attend international schools, rather than it being its own entity and answered separately. Therefore, findings to international-mindedness is addressed in this section related to “Reasons to Attend AIS or IS Abroad”, rather than as a separate section due to the consistent educator responses of putting international-mindedness within this section.

After determining commonalities of international schools, a comparison is made in the next part of this section to understand the distinction occurring between schools. This section provides descriptions and examples of noticeable differences between types of international schools.

On the flip side to reasons for attending international schools came restrictions for some students that were prohibited from attending. The researcher discovered during the quantitative data analysis findings that some international schools did not have host country students attending the school. Other international schools only had certain ethnicities or religious backgrounds. This prompted follow-up questions to be investigated during the qualitative interviews to determine the composition of the student body with the intention of identifying any restrictive regulations at play preventing host country students or other nationalities from attending international schools. The significance of asking about restrictions to attending an international school were an effort to determine how “international” an international school was within a particular host country. From educator interviews, many commented that not all students are actually able to attend their international schools. The last section addresses two extrinsic factors providing reasons as to why some students may be excluded from attending

international schools. The two extrinsic factors were restrictions related to government regulations and finances which influenced the composition of the student body within international schools. Reasons why some students could not attend either an AIS or IS based on regulations and restrictions are discussed. Restrictions related to acceptance of different nationalities enrolled in international schools are revealed from the qualitative interviews and are addressed at the conclusion of this section.

Common attributes between international schools. Of the educators interviewed, regardless of being employed at an AIS or IS, the reasons for parents sending their children to international schools were predominately the same and consisted of four major essential attributes. The four attributes included English as the medium of instruction, consistency of curriculum and instruction for a transient population, benefits of dual citizenship, and international-mindedness. Both AIS and IS contributed equally to these findings of similar common attributes.

The first attribute was that curriculum and instruction in AIS and IS were predominantly English-based. Educators interviewed from the different international schools made reference to the fact that the majority of the curriculum was English-based as the primary means of instruction. According to educators, parents felt that English was the most commonly utilized language worldwide and is the dialect most often used in business. Therefore, students that speak English are at an advantage of being more competitive when entering a university or the workforce. An educator in Uruguay gave a pertinent example. He mentioned parents want their children educated in English so they can go to a university in the US or join the workforce abroad. In addition, most educators referenced the fact that international schools generally tend to hire teachers whose native language is English for reasons of fluency and dialect purposes.

However, some of the educators referenced that some courses, particularly in the social sciences and history, were taught in the mother tongue depending upon the country. In other schools, such as Kuwait, almost the entire curriculum was delivered in Arabic such as religion and history, although some courses were in English as a secondary language.

The second attribute as to why parents send their children to international schools was that AIS and IS provide consistency in education for a highly transient population. Most families stay in one country an average of two to four years so children are constantly changing schools and meeting new people. Therefore, attending an international school reduces culture shock for students. For instance, educators in the UK, Mongolia, and Uruguay remarked that transient students may find it challenging to fit in to a new country because of language, culture, and teachers. International schools are an established environment where diverse populations of students find integration and cultural acceptance easier. This is because students in international schools have similar experiences making transitions between countries and schools less complicated and more stress-free. Students and educators are more empathetic to their transient lifestyle.

Third, many students have the benefit of dual citizenship in the country in which they are attending school. For example, educators from Lebanon and many Latin American countries such as Panama, Uruguay, Colombia, and Ecuador stated that about half of the students in their schools had dual citizenship with the host country as well as either the US or another nation. Implications for dual citizenship are also discussed in further sections of this chapter regarding standards, curriculum, and diplomas, along with access to Western and host country universities for students.

The fourth main reason parents send their children to international schools is because students are educated in *international-mindedness*. International-mindedness was a term that was used frequently by international educators during the quantitative online survey without the researcher initiating it. An administrator in Russia and a teacher in Mongolia defined it similarly as a *frame of mind* along with *ownership* related to global citizenship. Since this was such a popular term as part of the survey results, the researcher inquired about international-mindedness during interviews to obtain examples, definitions, and applications within an international school. A pattern of three common methods of delivery emerged from the interviews that international schools utilized to disseminate the philosophies of international-mindedness. The three methods were through the mission statements or philosophies, the approach, and the inquiry into host country cultures.

One method of delivering the concept of international-mindedness to students was to include it as part of the mission statements or philosophies within the school. Educators from Panama, Russia, Mongolia, Lebanon, and India all made reference to international-mindset either being in the mission statement or verbally visible as posters or banners on the walls within the school. The messages consisted of respecting self and others, becoming globally aware citizens, and loving learning.

The concept of children learning international-mindedness is a big draw for families. Many families want their children to go to school with other students that have the same experiences and challenges as their own children since these families are highly transient between countries. The experiences and exposures to other cultures provides a sense of global citizenship where open-mindedness and tolerance exist between different cultures and nationalities. For example, an educator in Poland remarked that many parents want to provide

their children with a positive social life as well as instill open-mindedness and tolerance for children with a variety of diverse ethical backgrounds.

The second method of delivery of international-mindedness was in regards to the *approach*. Educators interviewed commented that international-mindedness was about the approach used to instill respect for other cultures and nationalities. Kristien, an educator in the UK commented that international-mindedness is integrated into the IB curriculum (personal communication, January 8, 2017). She describes the IB profile as,

IB learners strive to be open-minded (everyone critically appreciates our own cultures and personal histories, as well as the values and traditions of others.) As an IB school we consider it important to nurture that IB learner profile, as a result we do create and nurture an international mindset. About 90% of our staff has lived and worked abroad at some time.

In other words, with exposure to international schools and IB training for some teachers, educators provide a learning environment practicing international-mindset just by the nature of the experience and contact in international settings.

In Lebanon, students are well-aware that they are not just being assessed academically, but assessed as global citizens tolerant of each other's differences. Paul (personal communication, January 11, 2017), an administrator from a school in Switzerland clarifies the meaning of international-mindedness by stating it is about,

Honoring your own culture but accepting others [is important in international schools]. We promote and educate that community values are going to superseded your own culture's value. This is very difficult but we see it as a key to becoming a global citizen.

Another administrator John, (personal communication, January 11, 2017) from a different international school in Switzerland brought clarity to the challenges of integrating an international-mindset into a school. He comments,

I see it as an approach to intercultural understanding; an awareness of other perspectives, ways of knowing, values, language, etc. This is not easy work, and shouldn't be assumed to be happening just because you have 50-60 nationalities and 40 mother tongue language spoken in the hallways. Rather, to create such a mindset you have to first cultivate empathy and compassion for the 'other'; understand where you come from and where others come from as well. It all starts with caring, and the need to care is an integral part of our mission.

He emphasized that just because the school is international with multiple nationalities attending does not automatically assume that everyone is open-minded and tolerant of each other. Teachers and administrators in the international schools promote recognition and acceptance of other cultures.

Creating an environment that promotes international-mindedness through global citizenship takes work from a community of educators. For example, in a school in the UK, an international evening is held at the school. Here, parents and students have individual booths where they share cuisine and mementos from their home country. During the event, all students' host country flags are displayed and students walk in a parade representing their country, similar to the opening of the Olympics. In addition, during the celebration students perform songs and dances wearing costumes from their home country. It is an environment in which different cultures learn about each other and everyone is respected regardless of nationality and ethnicity.

Integration of cultures is not always that easy. Educators make solid efforts to teach respect and ensure all students and cultures are valued. The climate of global citizenship and respect for others within an international school is strong enough that students from opposing countries still respect each other. For instance, an educator that worked in an international school in Thailand described a daily scenario where the school played a different national anthem every morning. Each anthem played represented a student's host country song that was attending the school. Out of respect for each other, all students and educators stood during the song. Even students that were from clashing countries still stood and listened to the other country's anthem. For example, shortly after the Ukraine and Russian conflict, the Russian national anthem was played and the Ukrainian children still stood through the anthem. Israeli and Arab nations stood for each other's national anthem at the international school. Conflict may be occurring between countries, but open-mindedness and tolerance was very clearly practiced based on the interviews from educators in international schools.

The third method of delivery of international-mindedness was through learning about the actual host country culture. Mike, from a school in Uruguay (personal communication January 11, 2017), eloquently states what international mindset means for him.

I believe that 'international mindset' is one's desire and/or ability to learn about the culture you are living in. You want to learn about the customs, the values, the idiosyncrasies, etc. of the culture of where you are living. I believe the school does create this type of mindset by teaching new teachers about the culture, by having teachers work in groups with national teachers, and just by allowing us to work at the school and being exposed to students from the country.

It was evident during interviews across international schools that learning about the host country was an important step in experiencing international-mindedness. However, not all students were easily integrated into the host country culture. In some cases, biases from international students toward the host country culture or nationality may occur. Having taught in various countries, Lauren from Poland (personal communication January 8, 2017), describes some attitudes of new international students starting school. She states,

In Indonesia, Vietnam, and Poland, a host country cultural program was provided for all students. The local teachers are very enthusiastic about sharing the wonders of their culture, and this definitely promotes a positive attitude in students towards the host country. [However], some Western students bring with them the belief that the host country, as well as its people, are inferior. Education is essential. South Africa had some interactive opportunities provided to both teachers and students.

In the school she taught in South Africa, she mentioned community outreach programs such as visiting orphanages of children whose parents both died of HIV. They would throw a Christmas party for them, bring gifts, and spend time playing games with this host country population of local children. This outreach provided students at the international school an opportunity to understand the dynamics of a host country population, especially since losing both parents to HIV is not a common occurrence in a Western culture.

Although parents send students to either an AIS or IS because it provides English as the medium of instruction, consistency for a transient population, dual citizenship, and international-mindedness, some differences do exist between AIS and IS. One main distinction between AIS and IS was the type of diploma offered. According to educators interviewed, most AIS offered a US diploma to students when they graduate, whereas in most IS, an IB diploma was provided.

However, one or two schools offer both but this was not predominant practice. The distinction between diplomas and curriculum have implications for university acceptance, which will be discussed later in this section.

Differences between AIS and IS. It is important to note here that other distinctions primarily occur between schools based on location. Many individual differences between schools themselves exist because of the need to adapt or accommodate to cultural differences within countries. One director, Ian from the Russian Federation (personal communication, January 11, 2017), spent the last 20 years in three different countries in three different international schools. He very eloquently stated that, “Every country is different and every single school within a country is different; people think an AIS or an IS is a norm and they are not, they are quite different.”

How do administrators and teachers know that international-mindset is practiced by students? Educators know that promoting an international mindset is pervasive throughout their school because of responses they received from students. Educators in both Russia and Switzerland commented that they could walk up to a student and ask them a question about current events and they would have an educated response. For example, one non-US student was asked by an administrator in Switzerland in the hallway what he thought about President Barack Obama’s last speech in the US. The student responded that he watched the speech and then proceeded to engage in conversation with the administrator regarding the impact of the speech and his opinions. Students attending international schools are highly in-tuned to global current events.

The remainder of this section addresses the distinctions as to why parents send students to AIS or IS if given a choice between type of international school. Examples from educators in

different schools provided evidence for the reasons why expatriates or host country parents sent their students to international schools. This section will also examine specific examples related to AIS and IS to understand some of the distinctions. The first three examples used in this section, schools in Uruguay, Lebanon, and the Russian Federation, are all AIS. The remaining examples are from IS.

Reasons for attending AIS. One educator interviewed currently working at an AIS in Uruguay stated he worked in two other AIS in South American countries as an administrator, which included Colombia and Ecuador. He indicated that in most Latin American countries an AIS provides a better quality of education with smaller class sizes than the local public schools. In addition, most of the expatriate families had traveled or continually travel frequently to the US and may even have dual citizenship with the US. Parents want their children to be able to learn and speak English, and most teachers at AIS are fluent in English or are from the US. Another educator in an AIS Latin America that resides in Panama provided the same reasons as the South American educator as to why parents send their kids to AIS, but added the fact that children receive an American-style education.

An administrator in Lebanon emphasized the democratic ideologies and values in their AIS along with culture. Parents in Lebanon send their students to the AIS because of the American curriculum such as the Common Core State Standards, The 21st Century Learning Skills, and innovative approaches to learning. Parents want their children to be of international-mindedness and become global citizens.

In Lebanon, opportunities exist for expatriate parents to send their students to either an AIS or IS within the country. The Lebanese educator interviewed provided a few reasons as to why parents would send their students to an AIS rather than an IS available in the same country.

First, this AIS school is similar to American schools in that it is democratically operated. Democratic philosophies are highly valued in this AIS, and the administrators and teachers manage a democracy by providing children with Democratic ideologies. In some aspects, ideologies within the school contradict the type of government in Lebanon, which is a Republic government. For instance, despite the fact that the country of Lebanon does hold elections, rules for the presidency and cabinet are strict. The president of Lebanon has to be a Maronite Christian, but the cabinet itself must be representative of 18 different Muslim religious sects.

Type of governance within an AIS operates differently than the type of governance in the host country culture, such as Lebanon. Student Council is governed democratically and students have rights and responsibilities based on democratic values. What is interesting is the distinction that the students were able to make between a democratically governed school compared to the Republic type of government within the Lebanese culture. Students made distinctions by comparing how elections took place between the democratically managed school versus the laws and regulations they must adhere to living in the Lebanese culture. One student indicated to the educator within the school that he could never be president of Lebanon because of his religious orientation, which is Muslim. But in school, he would be able to run for any leadership role regardless of religious orientation.

A second reason provided as to why parents choose to send their children to an AIS in Lebanon was because of the strategies used in the school. A major strategy used at this school is project-based learning and student-centered instruction. However, this can also be compared to the strategies used in IS that may follow IB standards and practices, which is discussed in the next section under teaching styles. Last, the IS schools in Lebanon generally belong to families from the American and UK embassy that are housed in Beirut, which frequently deal with

terrorist threats. This AIS is located in a culturally diverse and tolerant region of Lebanon that has less risk of terrorist attacks. According to the educator interviewed, people of different religious orientations (Muslims and Christians) live amicably in adjacent neighborhoods.

An educator from an AIS in the Russian Federation provided a historical component to why parents send their kids to his school that still has current implications. The reasons why expatriates send their children to an AIS in Russia is predominately historically based. The school was founded in 1949 as a collaboration between the American and UK embassies for the reason of not having expatriate children attend government managed Russian schools especially during the Cold War. In addition, this school is registered as a diplomatic school on “American soil”. Many of the facilities are updated and current and the school is American-centric which is attractive to many US expatriate families. To understand this further, Ian, an educator in Russia (personal communication, January 11, 2017) explains,

Expatriate parents choose to have their children educated in international schools for a variety of reasons. Perceived quality of instruction is one (so this related to consistency in standards too), the ability to move between schools worldwide is another (so this related to consistency in curriculum too), also having their children educated with other international children and being educated in an international language. Western values and national ideologies are [also] factors too, so too is some places is the wish to protect against a surplus of host country culture where the language may be different and the understanding of foreigners poor. Of course in some places foreigners are not allowed to be educated in local schools.

Although commonalities exist, differences between AIS exist based upon historical and cultural components as well as what a particular school values, such as democratic ideologies. The same

is true with IS where contrasts are perceived between IS in different countries. The next section moves away from AIS and examines variations among IS in different regions and countries.

Reasons for attending IS. In most cases, AIS housed in other countries use US standards or curriculum and offer US diplomas because it is linked to the US. The same concept is true for IS. IS in host countries may have links to specific nations and therefore use those countries standards. Here is where we see differences not only between AIS and IS, but between IS themselves based on the school's country of origin. In other words, each country that founded an IS in a different nation has their own laws, policies, and culture to integrate into the school along with the host country culture and regulations. Educators from Switzerland, UK, Turkey, Kuwait, and South Korea are provided as examples to show distinctions between IS.

Despite the IS housed in Europe, each country provides different perspectives on their international schools. For example, an educator interviewed in Switzerland mentioned many students may attend an IS in Europe for pragmatic reasons. The Swiss system is not accessible to students that arrive to the country at a high school age, unless they speak the mother tongue. One exception is for native German speakers that can access local high schools as long as they meet academic entrance requirements. In addition, mandatory schooling ends at the age of 16. Therefore, attending an IS is an option for older students moving into the country.

In an IS in the UK, approximately 50% of the students are from Britain and the other 50% are international, which do include some American students. Parents in this IS in the UK enroll for multiple reasons. First, the school offers an IB curriculum which is internationally recognized across nations. Families that travel prefer a consistent educational program offering similar standards, practices, and curriculum that IB offers between countries. Second, another important consideration for families traveling between countries every few years is that this

school offers open enrollment any time of the year as long as spaces are available. Third, the results from the IB exams are available in July rather than the British exam results which are not available until August. Early exam results provide early advantage for admissions into universities, which is why many UK nationals attend international schools. Last, an IB diploma holds more weight than the UK diploma because IB is considered to be a higher level of education with a broader perspective, whereas the UK curriculum is very specialized and focused for older students at the upper secondary levels. For example, the UK curriculum may be considered more subject specific or even vocational after the age of 16 where students may focus on three subject areas such as math, psychology, or photography rather than general education.

In Arab regions such as Turkey and Kuwait, the government has rules and laws that are more restrictive and a student's ability to attend some IS or government schools are solely based upon nationality. For example, for students to attend the IS in Turkey, one educator mentioned they must have dual citizenship with Turkey and another nation. Students with just a Turkish passport cannot attend an IS within the country, so most of these students go to local government schools. In Kuwaiti schools, similar rules were evident regarding government laws around nationality in that all students attending the bilingual school were of Arabic origin.

One educator in Turkey stated other reasons students may attend one IS over another is because of reputation and sense of community. Class sizes are small and ESL support is highly valued within the community. In addition, approximately 70 to 80% of the staff run afterschool activities, which builds relationships making a connection with the students outside of school.

However in a bilingual school in Kuwait, students attend for different reasons. Carol, an administrator in Kuwait states (personal communication, January 9, 2017),

I think [parents] choose our school because we do have great facilities, we follow the Arabic curriculum set forth by the Ministry of Education, and our English curriculum is based on Western curricula, so parents feel their children get the “best of both worlds” in terms of an education. We also engage in western activities such as Model United Nations (MUN), Academic Games, international sports events, National Honor Society, and Student Council which are not done in the Arabic [government] schools. Add to that, we have AP courses which push the students academically and can be used to meet some college course requirements should they study in the US.

Students attend the bilingual school in Kuwait predominantly because they are children of alumni that went to that school. The alumni are part of a tribe of five families and their friends that attend the school. The affiliates of the five tribes’ families and friends lend itself to the higher social connections or hierarchical social casting status. In addition, some parents are concerned about sending their children to a government school because it is perceived to be unsafe and many students may experience bullying problems. Some parents at the bilingual school may have even had their children attend other international or private schools until their secondary year. This is so that students can graduate with the bilingual school's name connected to the reputation and affluent social status.

In other parts of the world, the educators interviewed that worked in Japan or South Korea mentioned how difficult it was for high school students to get into an Eastern Asian university in Japan, China, or South Korea without international experience. In some cases, a former educator in South Korea and a current educator in Japan and India said, some universities in Eastern Asia can get 10,000 applicants per slot and an affluent university such as Harvard University in the US is considered a second choice to a school in Eastern Asia. In South Korea

where one educator worked, he mentioned that the South Korean government actually started creating IS in the Jeju Islands to keep nationals with children in the country instead of sending them overseas to IS for international exposure. This was because the nation was losing millions of dollars in revenue because families were sending students to other IS outside of the country to obtain the international experience so they could be highly competitive when applying for university to an Eastern Asian school.

As discussed in this section, both AIS and IS highly value their educational system and practices and so do families. Both types of schools, AIS and IS, offer programs in English with consistency in standards and curriculum that assist in reducing culture shock associated with transient families along with promoting open-mindedness and tolerance. AIS and IS also provide a competitive pathway to higher education and universities. The next section focuses on attendance restrictions placed by governments in relation to a host country student's ability to attend AIS and IS.

Reasons students are restricted from attending international schools. Restrictions as to why some students are prohibited from attending are due to two extrinsic factors related to government regulations and finances. During the quantitative data analysis process, the researcher noticed that some international schools did not have host country students attending the school. This prompted the researcher to dig deeper into why some students ran into obstacles to attend international schools as regulations. This is significant because restrictions may decrease how “international” an international school is within a host country. Therefore, the researcher utilized the qualitative interviews to uncover how ‘international’ an international school was in the country, especially since many educators showed a lot of pride in regards to promoting international-mindset.

International schools are located all over the world and the composition of the student body determines the degree of diversity within the an AIS or IS. Some international schools put restrictions on how many host country students can attend a school. In other cases, the national government puts restrictions on diversity within the international school. For example, although AIS and IS are housed in various countries, some national governments, or the school boards of international schools either support or put restrictions on host country children having access to non-government schools. However, other schools have no restrictions. The next few paragraphs discuss the discrepancy between international schools' restrictions on composition of student populations.

Since the population of students in international schools is highly transient, this study categorized 'internationalness' in terms of most predominant cultures attending an international school. The researcher was interested in how saturated international schools were with host country national students relative to populations of students from a diverse array of countries, potentially creating a more international feel to the school.

In some international schools, most of the students attending were host country nationals. From the interviews, a total of 22 AIS (11 schools) and IS (11 schools) combined had host country students listed as the most predominant population in the international school. Table 4.22 shows which AIS or IS in various countries indicated that the most predominant culture in the school was the host country culture based upon the quantitative survey and qualitative follow-up interviews.

Table 4.22

*AIS or IS in which Host Country Children were the Most
Predominant Population in the International School*

Type of School	Country	Type of School	Country
AIS	Brazil	IS	Bulgaria
AIS	Canary Islands, Spain	IS	Costa Rica
AIS	Ecuador	IS	Denmark
AIS	Egypt	IS	Dominican Republic
AIS	Estonia	IS	Germany
AIS	Guatemala	IS	Ghana
AIS	Kuwait	IS	India
AIS	Lebanon	IS	Japan
AIS	Mexico	IS	Kuwait
AIS	Morocco	IS	Latvia
AIS	Nepal	IS	Mongolia
AIS	Panama		

Many AIS and IS had listed the host country student as the most popular student attending the international school. Some international schools gave priority to certain nationalities, while others regulated population caps by country. Some schools had no

restrictions. The reasons for the differences in the predominant populations of students attending international schools stemmed from extrinsic factors such as government or financial regulations.

Government Restrictions. Despite the fact that some international schools were open to having host country students attend, other countries do not have host country students attend or the governments even restrict host country children from attending an international school. In some cases, it is because the Ministry of Education, or national government, added restrictions. For example, based upon educator information from two different schools in Kuwait, one school had approximately 90% of the students as Kuwaiti nationals and the other school had 96% Kuwaiti students. The remaining population of students in the Kuwaiti schools were of Arabic origin. The educator interviewed at one of the Kuwaiti schools said it was because the government required in Arabic curriculum that included Islamic religious studies and therefore catered to Arab values.

Lauren, an educator currently housed at an AIS in Poland provided commentary on government restrictions from two international schools in Indonesia and Saudi Arabia. She perceived that in both Indonesia and Saudi Arabia where she worked in the past, national students were forbidden to attend international schools due to religious reasons. However, in Saudi Arabia the government does allow local students to attend kindergarten in international schools but they must go into a government school starting in grade one. Lauren states that at the time she worked in Saudi Arabia years ago that she perceived that (personal communication, January 8, 2017),

Saudi Arabia expects a religious component in their children's education, and that is why they were not allowed, by law, to attend our school, starting in first grade. In the other Muslim country in which I taught - Indonesia - we had no local Indonesian children, but I

believe that this more due to financial reasons, as opposed to local law. It is interesting to consider that two out of the three cultural teachers - all female - in our international school in Indonesia had been educated in Western universities. These women had returned to their home countries, were proud Indonesians, and were excited to share their culture with our Western children. The third one had not attended a Western university, and still believed that female circumcision was an acceptable practice.

From the Jakarta Globe (2014) in Indonesia, “[International] schools are barred from accepting Indonesian students or students from any nationality other than that of the foreign mission with which they are affiliated”. And from current Arab News (2104) discussing the Saudi Arabian Ministry of Education,

The Ministry of Education ordered the closure of 17 international schools and issued warnings to 32 others last year for violating local laws including not integrating the Arabic language and Islamic studies into their curricula and other irregularities.

The committee has confirmed that foreign schools owned by Saudi investors are required to teach subjects on religion, Arabic language, social studies, and the history and geography of the Kingdom under the supervision of Saudi educators who will be tasked with monitoring and evaluating the teaching materials.

According to perceptions from educators in Turkey, Turkish nationals must attend a school that uses a Turkish curriculum (reasons are exclusive of the Islamic religion) mostly because of cultural preservation. However, all students attending an international school in Turkey must possess a foreign or dual citizenship passport. The "Turkish" students are able to attend the IS because they have dual citizenship with Turkey and another country. These students use their foreign passport to get into the IS.

In other countries, educators suggested that moderate restrictions are applied by the School Board of international schools rather than the host country government. In the Russian Federation, most students that attend the AIS are US, UK, or Canadian nationals. The remaining populations split between diverse nationalities are all limited to a 15% cap for each country. The cap is to ensure that the school remains international in the look and feel in order to maximize the diversity of the international population.

However, in other countries and regions, particularly in Lebanon and Latin America more than half of the host country nationals attend international schools rather than local schools. In Lebanon, most students attending the IS hold a dual citizenship passport between Lebanon and another host country. Students with dual citizenship along with full citizenship comprised 60% of school's population. Panama had a similar situation where an educator commented that over 50% of the students were from the host country in his school, but they also had dual citizenship with the US because parents worked in the US and then returned to Panama.

An educator that worked in Colombia and Ecuador mentioned that more than 90% of the students were from the host country, but in Uruguay only about 22% of the students were host country leaving the rest for a diverse international population. Further, he mentioned that when he worked in Ecuador, the school had both an international and national component to the school. At least half of the Ecuadorean national school associated with the AIS had host country children attend, whereas in the international section more international students attended because it was more expensive. The researcher also inquired about indigenous children attending the Latin American international schools in Uruguay, Colombia, and Ecuador. The educator commented that similar to Argentina, very few indigenous people inhabit Uruguay because of historical massacres. In the southern countries of South America most of the indigenous people

were removed through genocide so relatively few indigenous people are left that inhabit countries such as Uruguay and Argentina. However, in the northern part of South America, the indigenous population is much higher. The schools in Ecuador are attempting to introduce culture through indigenous language in both the public and in international schools. However, many indigenous people in Ecuador and Colombia live within their own tribes and have their own schools and customs so children do not attend international schools.

Financial Restrictions. Aside from government policies, the ability to financially afford to attend an AIS or IS was restricting for many host country families. Educators interviewed commented that most expatriate families have international tuition paid for by oil companies (predominately Arab countries such as UAE, Qatar, Saudi Arabia), embassies (Mongolia, Switzerland, India, Russian Federation), Non-Governmental Organizations (NGO), or other companies employing families abroad. It is a different story for host country families as they are not afforded the same tuition breaks because they are employed by local companies. For instance, in Vietnam and Poland, only local wealthy families could afford the cost of tuition for international school education. No other restrictions were mentioned for international schools related to school boards or governments limiting attendance in various countries. However, for the international school in Krakow, Poland, host country teachers have the tuition waived for their children because they are local residents.

One of the educators from Switzerland commented on IS host country student population. The IS in Switzerland had no limitations for local nationals attending provided they were able to pay regular tuition. Local students make up a small percentage (approximately 15-20%) of their student population because they are host country nationals that were moving to Switzerland for the first time. These were nationals that had lived abroad their entire lives and so these children

could not access the host country's local public schools. Another educator in Switzerland at a different school commented that the Swiss educational system is very rigid and their school does offer Swiss students an opportunity for an international education. However, the restriction comes from the expense of the school which is approximately the seventh most expensive international school in the world (approximately \$85,000 annually). The teacher that worked in South Africa mentioned that only a handful of black host country national children attended the international school because they were not able to afford the tuition and the rest of the students were predominantly white with affluent backgrounds.

In terms of financial assistance or scholarships, the teacher in the UK stated that some scholarships were available to host country students whereas in Panama, the educator working in the AIS said that scholarships were not available. The IS in Turkey offers scholarships to students with a lower SES background, but many families refuse to apply because they do not want others that are more affluent in the school to know their SES. Of the educators interviewed, the international schools that were considered the most affluent based upon feedback from both the online survey and interviews were Mongolia, Turkey, Switzerland (2), Kuwait, Uruguay, Poland, and the UK. The countries that identified themselves as upper middle class were India, Lebanon, Japan, Panama, and Poland.

This section reviewed how diverse a population is within an international school. Some schools had populations of students that were predominantly host culture children, whereas other schools put restrictions on the number of host country students that can attend an international school in order to keep a global composition. The next section segues into the type of standards, curriculum, and diplomas provided by international schools. This is important to examine because many children are from many different countries and strive to get into universities that

have different requirements in different countries. Many educators in international schools work hard to provide diversity for those children that graduate from their school to get into a variety of universities abroad.

Standards, Curricula, and Diplomas

Many international schools pride themselves in offering an array of standards, curriculum, and diplomas. These standards, curricula, and diplomas offered by international schools supports the third guiding research question regarding accommodations or compromises that international schools make based on host country expectations that influences how educators manage, lead, and navigate a school. The researcher added a question related to the standards and curriculum as a result of the findings from the quantitative survey analysis. Most educators from the digital survey responded that they use more than one type of standard and curriculum within their international school (see figure 4.1) and only 62.4% of the educators indicated that they integrated specific host country courses into the curriculum of their school. These quantitative findings in conjunction with some of the comments from the survey prompted the researcher to investigate the reasons as to why countries use different standards and curriculum. In many cases, the type of diploma was directly linked to the type of standards and curriculum offered at the schools which was a finding coming out of the qualitative interviews. For example, an IB curriculum warrants and offers an IB diploma.

The significance of determining the relationship between international schools and the standards, curriculum, and diplomas utilized not only supports why families attend international schools, but also examines the reasons for differences and how these benefit students. This section on standards, curricula, and diplomas will start by understanding the purpose of the choices provided by international schools. The next section provides demographics on what

standards, curriculum, and diplomas are offered in AIS and IS so a comparison can be made addressing results related to reasons for different diplomas. This section concludes with similarities and differences between international schools.

The purpose of the variety of standards, curricula, and diplomas offered to students is predominantly for two reasons. First, students receive a Western style education which is generally taught in English. Second, students have an opportunity to graduate from their international school with the ability to attend either a host country university or another university. Depending on the country, many universities have different admission requirements. This next section examines the type of standards, curricula, and diplomas offered by both AIS and IS in comparisons between the two types of schools.

Types of standards, curricula, and diplomas. As mentioned in the quantitative analysis section of this chapter, a total of 59 different schools participated in the survey. Of the 59, 25 of those schools were considered AIS. Depending upon the school, an AIS offered the following five combinations for standards, curricula, and diplomas within the school: US and IB, US only (Common Core State Standards), US and national standards and curricula, all three US/IB/National, or IB only. The most common offered by AIS was a combination of US and IB standards, curricula, and diplomas (7; 28%). The next most common category was either just US standards and curricula or combination of US and national standards and curricula (6 each; 24% each). The remaining combinations were a mix of US, IB, or national standards and curricula. No UK standards or curriculum were offered in the AIS schools researched.

The total number of IS that participated in the online survey was 34 out of the 59 responses. The most common standards, curricula, and diplomas offered by IS consisted of IB only (12; 35%). Surprisingly, the next category of standards, curricula, and diploma offered was

the US (6; 18%). This was surprising because IS not affiliated with the US offered American standards, curricula, and diplomas. AIS did not offer other country standards, curricula, and diplomas besides US and IB. The remaining schools fell into the categories of UK only, host country national only, UK/IB, or IB/host country national standards, curricula, and diplomas.

Reasons for different diplomas. A total of seven educators that were interviewed from AIS and four educators interviewed from IS offered information as to why certain standards, curricula, and diplomas were offered. The two most predominate reasons why a combination of standards, curricula, and diplomas were offered were because of host country government mandates and/or university requirements. First, many governments required that students take certain host country curricula in an AIS. For example, in Panama the Panamanian government mandated three courses at an AIS. These included an eighth grade civics course, a high school Panamanian geography course, and a Panamanian history course in high school. An optional elective was a US - Panamanian relations course. In Lebanon, history, geography, and civics courses related to Lebanon were required by the government, but only for students that do not have dual nationality. In addition, Lebanese students only take the host country curriculum if they are sitting for a Lebanese exam. In Switzerland, the German language is mandatory for students to take until the end of grade nine. Similar requirements are seen in South America. In Uruguay, students were required to take Uruguayan history, law, and civics courses along with Spanish language requirements. The same was true for Colombia and Ecuador in terms of host country history and Spanish language requirements.

The second reason a variety of standards, curricula, and diplomas are offered by an AIS and IS is because many host country culture universities only accept diplomas from international schools that integrate host country curriculum. Diplomas at international schools are closely

linked to entrance requirements at universities. Many Western universities will only accept standards and curricula that have been taught in English such as US, UK, or IB and therefore students graduate with these diplomas. For example, an educator interviewed from an international school in the UK commented that the host country university only accepts UK high school exams and diplomas. Another educator that was interviewed in Turkey stated that Turkish students needed to complete a Turkish curriculum in order to be accepted into a Turkish university. Lebanese universities do not accept high school IB or US diplomas only Lebanese diplomas. Educators interviewed from the Latin American countries of Panama, Uruguay, Colombia, and Ecuador all commented that in order to get into a host country university students must have a host country national high school diploma and take university entrance exams based on the national curriculum.

On the contrary, many parents wanted their students to be educated at international schools that use an English curriculum and provide the US, UK, or IB diplomas. All of the 13 educators interviewed were asked about students being able to enter universities outside of the host country culture. All of the educators provided commentary on the fact that many students will leave the host country and pursue a college or university in a different country. These students wanted the opportunity to learn English and have a diploma used as an entrance requirement to many Western or US universities. John, an educator from an international school in Switzerland stated (personal communication, January 11, 2017),

an education in a multicultural environment [along with an] English curriculum confers an American high school diploma to allow students to enroll in an American university. In other words, the US diploma is geared for *those who wish to have a pathway* for US colleges.

Many educators communicated the importance of a blend between standards, curriculum, and diplomas. Lauren, a teacher that has worked in many international schools abroad (personal communication, January 8, 2017), eloquently combines the significance of an international school has to offer. She states,

None of the international schools in which I taught (Indonesia, Vietnam, South Africa, Saudi Arabia, Poland) had a curricular component dictated by the local educational ministry, outside of a cultural one, where the students were introduced/exposed to the local culture, excluding religion. I don't know if this cultural component was a choice of our school or a demand by the host country government. Parents, including the few local parents who could afford to put their children in our schools, felt that our curriculum was superior to what their own home countries provided. If that was not the case, then they would have enrolled their children in local schools. Of primary concern for these parents was that their children would be prepared for acceptance into Western universities. They felt that their children's futures would greatly benefit from a Western education, and some of them expected that their children would have a better life if they were to move away from their home countries.

Lauren provided similar evidence between five different schools housed in distinct countries mainly having to do with parents providing a better life and education of their students.

Similarities and differences between international schools. Similarities and differences were observed between AIS and IS in standards, curricula, and diplomas. This section examines the types of standards, curriculum, and diplomas used at an AIS verses an IS. For diplomas, although AIS and IS did not always offer identical credentials, both types of international schools had diplomas that consistently aligned with the type of standards and

curricula used within their school. For example, if a school offered US and IB, then both the US and IB diploma were given to students.

On the contrary, standards and curricula were somewhat more complicated than diplomas. Differences were noticeable between AIS and IS in the areas of standards and curricula. The first difference was that none of the educators employed at any AIS that took the survey or volunteered to be interviewed stated that the UK or other national standards and curricula were offered in their schools. However, at some IS, a US curriculum was provided to students. A second difference was that the most common standards and curricula provided by an AIS were combination of US and IB, whereas in an IS the most common provided was just IB only. Next, the third difference was that the most predominantly used standards and curricula at an AIS were either US only or a combination of US and national standards and curricula. Just the opposite was seen in IS. The second most predominate standards and curricula used at an IS were the US standards and curricula. In summary, AIS did not use any UK standards or curriculum but IS did use US standards and curriculum.

This section examines the significance of standards, curricula, and diplomas offered by AIS and IS. Most host country cultures require students to take some relevant social sciences related to the host country. In addition, many host country universities have host country culture curriculum requirements and entrance exams in order for students to be accepted. Although AIS and IS are similar in many ways related to standards, curriculum, and diplomas, some minute differences do exist for students attending these international schools based upon the host country international school is located.

The next section focuses on the teaching styles of teachers and international schools. Teaching styles are an important aspect of how curriculum is delivered to students at

international schools. The type of curriculum offered discussed in the past section segues into how teachers from international schools versus host country cultures teach. Some comparisons will be used between international schools and local government schools to understand variations in teaching styles.

Teaching Styles

Teaching styles are an important consideration of international schools. Many teachers and administrators come from across the globe and bring with them individual backgrounds and experiences related to how children should be taught. Many grew up in the host culture where teacher-directed instruction was the norm, which clashes with innovative student-centered inquiry approaches to learning seen at international schools. The guiding research questions supported in these interview findings include the first question related to what cultural dynamics exist that have an effect on international school educators, along with the third question related to how educators incorporate host country cultures into the school.

This teaching styles section originated from information in the literature related to suggestions that educators adapt their instruction to fit host country teaching styles and from the results from this study's quantitative survey. The results from the quantitative survey indicated that only 54.1% of teachers adapt their teaching style to the host country culture (Table 4.12), however, 91.8% responded their teaching style promotes independent learning and autonomy with individual expression of the student. However, Arab countries indicated they were less likely by 10%, to promote the independent and autonomous learning. The information from the literature and the findings from the quantitative survey did not appear to coincide. Therefore, the researcher decided to dig deeper into examining teaching styles used by international educators. Specifically, the qualitative interviews examined educators' perceptions related to two pieces of

inquiry. First, this study investigates differences in teaching styles between educators in international schools and the host country local schools as a comparison to, second, shed light on reasons why teachers would not adapt to host country teaching styles but still incorporate host country culture into the instruction.

This first two sections examine and compare teaching styles between international schools and host country government schools. The last section examines how international teachers make the connection with host country students if they may not adapt teaching styles to the host country pedagogical practice. This section further considers ways in which educators are trained to learn about the host country culture so that they can integrate it into the classroom and school to provide the best pedagogical practices to meet the needs of international students. The terms public, host, local, and government schools are used interchangeably to describe non-international schools.

International school pedagogical practices. The 13 educators interviewed described pedagogical teaching styles of teachers as innovative within their international schools. The teachers that were interviewed prided in the fact that international teachers at their school had Western style instructional training. In many cases, international teachers had received IB training. One educator in Russia very simply and eloquently provided specific examples of how Western or IB teaching practices are innovative and embedded throughout the international school. He shared that at international schools, teachers' style of teaching is very student-centered, Democratic, and dynamic. By dynamic he clarified that the focus evolved from differentiated instruction to individualized personalized learning where each child is achieving their best and taking responsibility for their own learning. The school assists children in learning by providing students the ability to learn through individualized expression and autonomy rather

than subject focused. In fact, an educator at one of the schools in Switzerland described his international school as being “innovative and progressive” because of the student-centered learning.

An educator in Lebanon mentioned similar pedagogical strategies as seen in the Russian and Switzerland international schools. In general, it is evident that international teachers provide more inquiry-based and independent instruction where students drive the learning. In Kuwait, the Western teachers usually had a more student-centered focus, where small group work or paired work occurred in classrooms. An educator interviewed at an international school in Turkey stated that they predominantly look to hire teachers with previous international experience because of exposure to more student-centered learning. In the UK, the educator interviewed stated that most teachers at the school were internationally trained in these newest and best pedagogical practices. However, one exception to the innovative teaching styles was mentioned in Central American country. In Panama, the educator interviewed stated that the teaching style within their international school was more teacher-directed rather than student-centered. However, administration was working to provide professional development to teachers in student-centered learning, particularly in the inquiry-based classes such as science.

Government school pedagogical practices. Although this study’s focus was on pedagogical teaching styles of educators within international schools, it is interesting to note and compare a common theme related to local government schools broached by international educators. The researcher did not prompt comparative questions during interviews, but it was such a strong theme from interviewees that it needed to be addressed and not ignored by the researcher. During the interviews, most participants wanted to provide a comparison or distinction between teaching styles of an international school (regardless of AIS or IS) and a

local host country government run school (“public school”) to discuss the significance between the two types of schools. First, the comparison in teaching styles between international teachers and local host country culture teachers was evident because of backgrounds, experiences, and trainings of educators. The second comparison linked to reasons why host country parents sent their children to international schools rather than local schools. It is here we will examine the teaching styles of international school educators compared to government host country educators.

Most teachers that worked in local government public schools or had transitioned to an international school from a public school exhibited a more traditional, non-progressive teaching style. This more traditional style of teaching was very teacher-directed and lecture-based with teachers as the focal point of the lesson. An educator interviewed in Japan that has lived there for over 30 years made a comparative cultural reference to the different types of teaching styles between Eastern Asian and Western cultures. An Eastern Asian culture of *interdependence* is very different than the Western style culture of promoting *independence*. The teaching style in a Japanese local or public school is very teacher-active and student-passive. Within the local schools, the educator claimed students do not raise their hand in class to ask or answer questions because they do not want to stand out in the crowd. Raising one's hand would make them stand out rather than blend into society. Fitting into the norm is more culturally acceptable in Eastern Asia. In addition, teachers do not like to be questioned because of their authoritarian position.

Both educators interviewed from two different schools in Switzerland had similar findings related to local schools having traditional teaching styles. Swiss teachers tend to teach content, whereas internationally-based teachers tend to focus on teaching kids holistically. Secondary government schools in Switzerland are also highly, academically focused with very

little extracurricular programs or sports. John, an educator from Switzerland stated that there are three types of teaching styles visible in educating children. The types, he stated, are “sages on the stage, meddler in the middle, or guy on the side” (McWilliam, 2009; personal communication, January 11, 2017). He clearly mentioned that most international schools have teachers with teaching styles that come from the “middle man in the middle”. Both of the educators in the international schools in Switzerland prided themselves in having teachers manage extracurricular activities after school such as drama club, sports, or math clubs. Participation in extracurricular activities provide a strong interaction between educators and students by building relationships with students outside of academics.

Educators at an international school in Kuwait also observed identical types of teaching styles from their host country teachers. Carol, an administrator at a Kuwaiti school (personal communication, January 9, 2017) stated,

There is a MAJOR challenge in trying to bridge the traditional Arab teaching style with the more modern Western style. Arab teaching is totally teacher centered, more like “drill, skill, and kill” with very little free thinking done by the students. It’s like the “lord at the board” when the Arab staff teaches. The Western teachers USUALLY have a more student-centered focus where children work in small groups or in pairs.

She went on to say that both students and teachers find it challenging for students to change classes during the day and move between a more rigid structured classroom versus a free-thinking classroom. She further states,

The challenge is more for the students because they have to change their mind-set when moving from a class taught in the traditional Arab way to a class taught in a Western way. Additionally, sometimes there are negative feelings from teachers of one method to

those of the other. The more rigid teachers (usually Arabic) find the more relaxed Western style as promoting laxity in students, and the Western teachers find the rigidity and commanding voices of the Arab staff stifling and off-putting.

Educators in other countries found similar challenges to that in Kuwait. Lauren in Poland describes her experience with Polish students adjusting their learning styles going from a public government school in Poland to an international school (personal communication, January 8, 2017). She describes that,

In the International School of Krakow, approximately 1/3 of our student population are Polish, accustomed to a traditional lecture style of teaching. Their lack of creativity, problem-solving and collaborative skills are quite noticeable, so teachers must dedicate additional time and effort to encourage the development of these skills, and to break or supplement existing learning/thinking habits.

Lauren also described her interaction as an international teacher with Indonesian local teachers through the eyes of her friend who was also an international teacher. She communicates that,

In all of the other countries in which I worked, local teaching practices are quite traditional/non-progressive, due to a lack of funding and professional development. A good friend of mine became fluent enough in Bahasa, Indonesia that she was hired to provide training to local teachers in Western methodology. There must have been some forward-thinking Indonesians who recognized the benefits of Western methodology. However, my friend encountered considerable resistance from the local teachers, who felt that their teaching proficiency was adequate, and that Western methodology required too much time and effort, and simply reverted back to their “comfort zone” once the training was over.

A few educators that were interviewed similarly stated that many local schools are poor and do not have the funding to provide teachers with the professional development they need to learn and maintain best practices. In addition, most teachers and administrators interviewed stated that regardless of where an educator comes from they are trained in IB practices and pedagogical styles that are innovative in the classroom. Kristien (personal communication, January 9, 2017) from the UK states, “Teachers are trained as IB teachers. No real difference [exists] between host country teachers and overseas teachers (at least not in our school) as most host country teachers have worked internationally in the past.”

The IB standards and practices follow a learner profile consisting of pillars of practice that encourage students to be broader thinkers, risk-takers, and self-reflective. Noticeable differences between IB students versus public school students is evident in that IB students are not afraid to question teachers. Licensed and certified teachers that enter international schools that have *not* had IB training usually receive the specific training at the international school so that they incorporate the IB practices into their teaching.

From the examples, significant differences exist between teaching styles of international school educators as compared to educators in host country public schools. Since international schools integrate such a global community of learners, it is important students become acclimated to the new culture. In addition, new teachers entering an international school may have challenges related to adapting not only to the international school setting, but the host country culture itself. Because the ability to assimilate the host country culture in an international school is a big factor, the researcher asked interviewees ways in which international schools assisted new teachers in adapting to the host country culture.

Integration of Host Country Culture for Educators

Most informational sessions for adapting to the host country culture for new educators entering an international school was through professional development or orientation workshop. Almost all of the educators the researchers spoke with mentioned some type of integration experiences for new administrators and teachers. Educators in both Switzerland and Russia indicated that every culture has some kind of in-service about the host country culture for admission purposes of the new educator.

Strategies for integrating an educator into a new country takes many shapes and forms. Some examples include orientation days or weeks, assigned mentors, company sponsored cultural integration trips, or matching new educators with locals. Administrators in Kuwait, Turkey, Uruguay, and Ecuador all mentioned local mentors were used to assist new educators to assimilating into the new host country culture. For example, in Uruguay new educators work with mentors or property managers to look at the best neighborhoods to find housing and negotiate rent. Similar is true for Ecuador where local mentors assist with finding apartments, furnishings, and food, as well as getting to know the area.

Educators in both Russia and India discussed more intense training. In India, the educator interviewed shared how new educators learned about how to use the transportation system, how to talk to locals, and understand sensitivity regarding food and culture. In Russia, an administrator discussed that no specific professional development was provided but new and tenured educators were exposed to the Russian culture through school events and trips throughout the country. For example, day or weekend trips may be taken to the Red Square, local self-service restaurants, museums, charities, and community events. Attending cultural events

was also evident in Colombia where administrators and teachers may go on a weekend retreat together in the country to learn about culture.

In other schools in Kuwait, Turkey, and Thailand minimal orientation related to the host country culture was provided. In Turkey, interest in learning about the host country culture was minimal. In Thailand, more relevant information regarding the Thai culture was provided by international educators that had lived there for a few years rather than hiring locals because they would not always divulge the reality of living in Thailand. In Kuwait, orientation may run for two weeks but only about half of one day was provided for learning the Kuwaiti culture. Kuwaitis left the integration of the host country to companies that sponsored the families.

The educators that were interviewed from Switzerland mentioned that integration of the host country culture was also minimal. This was because Switzerland is such an internationally friendly society that integration was not necessary. However, new educators were made aware of minute country idiosyncrasies related to precision within the culture. For example, the time of day in which the recycle trash can go on the curb is within a very specific time range and it must be adhered to in Switzerland.

As indicated, many international schools work hard to help new educators entering their school integrate into the host country culture. This provided benefits for the students as well so that teachers understand the values and ideologies of the host country culture.

This section examined differences between international and host country cultures, the value of each, along with how educators are integrated into host country culture. Besides teaching styles, many educators from the online survey mentioned the impact of parental expectations for an international school. The next section of this study examines what

expectations parents or families have of international schools, which in some cases is closely linked to teaching styles.

Parental Expectations for International Schools

Parents of children attending international schools have expectations as stakeholders. However, on a global level with so many parents from diverse nationalities, not all expectations are the same. This parental expectations section originated from multiple comments that formulated from the quantitative online survey. This was obviously an audience that many educators were interested in commenting on during the survey. Therefore, the researcher pursued parental expectations as part of the qualitative interview questionnaire. This section helps address the first guiding research question regarding the cultural dynamics that exist which have an effect on educators in international schools.

In conversations with the 13 educators, five distinct categories of parental expectations surfaced, which were classified into five categories. The five categories were amount of content-based instruction, styles of teaching, access to grades, entitlement, and discipline. Parental past educational experience and international-mindset were two circumstances that dictated parental expectations.

Two conflicting mindsets existed as it related to expectations of parents. The first mindset stemmed from past experience. An educator in Russia commented that parents thinking is colored by where they came from or where they are going. In other words, whether parents came from their own host country or they came from a multitude of other countries they have expectations of schools based upon their own experience. In addition, parents judge the school through their own experiences from 20 to 30 years ago when they were in school.

On the contrary, parents who traveled frequently and integrated their children into many different international schools have diverse expectations of schools. These parents tend to focus on norms and commonalities existing between international schools. In both Mongolia and the UK, educators commented that many parents have international experience and therefore no issues exist, they accept the international school lifestyle and realize the continuity between international schools in various countries. These parents come with open-minded attributes and are very tolerant of each other and people from other countries. With the differences between parental backgrounds noted, one school could see both types of parental experiences. Experiences lead to parental expectations of how their children learn in school.

It was interesting that of all the educators interviewed, five main themes emerged regarding parental expectations of the school. The five themes are categorized as content-based instruction, styles of teaching, access to grades, entitlement, and discipline. The remaining part of this section will discuss the five categories along with strategies international schools use to work with parents on these expectations.

Educators from three different international schools in three different countries including South Korea, Saudi Arabia, and Zimbabwe commented that parents were very focused on amount and rigor of content being delivered in the classrooms rather than focusing on the teaching styles of educators. For example, some parents wanted more content-based academics in class or more homework. Parents preferring content-based instruction came from the host country culture where teacher-directed or lecture-based instruction was the norm. Many of these parents wanted more content-based instruction or more homework so that their students would do well on exams. In South Korea, parents generally commented that international schools are never rigorous enough in math. Parents from the host country of Saudi Arabia commented that

they did not find value in the fine arts education such as music and art in school. Therefore, they did not want their students to learn fine arts at the expense of more academic core related classes such as math or science. Even on the quantitative survey, an educator in Zimbabwe commented that host country parents prefer content-based education.

In comparison to parental expectations of content-based education, the flipside of the coin was that many international parents preferred a Western or IB type of teaching style focused on a student-centered inquiry model. Most of the parents with these expectations traveled frequently and had their children attend international schools. Therefore, these international parents were more familiar with the Western teaching style. One educator from Turkey made a comparison between the host country parents and the international schools, or those of parents entering an international school for the first time. In Turkish government schools, or for first-time international parents, teaching styles were very content-based whereas international school educators worked on skills such as problem-solving and critical thinking instead.

An administrator in Kuwait commented that values between parents and the school were aligned. However, host country parents wanted more student-centered learning from the teachers that teach the traditional Arabic classes. For example, she mentioned that instead of just memorizing and reciting the Quran, which is a common teaching style of traditional Arabic teachers, many parents wanted teachers to have real discussions about lessons and how students can apply the Quran passages to everyday life. Carol (personal communication, January 9, 2017) states,

[parents] want more student-centeredness and opportunities to think and create than the traditional Arab method allows. We do hear complaints about the way the Quran is taught

because it seems to be just memorization and recitation of religious passages without any real discussion about what they mean and how the students can apply them in their everyday life.

A Polish teacher, Lauren, distinctly distinguished between parents who have students entering an international school for the first time versus a Western style of teaching (personal communication, January 8, 2017). She stated,

many parents who have enrolled their children in an international school encounter Western curriculum as well as teaching and learning for the first time. At times, these parents must be convinced as to the desirability or value of this type of education.

In many host countries, parents are not familiar with a Western style, student-centered learning strategy. In Lebanon, an administrator mentioned that some parents want to remove their children from the school because they do not like the student-centered approach. They would prefer to have their children memorize academic information rather than have it be a more inquiry-based education style.

The next category focused on grades and university entrance requirements. Educators from the countries of Turkey, Panama, Uruguay, Lebanon, Switzerland, and India all made parental connections to the significance of grades and university entrance requirements. Parents in both Turkey and Panama believed that since their children were attending an international school, that automatically meant acceptance into a good university. This was also an expectation of parents with students in international schools from Uruguay. An educator in Uruguay commented that parents feel students should do well and attend a good university because they pay for their children to go to an international elementary and secondary school. In Lebanon, parents want more academic homework so students do well on exams. Students take a *Brevet*

exam in Lebanon in order to move from grade nine to grade ten. An administrator in Switzerland made an eloquent distinction between US parents that have students attending the international school versus Swiss or European parents. US parents tend to be concerned with a Grade Point Average (GPA) and transcripts, whereas Swiss and European parents do not really understand GPA and transcripts. GPA and transcripts are a very American concept. Non-US parents were more interested in IB scores for university attendance.

Parents in India had a completely different view. Indian parents preferred that students attend an Indian educational system over an international school. This was because parents eventually wanted their students to go to a good university in India. In order for students to attend an Indian university they need to go to an Indian secondary school. Indian universities are considered better than some of the ivy league universities in the United States.

A fourth category focused on entitlement and privilege. Many students that attend international schools are from an affluent SES. In many cases, wealthy students have live-in household maids that clean up after them, make their meals, and take responsibility for their well-being. An educator in Panama commented lack of responsibility at home carries over to academics. The issue is that parents do not necessarily back schools in supporting students taking responsibility for their actions, such as cleaning up after themselves after lunch as seen in Panama.

What is interesting to note in this category related to responsibility is the acceptance of plagiarism. Many parents and students do not see plagiarism as an issue. Educators in both Panama and Turkey specifically made a point of sharing with the researcher the issues related to plagiarism. An educator, Brennan from Panama (personal communication, January 11, 2017) stated that, “cheating and plagiarism is not a big deal to parents. Parents want to know why

teachers want a unique response from the children. Why hear my child's words when you can read the correct version [they copied] compared to what the child is able to produce?”. Brennan continued to describe that plagiarism is such a non-issue to host country nationals that local staff do not have a translated word for *plagiarism*. An educator in Turkey made similar responses that plagiarism is accepted by parents for the same reason as stated by the Panamanian educator.

The last category was in the area of discipline, particularly for host country parents that have students attending international schools. Many educators responded on the quantitative online survey that lack of student discipline was sometimes a challenge particularly from the Latin American countries such as the Dominican Republic and Panama. Discipline was a challenge in the sense that certain student behaviors were excepted. Behaviors such as sexual harassment or poor behavior in the classroom were acceptable to parents largely because it was cultural. The best examples come from an educator in Panama. At one point a student was sent to the office for disciplinary reasons from his classroom and stood waiting outside the principal's office. However, the student refused to remain standing and therefore just returned to class. When the educator asked why the student did not stand and wait outside the principal's office the student responded, “only poor people stand”. The parents' response was two-fold. First, they didn't understand the incidence the required the student to go to the principal, and second that their child had to stand to wait. In another instance in Panama, male students were caught *cat calling* a female teacher. When the students got in trouble neither the students nor the parents understood why the sons got in trouble because it was considered a cultural norm.

However, what is interesting to note is that during an interview with an educator in Uruguay, he had an opposite observation. If there was ever an issue within the school, host culture parents were more highly respectful toward educators in international schools. The way

parents addressed issues were different in the sense that parents were more respectful toward educators than would be seen in local public schools.

When comparing parents of international schools, no consistencies or patterns were observed between parental expectations in countries or schools. For instance, issues that international schools deal with are not consistent across countries. Further many international schools have strategies to educate parents regarding how their school functions. For example, in the Russian Federation, schools provided information to parents related to self-directed and personalized learning. The school provided training because the student-centered learning concept was complicated for parents to grasp that grew up in an era learning from a very teacher-directed model. The educator that worked in Saudi Arabia as an art and music teacher, educated the Arabic and Indian parents regarding the benefits of the fine arts. The reason being was that Arabic and Indian parents did not respect the value of the fine arts. Through newsletters and the latest research providing the benefits of the arts in a 21st century learning classroom, many parents had a change of mind after learning the positive contributions the fine arts made in their child's life. They therefore became interested in their children's progress in the fine arts and would check in with the teacher.

In review, parental expectations were clearly a factor in international schools. The most common parental expectations were categorized by content-based instruction, styles of teaching, access to grades, entitlement, and discipline. Parental expectations provided insight into issues and challenges of international schools related to host country culture. Specifically, how administrators and teachers lead, manage, and navigate a school based upon parental expectations. The next sections discuss ways in which host country culture is integrated into an international school.

Successes and Challenges of Integrating the Host Country Culture

This last section from the qualitative follow-up interviews integrates all three guiding research questions. The research questions inquired about the cultural dynamics between host country culture and the school, perceptions of educators related to intrinsic and extrinsic factors of incorporating the host country culture and the school, and accommodations for compromises an international school makes in order to manage, lead, and navigate a school and a host country culture are discussed.

The qualitative interview questions originated from two concepts. First was that this interview question was an overarching research question utilized to capture specific examples of successes and challenges within an international school. Second, a couple of themes emerged from the quantitative survey results. The two themes from the online survey results were successes and challenges related to the integration of culture and community with a sense of connection to the host country culture. Although some examples were provided in the comment sections of the quantitative survey, the information was limited providing brief responses that required more in-depth detail. Therefore, the researcher followed-up during interviews to obtain specific examples of how the host country culture was integrated into international schools and how the integration made the school successful or created obstacles or challenges. The remainder of this chapter examines specific examples that came from interviewees and were categorized by integration of national holiday or religious events, cognitive styles or cultural differences in styles of learning among a diverse population of students, followed by a last section in individual examples by country showing the significance of how diverse international schools are and how they should adapt to the host country culture. However, one last challenge surfaced during one of the first interviews which was diplomatic relationships between countries. Since this appeared to

be a significant challenge for one particular school, the researcher decided to add this to future interviews and inquire further with educators to determine how diplomatic relationships effect international schools.

Holidays and National Events

One of the biggest ways in which host country culture was integrated into international schools was through the celebration of holidays and national events. Depending on the country, some of the holidays or national events celebrated were either religious or had to do with national or cultural events. However, some interviewees indicated that a handful of countries in which the international schools were housed did not integrate the host country holidays or celebrations.

Educators interviewed from four different countries mentioned that little to no integration of the host country culture was incorporated into the school. These countries included India, Switzerland, Saudi Arabia, and Vietnam. The reasons interviewees provided generally varied by country. One of the reasons given was that these international schools were independent of the host country and therefore did not recognize or celebrate holidays. For example, an educator interviewed in India stated that although people were respectful of Indian traditions and holidays in international schools, the school still stayed open during holidays. Another reason was that the Western values of an international school housed in a Western European country had similar holidays. For example, a school in Switzerland does not generally integrate the Swiss culture because of cultural similarities of host country nationals and immigrants.

Other reasons provided as to why the host country culture was not integrated into the international school revolved around relationships between countries. One educator that worked in Saudi Arabia commented that minimal host culture was integrated into the school. The main

reason was that no Saudi students attended the school and therefore faculty and staff did not have much interaction with the culture. Only one day of integration was provided during the winter time. Educators and students attended an intercultural Christmas market at the Souk but most craft items were imported from India and other cultures and not representative of Saudi Arabia. In Vietnam, very little cultural integration existed because the Vietnam War left many Vietnamese openly hostile toward Westerners. However, some Vietnamese teaching and support staff would make connections between the school and the culture by sharing the culture through food and heritage.

On the other hand, educators interviewed from other countries provided many examples of holidays where international schools assimilated host country culture. Holidays celebrated were because of national historical events or religious affiliations. Four different educators from different countries (Iraq, South Korea, Panama, and Switzerland) provided information regarding assimilation of holidays due to national historical events. For example, an educator in the Middle East explained how Kurdish customs and holidays were integrated in Iraq. The Kurds that fled to other countries under Saddam Hussein were now returning with their families to rebuild Iraq. The Kurds were working to build back their cultural identity so therefore integration of Kurdish customs and holidays was required in both international and public schools. Students may even take field trips to the *People's Park* to honor their history. The *People's Park* is where skeletal remains from missing people were buried underneath buildings that were once standing during Saddam Hussein's regime. This area is part of a Kurdish historically respected area.

In South Korea, students take off traditional holidays that are similar to that seen in the US, but have different implications. One educator commented that a traditional holiday observed in South Korea was similar to that of the American Thanksgiving holiday. During this holiday,

however, instead of eating a big turkey based on historical significance from the US it was used to value and respect family members and elders. During this time, families go to visit the graves of past relatives and bring offerings.

The country of Panama also celebrates national historical events, as mentioned by a teacher in Panama. The government in Panama requires that schools celebrate all Panamanian holidays. He further commented that the entire month of November is considered a holiday where schools only have a total of 12 days of attendance for that entire month. The major holiday is *Fiestas Patrias*, which is the celebration of Panama's independence and everyone is required by law to have Panamanian flag displayed. The educators stated that this holiday is similar to "the US Fourth of July on steroids".

In general, many countries celebrate national historical events pertinent to their country. Most international schools take these holidays off. In addition, an educator from Switzerland commented a majority of international schools follow a Western calendar where breaks occur in the summer or in the winter regardless of hemisphere. Most breaks are at least three weeks long to accommodate international students traveling back to their host country for the holidays. However, not all holidays have a national historical component. Some countries require that international schools observe religious holidays.

Educators from the countries of Switzerland, Turkey, Mongolia, Ecuador, Colombia, and Uruguay made references to having religious holidays off. One educator from Switzerland commented that Swiss holidays are required by the government which is driven by each "canton" or province. For example, international schools in Switzerland are required to take off religious holidays such as Ascension and some Protestant holidays. However, non-religious holidays

include a Ski Week in February where all schools are closed for that week which is a Swiss tradition.

In Turkey, some families attending international schools are Muslim and at times school events conflict with Islamic holidays. For example, an educator from a school in Turkey mentioned they were restricted in selecting graduation dates for seniors. Graduation ended up being on the first day of Ramadan and the seniors rebelled. An educator from Asia had an opposite response to adhering to religious holidays. The religious orientation of Mongolia is predominantly Buddhist and Shaman. However, decades ago Mongolia was taken over by Russia and it became a very Russian Orthodox country. Despite the historical impact, people generally celebrate each other's religious holidays. For example, Christmas is largely celebrated in Mongolia despite it being a predominately Buddhist and Shaman country.

In many Latin American countries such as Ecuador, Colombia, and Uruguay many local holidays are given off during the school year. Some are religious, and some are not. In Colombia, many of the holidays were religious and occurred on average a couple times a month. In Uruguay, most of the holidays were national celebrations rather than religious. In Ecuador, approximately half the holidays were religious and half were national. For example, in Ecuador, *Quito Fiestas* or the founding of Quito is celebrated, which is generally a national holiday rather than religious holidays. Although Ecuador, Colombia, and Uruguay are housed on the same continent, the reasons why holidays are taken off are not similar or consistent.

Cognitive Styles

Adjustments educators in international schools made in terms of cultural dynamics of a host country culture were most noticeable between Eastern Asian and Western cultures. Patterns were seen in Eastern Asian schools related to interdependence and cognitive styles. Here a

distinction is made from an Eastern Asian country and a Western country. One example between the Eastern Asian culture where interdependence is accepted versus independence by Westerners is the notion of fitting into a crowd versus standing out. Educators in Japan and South Korea gave specific examples of interdependence within the culture. For instance, it is difficult to get Japanese or South Korean students to raise their hands in fear of showing off or bringing attention to oneself. Students in Japan and South Korea do not want to be unique or stand out in a crowd.

These same educators made reference to the fact the South Korean and Japanese cultures are very homogenous and show a high respect for educators. Both educators from South Korea and Japan even gave a similar example regarding respect in these cultures. For example, if a teacher accidentally drops papers in front of the class, students in Eastern Asian countries will run to pick it up out of respect, whereas in the US students may snicker and laugh. An educator in Thailand provided an example of how much teachers are respected in their culture. A tradition in Thailand occurs where students pay respect to their teachers in a *celebration of teachers* by bringing flowers to them while crawling on their hands and knees. Many Western students and parents at the international school found this celebration to be very uncomfortable, but most understood and respected the importance of this celebration within the Thai culture and therefore partook in the celebration at the international school.

In continuing the comparison between an interdependent and an independent culture, parent responses regarding a child's success warrant different beliefs between Eastern Asian and Western parents. If Eastern Asian parents were asked what success means for their children, they might respond that when their kids grow up they want them to be successful to make parents proud. For example, according to the educator in Japan, success is graduating from an Eastern

Asian university and obtaining a career at major corporation such as Sony, Panasonic, or Toyota in Japan or Samsung in South Korea. However, in a Western culture, parents may respond that they want their children to be happy. An educator from Switzerland stated that international schools fulfill both. They are a middle of the road between success and happiness for international students.

Successes and Challenges

The real successes and challenges that educators of international schools face is best described using individual cases by countries. Most successes and challenges shared by educators were based upon individual uniqueness of the schools in various countries. The first part of this section will examine how a situation is a success in one school, but a challenge for another school located in a different country. For example, this section will address ways in which bureaucracy helps one school to be successful in one country, but becomes a hindrance to another school in a different country. The remainder of this chapter will then shed light on individual cases provided by interviewees where the host country culture makes the international schools successful. In addition, examples of challenges are given where the host country culture provides hindrances to the international school.

In comparing situations regarding what makes one international school successful relative to the same situations creating challenges for another school, two conflicting situations surfaced. The first situation was dealing with bureaucracy and the second was with support staff. The first situation was in regard to communication between host country governments and international schools. Some international schools in certain countries such as Switzerland, deal with less bureaucracy related to governmental laws and regulations than the US. For example, Switzerland's laid back style does not encourage lawsuits and therefore are not as prevalent as

they are in the US. Therefore, international schools do not need to be as concerned with lawsuits as do US schools in the day to day management of the school.

Conversely, bureaucracy within a host country can provide challenges for an international school. One example came from an educator that was interviewed in Russia. Many students that attend the international school in Russia are embassy children. The embassies are not always prompt and consistent in telling international schools when families arrive into the country for security reasons. Most embassy families are high-level politicians and security is of utmost importance. Therefore, many of embassy children may arrive unannounced creating enrollment issues in the international school. The second type of bureaucracy comes in the form of adhering to infrastructure and building codes within a host country. In some cases schools run into a lot of bureaucracy and red tape particularly when trying to build a new school. In Russia, building codes are extremely strict and the fire officer is the most powerful person in the building process followed by the building code division of the Russian government. For example, an educator spoke to the challenges of building a new school in a different country. In restructuring a 1930s building to meet the Russian building codes for a school, the cost was estimated at \$500,000 with a six month completion data, but in the end it took over three years and over \$7.5 million because of all the Russian building regulations. The main issue was the process of obtaining international architects to plan and draw up the requirements specifically for an international school, followed by working with local architects to translate plans and create a structure according to Russian building codes. This was also comparable in the Netherlands according to an educator explaining their attempts to build an international school.

Other situations that are considered successes in one international school are challenges in another. Positive or negative interactions between international educators and local host

country support staff varies between countries. Educators in international schools in Uruguay, Indonesia, Vietnam, and Poland all mentioned how significant local host country support staff was to the success of the international school. Support staff included secretaries, custodians, cafeteria workers, facilities from the local host country culture that was needed to manage and maintain an international school. In Uruguay, Mike an educator stated (personal communication, January 10, 2017),

Host country culture is integrated into the school by the people that attend the school, by the workers at the school and by just its location. We eat in the cafeteria and learn about what the locals like to eat. We have kids in our classes/school that talk to us about their time outside of school. They also share with us how they celebrate holidays, how they say different words in their language, etc. And then by the mere location of the school you are in a different country and have to be exposed to all your surroundings.

In addition, a teacher in Panama commented that cafeteria support staff provide local host country culture food to the students. The same sentiments were true from a teacher that worked in both Indonesia and Vietnam.

Support staff can also be teaching assistants. She referenced that teaching assistants in her schools were from the host country culture. They were trained in a Western-style pedagogical classes and were excited to share their culture with both educators and students. In Poland, an educator commented about the benefits of having local teaching assistants. She mentioned that Polish people are very proud and want to share their culture. From the age of three through second grade classrooms have a Polish person with them to integrate culture and language. In addition, Polish language and cultural classes are provided for all students in Krakow. On the

contrary, because of the rich Polish language integration into the school, some teachers find it a challenge to meet the standards and the academic subjects.

However, in some host country cultures the expectations and work ethic of the Western educators may be culturally different than the local support staff work ethic. For example, according to one educator, support staff in Turkey are greatly valued in this international school. However, conflicts occur between the communication and work expectations of Western and Turkish support staff. An educator in one of the schools in Turkey states,

the concept of efficiency and getting things completed is done very differently in Turkey and can be very trying and complicated to the Western staff, including communication styles. Therefore, we frequently find that administrators need to spend a little bit of extra time managing relationships between business and operation offices and the teachers in order to get done what everybody needs to get done.

Therefore, work by local staff gets completed at a different, more relaxed pace than what Western teachers are accustomed causing miscommunication and conflict.

Successes. Many educators in international schools commented about how they integrated the host country culture into the school. It did not matter whether host country culture events came into the school or whether students went out into the country for community services. Interacting with the local community made a significant impact on the students of international schools. In some cases, such as in the Russian international school, the administrator would have local artisans come to the school two to three times per year to sell wooden toys, clothing, pottery, and traditional crafts related to the Russian heritage. The administrators would also bring in Russian dancers to the school so students would appreciate the music and heritage of the Russian culture. Even weekend trips or local field trips to different

places of interest were offered to teachers so they could learn the significance of the host country culture. Many educators in various international schools also mentioned they offer host country language opportunities so teachers could become familiar with the local language. Teachers in some countries, such as in Switzerland, were offered a stipend to learn the national language.

Another popular option for students to learn about host country culture was to have them visit the country. For example, students in the school in Lebanon were obligated to provide community service starting in the middle school years. Students in grades six through twelve work with Syrian refugees or students with disabilities. Syrian refugees have a big impact on the culture in Lebanon and students are encouraged to understand the refugee movement by becoming involved.

Other countries have similar community service projects for the students. According to a Russian educator, many Africans and Eastern Europeans migrate to Russia for economic reasons and sometimes end up losing their visas. Once they lose their visas they cannot afford to buy a new one and end up stuck in the country and become homeless. The teachers and students at the international school in Russia integrate with the culture by helping in soup kitchens, volunteering in orphanages, and working with homeless people and immigrants. The school also helped to enhance cultural ties through helping the community. For example, the school got an appeal from a farm outside of Moscow because they ran into hard times losing their equipment and crops. The students pulled together and helped the farmers with their projects in the fields and around animal barns. In return, the farmers came to the school and brought fresh produce to share with the children. A relationship was formed between the school and the farmers in the community and as of this study was still being sustained.

International schools integrate culture using different methods. In Poland, appreciation and respect for Polish culture is created through excursions to museums, drama productions, and art events. An international school in Switzerland provided internship opportunities for Swiss-based companies for their students. English teachers at the school in the UK compare British and US English accents during lessons. Students enjoy hearing the different accents and distinguishing between English dialects. The UK educator also integrated other local aspects related to culture through foods. For example, a common British delicacy is to eat baked beans on toast. Or she explains UK tradition's such as firework displays on specific nights.

Each international school has their own way of integrating host country cultural events into their schools. No standard, consistent protocol was integrated across cultures because assimilation of the host country cultures is dependent upon the individual country and school dynamics. Whether culture is brought into the school by local artisans or musicians, or whether students and teachers are given the opportunity to travel and actually physically integrate themselves into the community and the host country culture, international schools in their own way make the community connection. Community connections build relationships which help the international school to be assimilated into the host country culture and therefore be successful. However, interaction and integration of host country culture is not always easy or successful as is seen by examples in the next section.

Challenges. International schools also face challenges related to dealing with host country cultures. Not all relationships between the country and school are amicable. In this section, no consistent rhyme or reason is presented related to challenges that exist for international schools. The following examples in this section shared by educators from different schools and countries could not be categorized together because the challenges were individually

unique relative to the host country cultural interactions with the international schools. Therefore, this section provides a series of unrelated challenges in the form of segregated examples.

First, current events have a massive impact on the school. Regardless of the nation or the culture in which the international school is housed, families and students are not immune to any news or worldwide events. International schools always need to be cognizant of the fact that students are from different countries and will travel to their home country frequently. For example, one Swiss school had students in the airport in Turkey during the Turkish coup bombing attempt. Students and families were in Berlin Germany when the bus terrorist attack occurred over the Christmas holiday. Therefore, it is important to keep a perspective on news in order to understand the impact of current events on students and families.

Current events also affect students in terms of the impact of politics and political parties. Many students in the Lebanese school have parents that represent political parties and are frequently involved in political events. At home, students are affected by parental conversations and incidents displayed on TV, such as political events. Students tend to bring what they hear from home or TV into the school, which can cause issues that educators need to address. For example, a division between students at school in Lebanon was caused because of elections taking place within the country.

Second, the Ministry of Education may intervene and dictate some curriculum used by the international schools. Examples of intervention were seen in Panama and Kuwait. The Department of Education, or *Maduka*, enforce strict rules on the international school. In Panama students are not allowed to be expelled due to poor behavior. Another example is that teachers are not allowed to give a student a grade below 20%, even if the student hands in a blank exam. In terms of tuition rates, the school needs to provide documentation six months in advance to the

Maduka regarding the fact that parents voted on the tuition rate. Last, the *Maduka* send random surprise visitors to the school to ensure the right materials are being covered.

In the international school in Kuwait, the Ministry of Education is actively involved in the school because of the religious orientation and teaching of the Quran in the Arab international school. For example, in terms of geographical curriculum, Israel is never discussed in the curriculum per the Ministry of Education, even if taught by a Muslim. As a matter of fact, the Ministry of Education has the educators black out Israel in textbooks and write in Palestine. What is called the Persian Gulf to the Western world must be changed to the Arabian Gulf. In science, teaching of the solar system by an English-speaking teacher is also taboo. The teaching of solar events and incorporating Islamic religious traditions such as Ramadan *Hijri* (the proper days to observe fasting and celebrate Islamic holidays) by an English-speaking teacher is not allowed because this topic should be taught in conjunction with religion by an Arabic teacher, even if the English-speaking teacher provides the scientific perspective. In addition, the school needs to order extra sets of books when they purchase so that a copy gets reviewed by the Ministry of Education for appropriateness. Examples of taboo books might include *Romeo and Juliet* because of dating and suicide, *Animal Farm* and *Three Little Pigs* because most Muslims do not eat meats associated with pigs and these children's books show pigs in a positive light. Therefore, literature is very carefully reviewed by the Ministry of Education.

In contrast, one of the Panamanian international schools that was also designated as a Christian school, did not have any taboo topics even related to evolution in the sciences. Even though schools may be similar in nature (religious affiliations), challenges presented by host country cultures are unique to the countries. Therefore, the ability to categorize challenges for consistency or patterns is lacking across international schools due to the variation of countries.

Third, socioeconomic status greatly impacts international schools but in extraordinary ways. The results of this study indicated that most of the students that attend international schools are extremely affluent. One educator mentioned that many of these kids are in the top 1% of the wealthiest families in the world. Another educator even mentioned that some kids come to school through an UBER helicopter service. Therefore, it is challenge to pull the wealthy students out of their socioeconomic “bubble” to have different perspectives that are outside of the top 1% lifestyle. Recognizing this, international schools incorporate great opportunities that challenge and bring perspective to the top 1%. For example, students at a Swiss international school attend a weeklong poverty simulated or refugee simulated event to understand the implications of living in a different socioeconomic status. In the same school, all students in grades nine go to Romania to participate in Habitat for Humanity or help out in an orphanage in Kathmandu or Ghana. These are examples in ways of which international schools connect real world events to the top 1% affluent community.

Socioeconomic status may also influence how parents are perceived in international schools. Not all families attending international schools are affluent and therefore attempt to conceal their SES level. Some expatriate parents from various countries that lived at a different SES level in their own country live better in the current country in which they reside. For example, an educator in Turkey commented that some families may be better off in Turkey than they were in their home country. Despite this fact, these parents may not be as affluent as the other families that have children attending the international school and therefore will not apply for scholarships in fear other affluent families attending the school will discover their status. In opposite cases, a sense of entitlement exists in some Latin America countries. Affluent parents

feel that because they pay for their children to attend an international school their children should automatically be entitled to attendance at a high-ranking university.

In other cases, the SES conditions of the country itself may contribute to issues faced by international schools. Some days the international school in Panama is closed because of the lack of running water, electricity, or flooding.

Fourth, some religious family dynamics may effect children attending international schools. For instance, an educator in Turkey specifically mentioned some Muslim fathers travel for long periods of time and the mother single-handedly raises the children. When the father returns home after a long absence, children are reintroduced to his more rigid and strict parenting style, which creates trying family dynamics. These difficult family dynamics tend to get played out by students in various scenarios within the school. Family dynamics also affect higher education choices in some Muslim families. In terms of post-graduation from secondary school, some girls in conservative Muslim families that want to go to college can only attend depending on whether they have a brother that can accompany them to college.

In summary, the host country culture may add to the successes and challenges in leading, managing, and navigating international schools. Contributions to the successes of international schools may be aided by the internal assimilation of the host country cultural events into the school and external opportunities for students and teachers to integrate themselves into the local community. Support staff also provide strong links between community and international schools. On the contrary, current events, Ministries of Education, and socioeconomic status all present challenges to international schools which need to be navigated. One relevant comment that came out of a few interviews worth noting would be the diplomatic relationships between the host country culture and international schools, which is discussed in the remaining section.

Diplomatic relationships. Most families attending international schools have roots stemming from different countries. For example, families in AIS have ties with the United States. Many international schools are associated with countries that are unrelated to the host country cultures. Some international schools were established so that expatriates, no matter what country they are from, may have a consistent education for their children. That said, political or diplomatic events that occur between the host country culture and the international schools country of origin strongly impact the schools in a foreign setting. An educator in Turkey commented how immigration laws are continuously changing making it difficult for international schools to remain compliant.

Politics between nations may cause adverse relationships between host country cultures and international schools. Most adverse effects come in the form of obtaining work visas for international teachers. For example, an educator in Russia remarked that the political climate and relationship between the UK and Russia is a dynamic issue. The contentious relationship between the two countries led to issues with visa attainments causing an extra six months of delays for UK teachers to obtain visas to work in Russia. In late December of 2016, an international news channel announced that Russia was going to close American International Schools in Russia because of the expulsion of 35 Russian diplomats in the US due to presumed hacking of the presidential election. In another example, Russia and Canada engaged in reciprocal retaliation. Because of bad diplomatic relations between the two countries, embassy members in both Toronto and Moscow were having each other's cars towed. Another example was seen between the US and India when diplomatic relations became tense between the two countries. The AIS faced the brunt of the tough visa control when an Indian diplomat was arrested in New York City. Other examples come from countries such as Switzerland. A few

years ago, the US demanded that the Swiss open up the finance records of American bank accounts in that country for tax fraud purposes. The government officials in Switzerland did not like this demand so they put moratorium on hiring people from the US, including teachers, until it was solved.

On the contrary, some host country nations in international schools have stable, amiable relationships. Therefore, diplomatic issues are virtually nonexistent. For example, issues are generally non-existent between the US and Lebanon, or between the US and Panama. Not all relationships between the host country culture and international schools are contentious. In these cases obtaining visas or dual citizenships are virtually a non-issue.

In this section, big political items may obscure the relationships between countries and schools. Relationships are affected by volatile diplomatic relationships amongst countries. This in turn, affects how international schools are managed, lead and navigated according to the host country culture. The last section of chapter four reviews the findings from the quantitative survey and qualitative interviews.

Conclusion

Chapter four presented the approach to the research study along with the quantitative survey analysis and qualitative interview results. The quantitative data results were from questions incorporated about the perceptions of educators. The questions were in line with the guiding research questions so the researcher could follow them as a guideline. Questions included demographic information using Likert type of questions along with open-ended text responses regarding cultural perspectives.

The first part of this chapter described the findings from the survey participants and their demographics. Demographics included host country, sexual and religious orientations, cultural

composition of personnel and students, type of school, and the type of governance of the host country. In addition, data were categorized and analyzed based on host culture identity along with educator perceptions of cultures within their school. Next, intrinsic and extrinsic factors were examined related to cultural enhancements that impacted the successes and challenges of the international schools. Last, the quantitative analysis examined the standards, curricula, and assessments used within international schools. Findings from the quantitative online survey were used to drive the development of the qualitative interview questions.

For the qualitative portion of this chapter, the results from the quantitative data analysis were used to inform the qualitative interview questions and dig deeper into information about international schools. The researcher found that both AIS and IS highly value their educational system and practices and so do families because these schools offer programs in English with consistency in standards and curriculum that assist in reducing culture shock associated with transient families, along with promoting open-mindedness and tolerance. Attending international schools provides a competitive pathway for students to attend both US and foreign universities. This section also reviewed attendance restrictions put on international schools by host country governments.

Other elements such as teaching styles used by educators within international schools was compared to host country governments schools. This section of the study also segued into parental expectations of international schools. Some parents were very supportive of international schools in their teaching styles, but others were not because they did not understand the new concept of student-centered learning. Examples of how administrators and teachers of international schools manage and navigate parental and community situations were provided.

International schools are credited with integrating the community of global learners through international mindset, diversity of other cultures, and integration of host country cultures. Protocols are also in place that enhance adaptation and integration of new educators and students within international schools. Integration of host country cultures can be internal or external. Internal meaning that local staff, artisans, cultural events are integrated into the school. External events include taking teachers and students to local cultural events, charity fundraisers, community services, and helping in soup kitchens outside of the school.

Although many international schools make an attempt to integrate culture, the Ministry of Education or government can become highly involved in the international school. Involvement was seen primarily in the type of curriculum delivered within each school. Other international schools were completely segregated and independent from the Ministry of Education in the host country culture.

In summary, successes and challenges in leading, managing, and navigating international schools may be because of host country culture integration. Integration may encompass curriculum, government regulations, finances, teaching styles, and parental expectations. Last, diplomatic relationships between countries creates easy circumstances for international schools or difficult challenges particularly with work visas.

The next chapter in this study will be chapter five which will review the findings from this research. Information related to similarities and differences from the literature review will also be examined. Further, implications for the findings for international schools will be discussed, along with new findings presented by the researcher. Chapter five will summarize and link the research guiding questions to the findings of the Mixed Method Sequential Explanatory Design of this research.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In a diverse global society, more parents are beginning to work for companies or governments that require them to work overseas. Families frequently travel between countries for work and therefore children go to school in the country in which the parent is working. Families tend to stay in one country for an average of two to four years before they are assigned by the company or government to another country. Many parents find the importance of sending their children to a rigorous school in an effort to provide consistency in educational and pedagogical practices while moving between nations. More often than not, international schools fit this model sought after by parents.

Despite international schools fitting the model, they have their own unique challenges being located within a host country. Each country has a different set of governments, policies, and laws in addition to unique cultural aspects such as religion or cultural heritage. International schools provide a consistent platform for transient students to integrate with fellow students and obtain a rigorous education. Yet, these schools must integrate and assimilate other country's cultures and laws to be successful.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the dynamics and issues of relationships between American International Schools, International Schools, and host country cultures from the perception of educators. This study also examined how these impacts influenced the capacity of educators to manage, lead, and navigate the host country culture and other cultures in the school. By asking educators to share their perceptions and experiences in the enhancements and issues of working at an AIS or IS in a host country, this study illuminates the intrinsic and extrinsic factors that contribute to working overseas. This mixed methods study provided insight

into the techniques and strategies AIS and IS utilized in different countries and cultures to be successful.

The research in this study focused on issues that American International Schools and International Schools face while abroad and housed in a foreign country. Specifically, this study provided insight into the perceptions and issues American International School and International School educators must adapt to on foreign soil associated with cultural norms and values in host countries. The problem of this study addressed similarities and differences in cultures and the impact on American International Schools and International Schools educators in their capacity to manage, lead, and navigate cultural aspects to provide a successful school and a quality education.

Guiding research questions helped to focus and steer the research project. This dissertation proposal contained three guiding research questions:

- 1) What cultural dynamics exist that have an effect on educators in American International Schools and International Schools?
 - a. This question focused the research on the role that the host culture played in influencing how an AIS or IS is managed.
- 2) What are the perceptions of educators related to intrinsic and extrinsic cultural enhancements or issues in American International Schools and International Schools that might affect the success of the school and quality of education?
 - a. This question focused on how educators perceived and acted based upon internal dynamics, or intrinsic factors, such as gender, religion, or the SES of families in an AIS and IS. Religion and socioeconomic status of families attending the school are

- collected in order to understand the context of the school and provide a fuller sociocultural perspective.
- b. External factors, or extrinsic, include facets such as host country type of government, policies, and finances.
 - c. How do educators incorporate host country cultures into the school?
- 3) The third question focuses on how educators incorporate host country cultures into the school. What accommodations or compromises did American International School and International Schools educators make because of host country culture expectations or influences in order to manage, lead, and navigate the school?

Context of the Study

The conceptual background was established for this study by examining literature related to international schools, pedagogical practices, and demographics from various countries. The review of the literature regarding the impact of the host country culture on international schools highlighted several factors that contributed to the successes and challenges of international schools based in countries abroad. These highlighted factors reviewed the impacts of historical development of educational systems worldwide, influences of intrinsic and extrinsic factors, perceptions on teaching and learning, and cultural integration of host country culture into international schools. Each of the highlighted factors from the literature review are summarized below.

The historical development of educational systems was prevalent because it helped to predict the success or failure of a country (Ketterer & Marsh, 2001; Orr, 1981). Although the US already had a rudimentary educational system in place, other countries were just beginning the process of developing their educational system (DeBoer, 2012). Different historical periods

influenced the development of the American educational system creating economic growth and improved international competition (Bjork, et. al., 2014; Dewey, 1997; Hanna, 2015; Hunt, 2015; Jaiani & Whitford, 2011; Kaestle, 2007; Waldrow, 2015). International convergence created the globalization of education as seen in other Western countries, where Anglo-American countries generally mirrored each other while reforming their educational platforms (Astiz, et. al., 2002; Davies & Guppy, 1997; DeBoer, 2012). Other countries also evolved their educational system based on economic growth, social climate, national identity, and at times religious orientation (Dewey, 1997; Hewes, 1992; Shibata, 2004; Yamasaki, 2010). In addition to historical influences, intrinsic and extrinsic factors also influenced cultural norms that therefore filtered into educational systems.

Intrinsic factors impacting culture included gender, religion, and socioeconomic status. First, sexual orientation impacts cultural dynamics because gender inequality has been a struggle in countries for hundreds of years (Allan, 2011; Hopcroft, 2009; Neff, Cooper, & Woodruff, 2007). Women are impacted by lack of access to education in some countries usually based on subordination related to religious orientations (Amer, et. al., 2009; Al Rawaf & Simmons, 1991; Chickering, 2012; Ghose, 2007; Oplatka & Lapidot, 2012; Rankin & Aytac, 2006). Next, SES factors were another intrinsic factor influencing cultural dynamics. Equal access to education by children of lower SES is lacking (Knippprath, 2009; OECD, 2012).

Extrinsic factors that impact culture include governments, policies, and finances and therefore also impact education and international schools. Types of governments and foreign policies influence how international schools are managed since they are housed abroad. In addition to the day-to-day management of the school, international schools must integrate host

country financing laws and work within the parameters of the nation (Ortloff, et. al., 2001). In addition, some countries limit whether host country students may attend international schools.

Although intrinsic and extrinsic factors are separate, the effects they have do overlap. Cognitive styles, educational practices, parental expectations, and community relationships are also taken into consideration when examining the management of an international school. In addition, this study investigates how schools navigated teaching and learning, language, democratic values, and students viewing teaching styles. Building community relationships within host country and with local universities is also important in terms of providing the correct curriculum, instruction, and assessments.

The objective of this study was to provide both US and international educational policymakers, ministries of education, head of schools overseas, teachers, school board members, and US or other nations' Department of Education Overseas Schools meaningful insight into the issues of managing, leading, and navigating AIS and IS. The significance of this study was to promote a greater understanding of how intrinsic (gender, religion, SES) and extrinsic (types of government, policies, finances) factors contributed to the challenges related to strategies used to manage, lead, and navigate AIS and IS. In addition, this study promoted a greater understanding of intra- or intercontinental similarities and differences related to enhancements and issues experienced by AIS and IS. Information utilized by AIS and IS may offer successful guidelines or strategies useful for other international schools.

Study Design

The method used to conduct the research was the Mixed Method Sequential Explanatory Design (Creswell, 2009). The research examined country and cultural differences along with techniques and strategies employed by AIS or IS to be successful. The Mixed Method Sequential

Explanatory Design consisted of two data collection avenues. The first part began with quantitative data collection and analysis based upon literature review and information from the NEASC website. This data were obtained through an online digital survey for the participants to complete. The second part, or sequence, of the Mixed Method Sequential Explanatory Design contained qualitative interviews as an opportunity to follow-up on information from the quantitative online survey. The quantitative data analysis and findings were used to inform and direct the qualitative interview questions. Qualitative interviews were supportive of the quantitative findings, which were used to dig deeper into the research questions as part of the exploratory portion of the Mixed Method Sequential Explanatory Design. Demographic information collected from diverse locations and cultures offered a comparison across non-identical schools in diverse countries.

Results

Data collected from the quantitative online survey questions consisted of demographics and perceptions of educators. Demographics of participants obtained were related to the country, sexual and religious orientations, cultural compositions of personnel and students, the type of school, and type of governments of the host country culture. This research using the online survey and interview results were guided by the three research questions. The educators that participated from different countries were categorized into five regions. These regions consisted of Africa, Arab, Asia, Europe, and Latin America. During data analysis, no significant difference was seen between responses of administrators or teachers. In addition, responses from both males and females were similar in that gender did not influence answers. Therefore, results from administrators and teachers were combined under the term *educators*, which included both males and females.

Discussion of Findings

This investigation sought to accomplish three main goals of the research questions. The first was to examine the cultural dynamics that exist affecting educators in American International Schools and International Schools. The implications for this first goal were to understand the role that the host culture plays in influencing the management of AIS or IS. The second goal was to determine the perceptions of educators related to intrinsic and extrinsic cultural enhancements or issues in international schools affecting the success of the school and quality of education. Implications for intrinsic factors were related to gender, religion, or the SES of families attending AIS and IS. Implications for extrinsic factors included effects from type of host country government, policies, and finances. The last goal was to unearth accommodations or compromises international school educators make because of host country culture expectations or influences in order to manage, lead, and navigate the school. Implications for this goal provide insight related to successful accommodations made by international schools.

This next section in this chapter is laid out by guided research question or goal related to the findings followed by implications within each finding. The findings for the first research question include discussions regarding historical components, reasons for children to attend international schools, and international-mindedness. The discussion related to the second research question includes considering impacts of intrinsic and extrinsic factors. The findings for the third research question revolve about discussions in teaching styles and parental expectations.

Research Question One

The first research question addresses the cultural dynamics that have an effect on educators in American International Schools and International Schools. Specifically, the role that the host culture played in influencing how an international school is managed. The first

research question is addressed by the historical components, reasons for children to attend international schools, and international-mindedness. This section discusses major findings from this study related to these aspects along with connections to findings from literature reviewed. Both similarities and differences exist between the literature reviewed and the findings of this study.

Historical. The historical component of the literature review integrated in this study was to understand the background of educational values and ideologies as countries develop and change. Just as different historical periods influenced the American educational system (Bernard & Mondale, 2001; Bjork, et. al., 2014; Botsein, 1997; Cibulka, 2001; Dewey, 1997; Hanna, 2015; Hunt, 2015; Kaestle, 1983; Schnuth, 1986; Tyler, 1987; Waldrow, 2015;) other country's educational systems are also influenced by current and historical events (Anderson, 1975; Bjork, 2009; Chiaromonte, 1990; Chrystall, 2014; Davies & Guppy, 1997; DeBoer, 2012; Dewey, 1944; Han & Makino, 2013; Woodring, 1996; Yamasaki, 2010).

Dewey was very influential in the development of educational systems, particularly in the US, Europe, and Japan with his Progressive Movement concept (Hanna, 2015). His philosophy was that students learn independently and learn by discovery. However, countries began to transform and evolve their educational system based upon global events. The era of the Cold War and the launch of the satellite *Sputnik* by the Soviet Union created a competition between the US and the Soviets (Cibulka, 2001; Kaestle, 2007), which increased the rigor of both countries' educational systems (Botsein, 1997).

In Europe, around the time of World War II (WWII), Germany changed their educational philosophy by pulling away from the democratic Western style of education and producing an educational system consisting of moral teachings, military instruction, and nationalism (Dewey,

1944). Japan followed suite moving away from the Western style of education and shifted to a more nationalistic educational system (Anderson, 1959; Keene, 2002; Shibata, 2004). In addition, education became more rigorous in order for the country to compete in international exams (Martin, Mullis, Foy, & Stanco, 2012; Yamasaki, 2010).

Even Middle Eastern countries were influenced by Western educational systems. The United Arab Emirates (UAE) and Oman recently undertook educational reform. The UAE based their educational reform upon Finland's and New Zealand's highly successful educational systems (Chrystall, 2014). Oman based their reform on Omani culture and heritage rather than just Western educational philosophies. In addition, the Omani government did not share their oil wealth with their citizens. Therefore, the educational system geared instruction around educating students for more industry related jobs.

The results obtained from this study were similar to the findings in the literature. Based upon the findings of this study, both public and in many cases international schools are required to celebrate national historical holidays and teach the country's social studies or historical curriculum. Historical celebrations in curricula make a learning connection to the developmental ideologies and values of a country. Historical country events, whether pleasant or corrupt, create the foundation for different cultural identities and relationships and are learned in public and international schools. For example, in Iraq, Kurdish families that fled to other countries under Saddam Hussein are returning and rebuilding Iraq. With the migration of returning Kurdish families, so does the return of their cultural identity and integration of Kurdish historical customs and holidays into international schools. In the Russian Federation, expatriates send their children to an AIS founded in the 1940s for historical reasons. American and UK expatriate families did not want their children attending government managed schools in Russia during the Cold War

but wanted children to have educational curriculum centered about Western ideologies. In Panama, historical country pride is learned about and celebrated during its *Fiestas Patrias*, or Panama's independence. Confucius ideologies and culture of interdependence are highly valued in many Eastern Asian public and international schools.

Implications. Historical factors shape a country's educational system. Influence of historical events is reflected in the school's curriculum and instruction, as well as government educational regulations. Historical factors have implications for international schools because what is taught is partially reflective of the country's own educational philosophies, ideologies, and reforms shaped by past events. The benefit to incorporating historical celebrations and host country curriculum and instruction into international schools is that cultural sensitivity is enhanced and international-mindedness is promoted, particularly related to host country culture. Children that travel every few years from country to country are exposed to intense host country integration, allowing them to be more open-minded and culturally tolerant and sensitive to a variety of ethnicities and religions.

The challenge is that historical factors are reflected in host country government restrictions. The host country government at times, puts restrictions on international schools. Government regulations regarding what and how curriculum is taught may restrict autonomy in an international school. For example, curriculum and instruction related to the solar system can only be taught by an Arab teacher, not in English or Western teacher. Because historically, in this international school in Kuwait, the government requires that the connection between religion and science be taught by an Arab.

For other international schools, governments require that the country's history and social sciences be taught in order to maintain a national identity. This is significant because it provides

students learning the host country history and social sciences to have the opportunity to take host country exams and university entrance exams to remain within the country. This way the flow of finances is maintained within the country and citizens stay, which sustains the country's national identity.

Reasons for attending. The reasons discovered from this study as to why families want their children to attend international schools was fairly consistent with the reasons found in the literature related to Bailey's (2015) findings. The common reasons included English as the medium of instruction, Western or international (IB) curriculum, exposure to internationalism (international-mindset), and access to universities overseas. A fifth reason was related to a comparison to the national or public school systems overseas. The literature indicated national schools had larger class sizes and less discipline. This study found identical results as well, but also discovered that many host country students were exempt from entering international schools because they could not afford to attend, or the host country government had policies restricting access to attending international schools.

Implications. The inability to access international schools for many host country students creates some concerns and has implications. First, many host country students lack the exposure to cultural diversity, tolerance, and international-mindedness that is ubiquitous within an international school. This exposure international students have is an advantage because it breaks down barriers and stereotypes between nations and ethnicities. Second, host country schools may not teach the English language. Not having access to the English language may put students at a disadvantage for their ability to get admitted to or attend a higher tiered Western university than what is available for universities in a host country. An issue resides in that students of a lower SES level may not have the same opportunities to access an English-speaking university to help

improve their family's economic situation. For example, in some of Latin American countries results from this research indicated that some students dropped out of school in order to work and provide for their families. Dropping out of school may lock students into a lower economic hierarchy and promote SES stagnation suppressing the ability for growth. Last, students from the host country that are not able to access international education may deal with limited, antiquated pedagogical instruction and curriculum. The issue is that some students that may need individualized or differentiated instruction may not have access to essential learning options or resources to meet their individual needs. Therefore, students may fall behind and drop out of school and never graduate.

International-mindedness. Cultural values and ideals differ between nationalities and not all nations agree on the same philosophies and morals. From the literature, Pratt (1991) discussed areas where cultures meet and clash with one another and relations of power are highly asymmetrical called *contact zones*. Brodkey (1996) suggested that although contact zones are recognized between nations, some cultures have limited tolerance for each other in terms of race, gender, liberalism, or conservatism.

However, the actual findings from this study, both from the survey and interviews, suggest that adverse contact zones are minimized or extinguished at international schools and therefore do not necessarily agree with the literature. International schools provide an opportunity for students of different races, genders, and nationalities to integrate and work together. In some cases, two students working together, for example that are a paired team during a science lab, that are from antagonistic countries are able to interact and succeed together in a safe and nurturing environment at an international school. The researcher found these types of examples during the investigation as well as being implemented through adhering to the mission

statement, using curriculum and instruction as the approach, and/or learning about the host country culture.

The mission statement ensures all educators are clear regarding expectations related to promoting and practicing cultural diversity and tolerance. Many international schools in this study stated that they specifically have mission statements and philosophies directly addressing international-mindedness, as well as cultural diversity and tolerance. In addition, interviewees claimed that mission statements are usually visible in hallways and classrooms as constant reminders making awareness for international-mindedness high for students and faculty.

Curriculum and instructional approaches have a similar look and feel across international schools. This study found that many international schools use IB or Western standards, curriculum, and assessments assisting in the practices of international-mindedness. These resources allow for consistency for a diverse population and background of students. The literature also found that international schools overseas have a population which is more highly diverse than do national local schools and thus educators need to provide effective instructional practices that touch diverse learners (Baily, 2015; Ortloff, et. al., 2001). Data from this research suggests that effective instructional practices for diverse learners is done through the IB programs, Western pedagogical practices including student-centered and individualized learning geared toward each student. Educators in international schools surveyed and interviewed indicated that almost all the schools promoted individualism and democracy. For example, in Lebanon, democratic values were taught despite being housed in a republic nation. As suggested by the literature, in many nations a strong cultural belief exists that promoting individualism is reflected in a curriculum and is provided through democratic education (Tobin, et. al, 2009). However, this research did find evidence that in some middle eastern or Arabic countries, less

individualized learning and more teacher-directed lectures occurred reducing the value of autonomous learning.

Within curriculum and instruction lies the sensitive topic of taboo subjects. The literature reviewed in this study suggested that educators and students at international schools may be more cognizant and careful about conversations occurring in the classroom which contains a diverse room full of students from different countries (Bailey, 2015). Taboo topics, according to the literature may include gender sensitive or religious orientation sensitive topics. With the exception of some international schools in the Middle East, results from this study indicate that taboo topics were virtually nonexistent across international schools. For example, learning about other religions, evolution, or gender specific topics were all welcome. The only discrepancy found was predominantly in countries like Kuwait or Saudi Arabia where Israel is not a recognized country and therefore considered a taboo topic and removed from the textbooks and maps. In addition, in some international schools in Arab countries, religious curriculum and instruction must be taught by Arabic teachers, not English-speaking teachers for fear of misinformation provided to students.

Being sensitive to host country cultures as well as different cultural values by international educators is viewed to be a strength. According to the findings in this research, most international teachers have had international experience and are familiar with host country cultures, therefore, educators are well-versed and usually experienced in delivering any type of information that could be potentially sensitive. With the exception of international schools in Turkey, Vietnam, and Saudi Arabia, international educators interviewed received some type of host culture integration at the beginning or during their employment at an international school. Host country culture was incorporated two ways. Integration of host country culture was either

done internally at the school by a taking off national or religious holidays, bringing local artisans into the school, or having international culture days for students and teachers, or externally by integrating educators and students into the country through charity events, simulations, or cultural events and celebrations. This study agreed with the literature in that many of the AIS and IS integrate themselves into the local culture, form partnerships with local businesses, and observe host country holidays and celebrations (Baily, 2015; Ortloff, et. al., 2001). Therefore, integration of the host country culture within an international school was done through many forms, bringing the culture into the school and forming partnerships or participating outside the school with the community, or both. The type of values delivered by educators teaching in an AIS or IS assist in establishing cultural educational ideology with students.

One inconsistency found in this study however, was that some schools were required to teach the host country national curriculum along with a Western or IB program and some were not. Some international schools were mandated by the government to teach their national curriculum. For international schools required to teach government mandated courses, the national curriculum focused on host country language and English, in addition to social sciences related to the nation, such as history, civics, or law. One major reason was to provide nation-specific diplomas, which allowed entrance into host country-specific universities. Many of the entrance exams required to get into a host country university required students to take a test from information using the national curriculum. Whether or not international schools taught the host country curriculum or the mother tongue language was on individual country requirements and was not globally consistent. The inconsistency as to whether international schools were required to teach part of the national curriculum or host country language was also discussed in the literature. According to the literature, country's own nationalism and nationalistic values may

clash with curriculum provided at international schools (Bailey, 2015). Han & Makino (2013) suggest culture and cultural heritage are not automatically built within a society and therefore need to be learned through education. Predominant language used within a region or country supports culture and cultural heritage. Many international schools are required to teach the host country's official language and frequently incorporate the host country curricula (Ketterer & Marsh, 2001; Ortloff, et. al., 2001).

The literature reviewed suggested that if the host country mother tongue language would be removed from education, then the fallout could be that a students' cultural identity is removed along with the language (Bailey, 2015; Ortloff, et. al., 2001). From the results in this study, it is unclear whether this is the case for transient students attending international schools. The conflict in the lack of clarity comes from the perspective that international schools promote globalism and international-mindedness, yet they may or may not incorporate a student's own host country language or curriculum. Within an international school, cultural identity may or may not be a challenge for transient students because the environment hosts a melting pot of various cultures and there exists a high tolerance for diversity and an air of acceptance among different nationalities and ethnicities.

Implications. How international schools manage and navigate contact zones has implications for success because these schools promote social justice, cultural diversity, and tolerance minimizing adverse contact zones. Educators must be cognizant of these contact zones within the schools considering the diversity of the student body. International schools create an environment that promotes international-mindedness through practicing global citizenship within a community of educators. Many international schools are successful at accomplishing social justice, cultural diversity, and tolerance for a few reasons.

First, some schools put limits on the number of students attending from different countries, including the host country, with the intent to maximize a population of students with high cultural diversity. Some governments require that the host country nationals have a dual citizenship with the mother country and another nation if they want to attend an international school, bringing diversity into the school. Second, international schools automatically lend themselves to international populations. Most students that attend international schools are transient populations so therefore meeting new people from diverse backgrounds and ethnicities is anticipated and expected. Third, schools promote international-mindedness through ensuring it is integrated throughout the school. Whether it is conducted through adhering to a mission statement, using curriculum and instruction as they approach, and/or learning about the host country culture.

International-mindedness has global implications outside of education as well. Exposure to other cultures and integration of diversity within international schools not only prepares students for careers in global communities, but increases their success as leaders. Javidan (2010) discusses that children are socialized under a unicultural lens in school because they work with people that are like them, but then are employed by companies to work with people who are different from them. Being employed in an environment with high international diversity as an adult requires attaining attributes related to a different cultural lens and global mindset. Global mindset (Financial Times, 2017) is defined as an awareness of and openness to a diversity of cultures and markets where “people view cultural and geographic diversity as opportunities to exploit and are prepared to adopt successful practices and good ideas wherever they come from”.

Javidan (2010) further explains that leaders with a global mindset are more likely to succeed in an international work place and that,

leaders with a strong stock of Global Mindset know about cultures and political and economic systems in other countries and understand how their global industry works. They are passionate about diversity and are willing to push themselves. They are comfortable with being uncomfortable in uncomfortable environments. They are also better able to build trusting relationships with people who are different from them by showing respect and empathy and by being good listeners.

The implications for students that attend and graduate from international schools are that they have already established an international-mindset tailored toward the preparation of a global mindset. Unicultural environments are generally the setting in public and national schools. International schools, on the other hand, provide a culture with high diversity and various ethnicities. By graduation, these students have had exposure to and experience working with students and educators from different nations, ethnicities, and cultures. These students grow up being socialized in a culturally diverse and accepting environment. Therefore, students learn to view the world from a multicultural lens rather than a unicultural lens, which naturally prepares them for skills working in a global environment. This is an extremely valuable asset in an international economy and is a benefit to international education and schools.

Research Question Two

The second research question addresses the perceptions of educators related to intrinsic and extrinsic cultural enhancements or issues in American International Schools and International Schools that might affect the success of the school and quality of education. Major findings are discussed in this section along with similarities and differences reviewed from the literature.

Intrinsic factors gender and religion. It was surprising in the research findings compared to the literature reviewed that equal access to education was an insignificant factor as it related to gender. Many of the educators in international schools in the online survey and none of the educators during interview process indicated gender issues existed in terms of providing equal access to education for males and females. The only time gender inequality was mentioned came from the Middle East related to higher education after high school. Therefore, in this research gender conflicts or inequality did not play a role in accessing equal opportunities in education in international schools. This contrasts with literature read pertaining to national or local schools. According to the literature, demographic differences predominantly played a role in gender inequality (Allan, 2011; Hopcroft, 2009; Neff, et. al., 2007). In some countries, access to education for women is limited in countries such as Qatar, Egypt, Pakistan, and India (Chickering, 2012; Ghose, 2007; Oplatka & Lapidot, 2012; Rankin & Aytac, 2006). However, according to this research, demographic differences also played an insignificant role to gender equality or access to education at international schools regardless of the country where the school resided.

Religion was also not a big influential factor in international schools. Despite individual instances where religion may have impacted an event or situation within an international school, overall practices and integration of religion was not part of most international schools practice, except in a school in Kuwait. As with literature reviewed, most schools in this study did not incorporate religion or any type of religious orientation into the school except for a Christian school in Panama and an Arabic school in Kuwait. For the school in Kuwait, *heritage literacy* as discussed by Rumsey (2010) was evidenced in one school because of the teachings related to the Quran. Arabic teachers teaching the Quran were very literal and some parents complained that

they wanted more real-life examples and practices from lessons of the Quran rather than just memorization in the citation of the book. However, a link between gender and religion was not an issue related to access and education in Kuwait. In many Middle Eastern countries, such as Abu Dhabi women are beginning to have more access to education (Oplatka & Lapidot, 2012). Overall, neither gender nor religion seemed to have a significant impact on the managing or navigating of international schools, despite the host country culture in which the school resided.

Implications. The conclusions that can be drawn from the findings of this study were that overall, both males and females have equal access to education at international schools. Apart from some Middle Eastern countries, religion or religious studies were non-existent in international schools. In addition, discrimination based on religious orientation was not observed in this study. Implications from this study suggest lack of access to education due to gender or religion is not an issue at international schools. International schools provide equity in education regardless of gender or religion.

Intrinsic factor SES. Within the study, the researcher sought to find information regarding the actual SES status of those students attending the international schools. Instead, the information discovered was unexpected. Over the course of the study, interesting information came out about socioeconomic status and international schools. According to this study, AIS and IS provide a strong basis for international-mindedness, cultural tolerance, and diversity. However, what was striking was the lack of mention of students from the lower socioeconomic level attending international schools. AIS and IS are considered private schools which pride themselves in the best, most innovative pedagogical practices. The results indicated that most companies or wealthy parents can afford to send their students to schools. The literature

reviewed indicates most international schools operate based on funds from tuition and fees provided by companies or families (Ortloff, et. al., 2001).

According to the results from both the online study and interviews, very few international schools offer scholarships for host country locals, or others in need. In addition, if scholarships are offered parents are hesitant to apply because they do not want other families attending international schools to know of their low socioeconomic status.

Implications. Although a lot of international-mindedness and tolerance between and among cultures and countries exists, this study revealed little evidence of international-mindedness related to tolerance and integration of lower class and SES. Discrepancies exist between SES related to students that attend international schools. The implications are that poor host country children are most likely to remain in their lower SES class without opportunities for advancement because they are unable to afford to attend international schools. Governments should consider and look to offer opportunities and funding for their own host country students to attend international schools. It is understandable that many government officials want their citizens to keep their national identity, however this reduces opportunities for economic growth through expanding educational opportunities for poorer students and obtain international experience.

In asking interviewees regarding definitions and examples of international-mindedness, the answers were discussions regarding culture, diversity, tolerance, and nationality, but generally did not include definitions or evidence for international-mindedness related to including those of the lower SES or class. Cultural differences in international schools are easily navigated only in the sense that budgetary supports are available to teach or promote international-mindedness. Budgetary supports exist in that wealthy families or companies

financially fund their student's tuition and fees which allow them to attend regardless of nationality or ethnicity. However, international-mindedness falls short in the areas of lower SES encouragement, where budgetary support is needed, completely unrelated to nationality or ethnicity. For example, providing financial assistance for lower SES groups to attend international schools is either limited or nonexistent leaving international schools open and easily accessible to the upper class and wealthy.

In some cases, this segregation between classes is not necessarily intentional. Some international schools either cannot afford to provide financial opportunities, or support is very minimal. Therefore, the population of students is primarily wealthy children with high exposure to other nationalities, but little exposure to lower class SES. This virtual non-existent exposure to the poor perpetuates the sustainability and segregation of classes and the SES division because international education is generally a privilege for the wealthy. The literature suggests that poorer families make conscientiously decide not to have children attend public schools or international schools. This is because families from a lower SES weigh the costs and benefits of their children working versus attending school (Behrman, et. al., 1999; Irwin, et. al., 1978; OECD, 2012; Resau & Farinango, 2011). Many poorer families do not have equal access opportunities to education in general let alone attendance at international schools (OECD, 2012) sentencing them to an impoverished status. Many impoverished families have students work rather than go to school. This amplifies the division between the upper class and the lower class making the division in SES greater due to lack of educational resources to pull them out of poverty. Although not evidenced during this study, some literature reviewed supported that at times some countries purposefully create a divide between SES classes in order to maintain that segregation and create a hierarchical status (Little & Green, 2009).

Some schools stated that they try to minimize the divide between upper and lower classes by providing opportunities for students that attend their schools to engage in poverty simulations or charity events. Despite efforts, these occurrences only happen in a small window of time lacking full integration and appreciation of the poverty status, especially when students know they will go back to their wealthy way of living. Because of the lack of opportunities for the lower SES, the divide between the wealthy and poor is sustained by the segregation of classes. However, it is fair to say that some schools, especially just starting out are trying to provide the best education they can through an international school in some third world countries. However, they are limited by funding and therefore do what they can to get by, which does not necessarily accommodate the lower class. Similar findings related to establishing international schools were addressed in the literature. Some schools struggle to stay established due to lack of funding because they need to maintain the school by paying educator salaries, maintaining facilities, adhering to regulations from the host country (Ortloff, et. al., 2001). In addition, student enrollment may be low until the school has a solid reputation and is established within the country.

Extrinsic Factors

Extrinsic factors influencing international schools were also examined. Extrinsic factors defined by the researcher included type of government, policies, and finances.

Type of government, policies, finances. This study found that the type of host country government had little impact or influence in an international school. In some cases, some AIS were considered to be on “American soil” and therefore, the type of government had little to no impact on the school. The literature reviewed suggested that global economics affect government policies and educational systems despite the type of governance being different in different

nations (Jakobi, 2009). The findings of this study suggest that international schools were not impacted by the type of government, but rather regulations or restrictions imposed on international schools by governments. Regulations and policies included the requirement of adherence to some national and religious host country holidays, limitations to acceptance of host country students at international schools, and dynamics of diplomatic relationships between the host country and the international school's host nation.

According to Ortloff, et. al. (2001), international schools adhere to host country holidays, and required vacations. This research found similar results evidenced by the perceptions of educators in most international schools, where host country holidays and national celebrations were taken off. The second restriction was related to the number of host country students allowed to attend international schools within the country. In the literature, Bailey (2015) discussed that governments have different evolving responses as to whether they want local national children to attend international schools. No consistency between countries in this study was observed as to whether nations permitted host country students to attend international schools. The decision was strictly based on policies of each individual country and no pattern was visible. This research found that some governments restricted any host culture students from attending an international school unless they had dual citizenship with another country. Other countries provided a limit to the number of local students that could attend an international school within the host country. No consistent trends were seen as to whether governments allowed host country students to attend international schools. Again, this was solely based on the discrepancy of individual countries.

The influence and impact of diplomatic relations between the host country and the country in which the international school was founded had interesting findings in this research. The status of the relationship, rather than differences, between two countries strongly influenced

the ability of an international school to obtain work visas for potential employees. If diplomatic relationships between two countries were amicable, then obtaining work visas for employees to work in international schools was a non-issue. However, if diplomatic relationships between two countries were adversarial, then obtaining work visas for international educators became either a challenge, or was nonexistent until relationships became more amiable. For example, international schools in countries such as Russia and India had difficulty obtaining work visas for their American educators because of the poor relationship between these countries. On the other hand, countries such as Panama or Lebanon have relatively little to no issue in obtaining work visas for US educators because of the amicable relationship between the two countries.

Implications. Implications for external factors included elements that were not within the control of an international school. These external factors were predominantly related to government restrictions and laws as well as diplomatic relationships. Restrictions placed on host country students by the government have both benefits and challenges. Benefits include providing international schools with the ability to admit a more diverse student body from a variety of countries creating a stronger global setting. The challenge was that in some cases, the government prevented host country students from attending an international school, and therefore these children did not have exposure to international experience or cultures. In addition, some students end up remaining stagnant in their poverty status.

In terms of diplomatic relationships, international schools are at the whim of existing relationships between two countries. These relationships can be beneficial giving international schools unlimited opportunities to obtain visas for international teachers. The downside is that when international schools are expecting international teachers to arrive, work visas may be frozen by the host country government until diplomatic relationships improve. This is a

challenge for international schools because they expect to have a variety of international teachers working within their school based on the school calendar. If there is any hesitation in the ability to obtain work visas at a critical time, international schools may not be ready to open school or provide a sound education because schools are short-staffed. The last part of this section discussed and examined implications for findings related to the third research question.

Research Question Three

The third research question addresses accommodations or compromises American International School and International Schools educators make because of host country culture expectations or influences in order to manage, lead, and navigate the school. This last section discusses major findings from the research compared to findings in the literature. Teaching styles and parental expectations are the main issues addressed along with implications of the research findings.

Teaching styles. Most educators in this study from both the online survey and interviews, indicated that they use innovative teaching practices or student-centered teaching styles when teaching in international schools. Further, educators do not necessarily adapt their teaching styles to meet the host country culture. The findings show only two regions, Latin America and Arabic countries, that were the most likely to adapt their teaching styles to the host country culture than in Europe, Asia, or Africa. The literature examined suggested that it is appropriate for teachers to adjust and adapt their teaching styles to meet the host country culture (Bailey, 2015; Lyons & Niblock, 2014; Major, 2015) because the style of teaching reduces the gap between cultural stereotypes and realities to meet the needs of cultures (Woodring, 1996). The results of this research do not support this finding for international schools. The literature may be true for public schools and some Middle Eastern countries, but not for most international

schools. International schools consist of many cultures and nationalities in one setting and therefore employ a student-centered teaching style engaging students from multiple countries.

Most of the educators interviewed indicated that their style of teaching was student-directed or inquiry-based instructional approaches. This style of teaching was different than what educators perceived was the teaching style from host country educators in public schools or host country educators employed at international schools. The host country culture teachers in both public schools and international schools were perceived to have more lecture-based, teacher-directed instruction. According to the demographics from the online survey, the composition of educators in international schools showed the most dominant culture of educational staff to be either from the US for administrators, or a combination of the US and a different culture for teachers. Even the second most dominant culture of educational staff was not of the host country culture, but from a different country for both administrators and teachers. Host country administrators and teachers were the smallest population of educators employed at international schools in this study.

It is interesting to note that most international schools employ international teachers rather than host country teachers. This may suggest that international schools are looking for international educators outside the host country culture because host country teachers predominantly use a more traditional pedagogical style of teaching, which is not in line with international school best practices.

One must also consider different cognitive styles of learning between countries. The research does support the literature in that some Eastern Asian students preferred a more lecture-based style of teaching strategy. This was because of concerns regarding rigor and exams for getting into universities, even from parents. Cultural differences among cognitive styles, such as

interdependence in Eastern Asian countries, may lend itself to more teacher-led instruction. Some Middle Eastern schools also had a more traditional style of teaching and do not necessarily support autonomous student learning. Cognitive styles are different in Western or US schools where a culture of *independence* is fostered, and therefore student-centered learning is preferred.

Unfortunately, many public or government run schools overseas tend to have limited resources for offering teacher training in innovative teaching practices to host country schools. Many public schools do not have professional development supports to learn new pedagogical practices to increase rigor or implement best practices in teaching and learning. Public schools have difficulty in keeping up with internationalism, especially because some countries do not allow host country students to attend international schools within their own country. Therefore, budget and lack of funds is a contributing factor toward limiting resources to use for breaking down cultural stereotypes and realities.

Implications. This study found that the type of pedagogical practices utilized in international schools has implications for providing consistency in education for transient student populations as well as reducing culture shock for children. This is largely because international students frequently travel and attend a variety of schools in several countries, and therefore it is beneficial for international schools to have a more consistent style of teaching such as student-centered, independent, or IB trained practices for transient students. By providing consistent pedagogical practices between international schools, students instead focus on their education and work toward integrating themselves into a new culture without concerning themselves with adapting to different teaching styles and modes of instruction.

In many cases, educators also bring international experience with them. Therefore, educators themselves are empathetic toward students who travel frequently because they draw

from their own experiences while providing consistent pedagogical practices. Therefore, teachers with international teaching experience have a more transient lifestyle moving from school to school which may reduce the culture shock for students because they share similar experiences as students.

Parental expectations. One considerable finding that surfaced and was highly commented on within the study was related to parental expectations regarding instruction in international schools. Parental expectations regarding instruction were either from the old-school mindset of past experience, or of the innovative international school mindset. Either way, parents had certain expectations related to the medium of instructional practices and teaching styles. Expectations were either through the lens of past experiences from when parents grew up, or from familiarity in understanding how instructional practices work at international schools. This research was in agreement with what was found in the literature. International schools are at times in conflict with parental expectations from the host country culture, or other cultures. According to Bailey (2015), host country parents may not have similar views regarding success and motivation of how students learn. For example, parents and students in Canada and Australia might be more motivated by competition, whereas in Qatar and Asia they are more motivated by social approval and test scores (Zhao, et. al., 2005). Parents in some Middle Eastern countries such as Kuwait, Qatar, Lebanon, and Saudi Arabia preferred more teacher-directed and lecture style instruction. And in Kuwait and Qatar, parents valued education that reflected religious knowledge (Amer, et. al., 2009). The literature was similar to the findings in this study for these countries. In this study, educators from international schools in Switzerland and Poland mentioned that some parents prefer more teacher-directed instruction because that was the way the parents had learned in school and they perceived this to be a more rigorous style of learning.

During interviews, educators commented that schools in Japan and South Korea had parental expectations that teachers were more rigorous if they had a moral lecture-based style and provided more homework. On the contrary, per other educators interviewed, most parents had expectations of having an international curriculum along with innovative, student-centered instruction. These expectations are in line with understanding the consistent instructional style provided by international schools. No consistency between more conservative (lecture-based) or liberal (student-centered) parental expectations were seen between countries. Parental expectations very clearly were created from parental background and experience, which were then voiced to educators at international schools.

Implications. Parental expectations were one of the most highly commented subject by educators, and also one of the biggest challenges presented at international schools. Because of the familiarity of the international school experience, some parents were accepting of the innovative instruction, but some that lacked international experience were not as open and wanted more traditional instruction for their students. This was particularly seen in host country parents. Parental expectations had implications for navigating requirements by parents. Implications for parental expectations are that not all parents have the same experiences and background, and therefore information needs to be provided to parents so they understand the mechanics of international schools.

Applications of the Research

The findings and implications from this research address the successes and challenges found in international schools. This study provided a foundational understanding to the accommodations international schools make in order to be successful. In many cases, international schools are able to adapt to their host culture environment, and in other cases

challenges are presented. In many instances, issues may be out of the control of an international school, but still need to be navigated. The first part discusses successes such as international-mindedness, consistent educational instruction, parent training, and equality in education.

Overall, international schools are very successful for a number of reasons. The most outstanding attribute was the perspective of international-mindedness. International schools integrate and assimilate people from a variety of cultures, ethnicities, and nationalities. These schools promote cultural diversity, tolerance, and open-mindedness. Most of the international schools ensure that these educational settings are open and available to all cultures. International-mindedness was promoted through mission statements, curriculum, and integration of all cultures making the environment safe and conducive to risk-taking and learning for children.

International schools adhere to best practices related to innovative teaching styles. Teaching styles are indicative of new emerging learning models that provide individualized and student-centered learning for children. A significant benefit is that transient students receive instruction provided in an environment with consistent teaching styles. This is important because teachers provide consistency of instruction for students traveling every few years from country to country, rather than adapting to the host country cultures teaching style. This way, children learn from stable teaching styles that occur in many international schools. The consistency of instructional approaches allows students to focus on important elements such as academics, integration into the culture, and meeting new friends.

Some international schools offer information and training to parents regarding student-directed learning styles rather than teacher-centered or lecturing type of instruction. This gives parents the opportunities to understand how their children are learning, which is individualized instruction. Many parents prefer this style of instruction because it assists in meeting the

individual needs of students. However, it would behoove international schools to provide more training for parents related to benefits of innovative teaching styles and progressive learning techniques and strategies that they may not have encountered. Providing information and training to parents would allow them to assist their children in academics while at home.

Another success for international schools was correlated to the quality of education related to gender and ethnicity. Students have equal access to academics and extracurricular activities, regardless of gender, religion, or nationality. International schools promote diversity and tolerance, which is evident in school climate and culture as well as academics. In addition, relatively no taboo topics existed except for a couple of schools in the Middle East. International educators were open to discussing taboo topics regardless of subjects that may have been taboo within the host country culture.

International schools should pride themselves in providing a setting that promotes cultural diversity and tolerance, social justice, and international-mindedness. However, international schools are also presented with challenges. Some are within their control, and some are not. The next few paragraphs discuss the challenges international schools face and suggestions to navigate issues.

Two of the most significant findings from this study were related to challenges. The first challenge was not within the control of international schools. Diplomatic relationships between two countries can have adverse effects on international schools. If two nations are cooperative, work visas to employ international teachers are not an issue. However, if issues arise between two countries then a moratorium is put on work visas until discrepancies are cleared. The difficulty comes in that although international schools are prepared to open for the year, last

minute changes to international diplomatic relationships may occur creating a domino effect where international schools may not hire the educators they had anticipated employing.

Another big finding from this study was related to socioeconomic status of children attending international schools. In some cases, enrollment of lower SES students was in the control of international schools, and sometimes it was not. Most children that attend international schools are affluent or wealthy. Very rarely do impoverished or poor students attend international schools. Sometimes international schools cannot afford to or just do not provide scholarships for host country students or for poorer children to attend their school, therefore significantly reducing chances for those children in a lower hierarchical class to obtain a better education.

Despite international schools priding themselves in cultural diversity and tolerance between and among nationalities and ethnicities, international-mindset did not include the same mindset for impoverished or poor children and families. From the interviews, it appeared that families were more worried about their socioeconomic status than they were their nationality or ethnicity indicating that discrepancies still occur between economic classes. In order to be of a true international-mindset, international schools should look for opportunities and ways to include and incorporate impoverished students. In other words, *international-mindedness* lacks representation of the lower SES or impoverished without channels to merge this population and afford them with the same educational privileges as the affluent. In other words, international-mindedness is really *international elite-mindedness*.

Part of this lack of integration of lower SES students may be because some countries limit or restrict host country students from attending international schools. This could be due to government regulations or the fact that poor families cannot afford to pull their children out of

public education and put them into a private international school. For many countries and governments trying to improve their economic growth status, it would behoove them to examine ways for host country children to be privy to an international education, whether through policies or finances. In terms of international schools that do not provide scholarships for funding for impoverished children, creating charitable fund-raising events for student scholarships to provide students with lower SES to attend international schools would be beneficial. However, based on the results of this research, a stigma separating affluent from impoverished classes exists and wealthy students do not seem to be as open-minded and accepting of lower SES students as they are for cultural diversity and tolerance.

Other suggestions include providing information to parents promoting international-mindedness related to impoverished families and children. This goes above and beyond week long refugee simulations, temporary charitable events, or visits to orphanages. Although these events promote awareness to wealthy populations, they do not dissolve the deep-rooted disparity between the *have* and *have-not* populations attending international schools establishing an international elite-mindedness. Practices need to be found to address ways to provide opportunities for poorer students to improve family circumstances and promote national economic growth through access to better education.

Implications for Practitioners

Implications for educational leaders in both international schools and national public schools are vast. This research engages educational leaders in both international schools and national public schools to understand historical components of their educational system as well as examine implications and practices manifested in their school related to international-mindedness, English Language Learners (ELLs), SES, and global-mindedness. The following

section in this study sheds light on how educational leaders can benefit from historical information, promote international-mindedness, reduce culture shock for foreign and ELLs, decrease the socioeconomic divide, and understand the significance of endorsing global-mindedness.

Significance of the historical knowledge-base. Understanding the historical development of a host country educational system and the international school School Board provides a knowledge-base for the educational leader about the relationship between their own home country and the host country. This historical knowledge has advantageous implications for the significant role a practitioner plays in how they lead a school. Obtaining knowledge of the cultural dynamics existing between countries prior to being appointed strengthens the educational leader by strategically positioning them in a proactive place to manage and navigate any cultural fluctuations or interactions occurring between home and host countries. The ability to predict and understand cultural dynamics allow educational leaders to intervene in situations to ensure international schools are on the road to success. Understanding the composition and dynamics of the school board adds value to areas of overlap that exist between host country laws and school board regulations. This area of overlap requires educational leaders to navigate and manage the necessary demands, dynamics, and interactions of both governing bodies.

International-mindedness and the ELL structure. The concept of implementing and practicing international-mindedness has implications for educational leaders both inside and outside of international schools. Public school leaders can learn from international schools' utilization and practice of international-mindedness. Because we live in a global society, the need for international-mindedness is significant in both international schools and public schools, but the priority of promoting and practicing it is distinct.

International-mindedness is prevalent in international schools because the composition of the study body forces the need to accommodate and assimilate a multitude of cultures, backgrounds, and languages into one location in a foreign country reducing culture shock within the contact zone. On the contrary, in national or public schools the majority of the student population is of host country origin. Although intracontinental diversity may be high within a public school, most of the population is familiar with the host country culture and rules. Therefore, contact zones between diverse ethnicities within a host country culture are minimal and there is less need for international-mindedness to be used to reduce culture shock.

However, school leaders in public national schools in countries such as the US that accept all children regardless of background or nationality would benefit from integrating international-mindedness. Public schools are comprised of students from multiple backgrounds because schools do not discriminate during enrollment based on nationality or socioeconomic status. For example, in the US, public schools are required to accept and enroll all children to provide free and equitable access to education. However, some students that arrive from a third country culture may not speak the mother tongue of English, but are still integrated into American classrooms. Although the US offers ELL services for foreign students in the area of language integration services, it may not be enough. Delivering language services so students can learn the instructional materials is beneficial, but culture shock may still be evident for foreign students because they are not integrated into an international setting with a population of international students. Unlike international schools housed in a foreign country, most US schools lack the necessary impetus to promote and ensure that cultural integration is fostered and applied.

At this point, it would be a disservice to say international-mindedness is irrelevant in public schools. Quite the contrary. International-mindedness is necessary in public schools to prevent national cultural isolation and narcissism in a global society. Public schools do enroll immigrant children from non-host country nations and need to take into consideration that the students are placed in a contact zone and experience culture shock. Culture shock is further exasperated by different parental and cultural educational expectations than the host country culture offered where the student was originally enrolled. Few services may be provided for ELL students in public schools to assist them in understanding the host country culture, such as the US or different national culture.

National and public educational leaders need to view the concept of international-mindedness from two different lenses constructed from an *outside-in*, and an *inside-out* perspective. Looking from the outside-in is the perspective of an immigrant or an “outsider” coming into a national public school system with an established culture unparalleled to their own. For example, a Quechua-speaking Peruvian child immigrating into the US educational system enters a contact zone facing cultural shock in a structure that does not necessarily promote international-mindedness. The child endures maximum exposure to another culture and is required to pass from grade level to grade level in this system that is more host country culture dominant than internationally-minded. On the contrary, the inside-out perspective would be the host country culture children attending a national public school with minimal exposure to immigrants or need to understand their culture to pass from grade level to grade level during the educational years. Whether the host country children and educators know the incoming immigrant’s culture or not is irrelevant in their quest to obtain a final degree. An example is a

classroom of 22 elementary US children having the one Peruvian child enrolled in their classroom.

The need for international-mindedness to promote cultural integration and educational learning for all children may be lacking in public schools. Practitioners in national schools should work toward delivering opportunities to integrate foreign students to reduce culture shock and also work to promote international-mindedness for both the privileged and underprivileged in schools. Reducing culture shock and fostering international-mindedness would break down cultural and SES barriers and provide equity in access to quality education in public schools.

SES and international-mindedness. As the divide between affluent and the impoverished grows larger, fewer and fewer educational opportunities for lower SES exist, especially internationally. Many of the children attending international or private schools in both the US and abroad tend to have more access to higher quality education with a rigorous curriculum, technology, and opportunities for travel. The benefit is that privileged children are exposed to opportunities perpetuating international elite-mindedness leaving impoverished children behind a snowballing SES divide.

Educational leaders should be commended for providing international students with cultural activities and exposures such as living in poverty situations, refugee simulations, or attending charity fundraisers and events. These opportunities provide international students the ability to learn empathy and partake in charitable events that make a difference in the lives of the less fortunate. However, these experiences are only snapshots in time of exposure to the lower SES life. Affluent students know they will be returning to their previous lifestyle. Although empathy may impact them and be ingrained for the rest of their lives, the reality is that the division is sustained because many affluent children attend international or private schools and

many impoverished host country children cannot even afford to go to a school. Privileged children continue with their lifestyle and embark on privileges that are afforded. In many cases, the feeling of empathy obtained through simulations and charitable events is not sustained and does not match the willingness or action of resolving or reducing the SES divide. Temporary life changing experiences utilized by the elite class to endorse empathy exists, but the impoverished way of life, which is a reality for most grants little to no opportunity to escape their SES lifestyle. Poor children may watch affluent children leave to go home after an event, knowing that they are returning to their more privileged lifestyle which may create feelings of jealousy and animosity. These feelings may add a further emotional divide to the already existing physical and SES division. In other words, visits from the privileged students did not provide any further access to international or private schools for the underprivileged. For privileged students it is an event, for impoverished children it is a lifestyle from which they cannot escape.

Implications for practitioners are to find ways to reduce the gap of SES international-elite-mindedness versus that of the impoverished. In other words, promote *ethical* international-mindedness. Providing scholarships, conducting long-term, sustained fundraisers by involving the affluent children, or working with the national government to find ways to incorporate the lower SES would be a start to integrating and affording an equal playing field and access to better quality education for those students that do not have those opportunities and live on the “other side of the tracks”. The point is that international-mindedness appears to be branded for the elite, not the impoverished. Even if students from a lower SES were to be offered full and equitable access to high-quality education including more availability to universities, culture shock between hierarchical SES would *still* exist between different classes, regardless of culture or nationality. Excluding the lower socioeconomic class perpetuates the economic stagnation

many countries experience when these children do not have access to education and lifelong learning. It is important for educational leaders to find sustainable ways to incorporate international-mindedness that is not just inclusive of the affluent.

Global Citizenship vs International-mindedness. Many international as well as public schools frequently use the term of global citizenship. Global citizenship is a significant way of promoting the understanding of geographical and cultural tolerance and acceptance. It is learning about different cultures and customs outside of the home country. Global citizenship however, is more of an extrinsic trait where students are afforded opportunities to experience global travel, curriculum, or conferences, but may not necessarily have internalized the concept. The concept of international-mindedness is more of an intrinsic personal factor that becomes second nature through incorporating it into daily lifestyles. Here it is important to make the distinction between providing value to students through learning about other cultures and countries through global citizenship and curriculum versus fully integrating it through living and practicing the international-mindset concept within the school.

Educational leaders need to be weary of the distinction of ensuring that these 21st century skills are fully assimilated into the schools rather than just taught by rote means and in isolation within the boundaries of four walls. Providing global citizenship curriculum exposes cultural tolerance and diversity, but lacks full sustainability without a connection to intrinsic international-mindedness. Ways in which educational leaders can incorporate international-mindedness is to examine current textbook materials to ensure diversity is incorporated, provide Skyping opportunities for students and teachers, and establish technology professional development such as combining international Geocaching activities for classrooms.

Global-mindedness and career readiness. When practitioners provide opportunities for children to experience and integrate the concepts of international-mindedness for both the privileged and underprivileged, educational leaders provide opportunities for children to be ready in a global world. Integrating international-mindedness into national and public schools promotes exposure to and experiences in understanding different nations, ethnicities, and cultures in different ways than in sitting in a history or geography class. International-mindedness is for students to view the world from a multicultural lens rather than from a unicultural lens. The benefits are that students are more open to the cultural and geographic diversity preparing them to work in a global and technological environment. International-mindedness is a springboard for global-mindedness and prepares students for global jobs that may not yet exist, especially as it technology advances exponentially and changes lifestyles.

Limitations

Despite the large number of survey and interview respondents, a few limitations exist in this study. The first two limitations are related to the sampled population. First, this research limited distribution of online surveys and interviews to NEASC accredited or affiliated schools. The limit here is that not all international schools world-wide were given the opportunity to participate. The purpose of limiting the sample size was to access a population with a common foundation related to credentials and qualifications. This did limit the research by narrowing access to all other international schools housed in different countries and regions. In addition, some responses were from the same school or country. For example, multiple educators from one international school may have contributed to the survey, or educators from different international schools in one country responded, potentially skewing some online data results. In spite of this, limiting the research to NEASC accredited or affiliated schools allowed the researcher to focus

on common expectations required by NEASC, such as establishing a baseline for standards accepted.

Second, only educators that were administrators or teachers conducted the survey or were interviewed. Therefore, support staff, parents, students, or host country public school teachers were not privy to taking the online survey or being interviewed. Therefore, information collected was strictly from the perspective of an international educator. However, by only collecting data from international administrators and teachers, the scope and feasibility of the research was manageable and focused.

Third, limitations that existed were related to the actual survey and interviews. Some participants that completed the survey may have had some hesitation in answering honestly because of unforeseen circumstances in which they may have thought the employer could track the answers. This is highly unlikely because all participants were informed of confidentiality and anonymity prior to taking the survey.

In terms of interviews, a small number of interviews were conducted relative to the number of participants that completed the survey. Therefore, the findings may not be fully representative of all the educators in one school, country, or region. For example, educators in a school housed in a small town in Lebanon may have separate perceptions of successes and challenges than an educator in another school in the same country but in a geographically different location that has high terrorist threats. In addition, interviewees were informed that they were being recorded and therefore may have been careful in the type or amount of information provided. In other words, interviewees may have been more inclined to share information off the record.

Fourth, the year the international school was established was not identified. For example, some established schools may not have the same issues or challenges as a new international school that opened within five years. The more established schools resolve issues by pulling historical experiences as well as trials and errors, whereas newer schools may still be struggling with issues such as finances that are no longer a concern to well-established schools.

Last, the population of the clientele attending international schools was not specifically addressed. Students with parents that are politicians or embassy workers may go to different international schools than students whose parents are working in private industry, such as oil and gas companies. Therefore, the background of the clientele of one school in a particular country may be different in another school in the same country.

In summary, each international school, country, and region endures unique experiences, successes, and challenges. This study provided insight into findings related to successes found in international schools, or challenges that international schools struggle with on a regular basis. In addition, this research promoted a greater understanding of how intrinsic (gender, religion, SES) and extrinsic (types of government, policies, finances) factors contributed to the challenges related to strategies used to manage, lead, and navigate AIS and IS. This study encouraged a greater understanding of intra- or intercontinental similarities and differences related to enhancements and issues experienced by AIS and IS to be utilized by international schools as successful guidelines or strategies.

Further Research

This research attempted to identify successes and challenges faced by international schools abroad. Despite the amount of data collected, areas for further research are still required.

This study could have expanded or provided further investigation to include the type of population sampled and additional international school demographic information.

It would be interesting to acquire the perceptions of host country public school educators to obtain their perspective on teaching style, students, and parents. Obtaining host country teachers' perspectives would be a useful comparison and enhance the results of this study. In addition, surveying and interviewing parents and students would also provide insight into their perceptions of how the children learn in international schools. Interviewing officials from the ministries of education would also be beneficial to understand their perspective as to why host country children have restrictions attending international schools. In addition, reasons for regulating the type of national curriculum to be used at international schools would be of interest. This perspective may provide insight into historical components and national identities (Grimshaw & Sears, 2008; Sears, 2011).

Another factor that may have enriched this research would be to compare multiple international schools within one country to look for areas of consistency or inconsistency. Do all international schools within one country adhere to the government regulations related to teaching language and social sciences? In addition, how would cultural identity be influenced if more host country students attended international schools? Further, examining a newly established international school compared to one with a long history would provide an interesting comparison within or between countries.

Final Reflections

The purpose of this study was to understand and examine the dynamics and issues of relationships between international schools and host country cultures as perceived by educators, whether administrators or teachers. This research examined how host country culture impacted

and influenced the capacity of educators to manage, lead, and navigate the cultures in the school. This investigation is significant because it provides both US and international educational policymakers, ministries of education, Head of Schools overseas, administrators, teachers, school board members, and US or other nations' Department of Education Overseas Schools important comprehension regarding the issues of managing, leading, and navigating international schools. The significance of this study was to promote a greater understanding of how intrinsic (gender, religion, socioeconomic status) and extrinsic (types of government, policies, finances) factors contributed to the enhancement, issues, or challenges related to strategies used to manage, lead, and navigate international schools. In addition, this study promoted a better awareness of intra- or intercontinental similarities and differences related to enhancements and issues experienced by international schools.

I felt I accomplished both the purpose and significance of this study as it related to the findings for international schools. Based on personal experiences and the literature review, I thought it was a comprehensive study. However, during the Mixed Methods Sequential Exploratory Design research process I uncovered more information than I initially sought out to reveal, which added to the value of the study. Originally, based on my personal experience and integrating articles I expected to see more evidence of culture shock and less tolerance for social justice issues such as race, gender, religion, and ethnicity. However, this was not the case in the results of this study, which produces further value of the findings. International schools are a hub for integrating various cultures, demonstrating tolerance for diversity, and promoting equality. International schools provide an environment that is conducive to cultural acceptance and integration.

However, I was intrigued by numerous unexpected findings. These unforeseen findings included international-mindedness, diplomatic issues, and a ‘one size does not fit all’ ingredient for finding similarities between international schools when trying to integrate host country cultures. International-mindedness is well-established in many international schools. I was surprised to find, however, that international-mindedness is really *international elite-mindedness* inclusive of affluence or upper-class communities at the expense of the exclusion of the poor. Despite that, international-mindedness is significant in that it breaks down walls and barriers between cultures, race, gender, and ethnicity. Nonetheless, international-mindedness predominantly excludes those of the lower socioeconomic status, which perpetuates the inaccessibility to quality or higher education putting limits on the international-mindedness term.

Integrating different hierarchical classes in nations appears to contradict what was found in the literature showing that the development in the educational system is in line with economic growth initiatives. I believe that for many, education is the ticket out of poverty. However, governments that do not allow or support access to higher quality of education to the underprivileged deny their citizens that ability to improve personal and country economic growth. It appeared that national or religious requirements rather than the need for personal or national growth override the reasons for poor students to access a higher quality of education provided by private or international schools. In addition, if economic growth is a driving factor in education, public or national schools should be re-evaluated in order to level the playing field.

I was also surprised to find the impact of diplomatic relationships on international schools. International schools have policies and protocols used to hire educators, which can change instantaneously based on diplomatic relationships between countries. In addition,

international schools do not necessarily adapt or adopt teaching styles found in host country cultures creating unacknowledged integration tactics between the school and the community.

I expected to find common evidence among schools as it related to how they integrate host country culture and also manage their schools. International schools are not a 'one-size-fits-all', but are rather the schools are uniquely independent and autonomous. Like many public schools seen within the US, international schools must navigate day to day demands. However international schools are more complex in that the elements of the host country culture is added and needs to be maneuvered. The commonality exists in that the educators are extremely flexible and open to different dynamics which came through during interviews.

This research helps the profession because of the key findings. Not all international schools across the globe can be judged like a book by its cover. Just because international schools hold that title, every international school is unique and delivers a different perspective just like every book contains different elements. This study has shared issues and resolutions provided by various international schools of the multitude of situations. For example, suggestions regarding how to handle parental expectations related to the schools was offered. But the most significant finding that helps this profession is the need to incorporate an *ethical international-mindset* to include the lower socioeconomic status. Policy conversations need to be had between governments and international school boards. Lifelong learning is seen in many countries, particularly in eastern Asia, Australia, and the US, but that needs to be extended into more socioeconomically deprived world countries. Socioeconomic status is a chronic global issue that needs to be addressed.

Most importantly, this research illuminates models used to successfully integrate cultures, races, religions, and ethnicities. The study showed examples of where and how culture shock is

reduced in these international schools which can be mimicked and utilized worldwide. In addition, concepts for successful integration of ethical international-mindedness to include lower socioeconomic status needs to be acknowledged.

Many educational institutions provide global studies to assist in breaking down cultural obstacles. Global studies provide a glimpse into other cultures using textbooks and articles along with short bursts of targeted experiences. Global studies offers a glimpse of globalization and international-mindedness along with ‘a-ha’ moments. Examples include attending weeklong poverty and refugee simulations, or visits to different countries. However, the reality is that after these short bursts of targeted experiences students and educators go back to their current lifestyle, in their comfort zone. Only a small percentage actually effectively look to make change particularly in cultural tolerance and socioeconomic assimilation. Opportunities are needed to develop action plans to address actual cultural integration rather than book learning about different cultures.

My research provided me with a tremendous opportunity for growth. Conversations with interviewees validated information I have seen when visiting both international schools and public schools in host countries. In addition, it was eye-opening and refreshing to hear that race, religion, gender, and culture is generally not an issue at international schools, offering a reprieve from political clashes and fake news snowballing in the US with a distorted view of the world. Having visited international and public schools abroad, I have witnessed the poorest of the poor and the richest of the rich and often wonder what prevents the barriers from breaking down. There seems to be constant talk about providing equal access to high quality education to the underprivileged, but rarely do the actions match the words. However, I want to be cautious that although international schools promote social justice and tend to be open and tolerant, not all

host countries mimic what is practiced in international schools and still adhere and practice cultural intolerance.

As my research progressed, I grew as a writer during the dissertation process by providing more scholarly input and unbiased perspectives. My position as a scholar was enhanced. Every person has a story to tell based on their own personal experiences, which I attempted to capture and honor since international research can be very broad and overwhelming. I wanted every interviewee to have a voice because they are the educators in the trenches of the global world providing unique experiences. I was so fascinated and absorbed by the contents of my study that I had forgotten how much I really enjoy research from the days I was a biologist. I have a strong, renewed passion to do research, particularly educational research, and would like to continue down this avenue. I was highly intrinsically motivated during the whole research process and feel inspired to continue exploring and conducting educational research with the hopes to provide continued ways to break down cultural and SES barriers and promote social justice.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Letter requesting participation and consent

Hello,

I am a doctorate student at Lesley University in Boston (as well as an administrator in a school) and need for administrators and teachers at International Schools (IS) from different countries to take my **10-minute survey (on computer or your mobile phone)** to examine how host country cultures impact IS. I became interested in this study because I participate in many NEASC trips and am looking at the impact of culture on IS educators. This study benefits you because it may provide information utilized by IS that may offer successful guidelines or strategies used in other IS once the study is complete.

All information and responses are strictly **anonymous and confidential**. I would appreciate any administrator and teacher volunteers to take the 10-minute survey on your computer or mobile phone. **After you take the survey, could you please forward this survey to any faculty** in your school to take on their computer or phone (teachers and administrators).

Thank you in advance for your help. The survey will be open for only a couple of weeks. More information about the research is below. If you have any questions, feel free to email me.

https://lesley.co1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_8rjqOOjygyV5STP

Thank you,

Shari Fedorowicz
sfedorow@lesley.edu or shari.fedorowicz@gmail.com

** This research study has been approved by Lesley University's Institutional Review Board (IRB Number: 16/17-001)*

Please read more below on the research study.

Impact of Host Cultures on International Schools

CONSENT FOR VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION FOR ONLINE SURVEY

Your opinion related to your experiences at International Schools (IS) is wanted. You are invited to participate in a questionnaire about your perception regarding how the relationship between home and host cultural dynamics effects your school.

Research Question: The problem of this study addresses similarities and differences in cultures and the impact to IS educators in their capacity to manage, lead, and navigate cultural aspects to provide a successful school and a quality education.

Purpose of the Study: This study examines the dynamics and challenges of relationships between IS and host country cultures as perceived by educators and how these impacts influence the capacity of educators to manage, lead, and navigate the cultures into the school.

Benefits to Participants:

- To explain how nationality, gender, religion, and country laws contribute to the challenges related to strategies used to manage, lead, and navigate IS.
- To explain intra- or intercontinental cultural issues experienced by IS.
- To provide information from IS that may offer successful guidelines or strategies useful for other IS.

I volunteer to participate in this study and understand that:

1. I understand that this research study has been reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) for Studies Involving Human Subjects at Lesley University in Boston, Massachusetts, U.S.A.
2. My participation in this project is voluntary and I will not be paid for my participation.
3. I will participate in a 10 minute online survey.
4. Filling out the survey is considered providing consent and exiting the survey at any time is your right without consequence.

Confidentiality and Privacy

1. After I complete the online survey, I may be invited to work with the researcher in a 20 minute follow-up interview via Skype or phone and therefore my personal information collected on the survey (name, email, phone number) will only be used by the researcher for her to contact me. Providing a name, email, and/or phone number renders your survey non-anonymous but all information remains confidential with the researcher.
2. My name, school, or personal identity will not be used in any way or at any time.
3. I may withdraw from part or all of this study at any time.
4. I understand that data collected and results from this survey may be included in Sharlene Fedorowicz's doctoral dissertation and may also be included in manuscripts submitted to professional journals or other professional publications.
5. I am free to participate or not to participate without prejudice.
6. I understand that the researcher will ask for written consent from me if my school is to be used as an example in any publication.

If you have questions or comments regarding this study, please feel free to contact Sharlene Fedorowicz, doctoral student at Lesley University in Cambridge, MA, USA. I will be happy to share and discuss the results at the end of the study by request.

Phone number is 508-878-5399 and email address is shari.fedorowicz@gmail.com or sfedorow@lesley.edu.

You may also contact Sharlene Fedorowicz's Dissertation Advisor, Sal Terrasi at Lesley University, at 508 894-4266 or sterrasi@lesley.edu

There is a Standing Committee for Human Subjects in Research at Lesley University to which complaints or problems concerning this research project may, and should, be reported if they arise. Contact the Lesley Committee Co-Chairs Drs. Terry Keeney or Robyn Cruz (irb@lesley.edu) at Lesley University, [29 Everett Street, Cambridge Massachusetts, 02138](#).

Appendix B: Letter requesting follow-up interview and consent

Hello

Thank you for taking the time to respond to my survey on the Impact of Host Cultures on International Schools. You provided your contact information to volunteer to be interviewed. I found your comments very interesting and would like to take about 20 minutes to follow-up on a Skype interview (I will need your Skype information).

I have attached the interview questions based upon survey feedback that I want to know more about. Filling out the questionnaire is optional, but if you would like to fill it out and then I can add information as we talk or discuss other items, that would be great as well.

I really appreciate you taking the time to work with me. Please read, sign, scan and email back to me the Letter of Consent before the interview (I'm not permitted to interview without it) basically saying everything is confidential and remains anonymous. I also will be recording the interview so that I can transcribe it later so I don't miss any information. That too is confidential and anonymous.

I plan to interview between Friday, January 6 through Wednesday, January 11 to meet my deadline. Based upon the differences between our time zones, I am 13 hours behind you (Massachusetts, US on EST). Are you available on any one of the following dates and times:

Open Dates:

Friday, January 6 – Wednesday, January 11

Open Times:

Anytime between: 7:00 PM - 9:00 PM

Anytime between: 6:00 AM - 11:00 AM

Thank you!

Shari Fedorowicz

shari.fedorowicz@gmail.com or sfedorow@lesley.edu

Impact of Host Cultures on International Schools

CONSENT FOR VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION FOR INTERVIEWS

Your opinion related to your experiences at American International Schools (AIS) or International Schools (IS) is wanted. You are invited to participate in an interview about your perception regarding how the relationship between home and host cultural dynamics effects your school.

Research Question: The problem of this study addresses the similarities and differences in cultures and the impact to International School educators in their capacity to manage, lead, and navigate cultural aspects to provide a successful school and a quality education.

Purpose of the Study: This study examines the dynamics and challenges of relationships between AIS or IS and host country cultures as perceived by educators and how these impacts influence the capacity of educators to manage, lead, and navigate the cultures into the school.

Benefits to Participants:

- To explain how nationality, gender, religion, and country laws contribute to the challenges related to strategies used to manage, lead, and navigate AIS or IS.
- To explain intra- or intercontinental cultural issues experienced by AIS or IS.
- To provide information from AIS or IS that may offer successful guidelines or strategies useful for other AIS or IS.

I volunteer to participate in this study and understand that:

5. I understand that this research study has been reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) for Studies Involving Human Subjects at Lesley University in Boston, Massachusetts, U.S.A.
6. My participation in this project is voluntary and I understand that I will not be paid for my participation. I may withdraw and discontinue participation at any time without consequence.
7. I will participate in an approximately 20 minute interview via Skype or phone.

Confidentiality and Privacy

7. The interview portion may be recorded to facilitate analysis of the data. Interview information, documents, and data will be stored in a password protected laptop in my secure office location.
8. My name, school, or personal identity will not be used in any way or at any time.
9. I may withdraw from part or all of this study at any time.
10. I understand that data collected and results from this survey may be included in Sharlene Fedorowicz's doctoral dissertation and may also be included in manuscripts submitted to professional journals or other professional publications.
11. I am free to participate or not to participate without prejudice.
12. I understand that the researcher will ask for written consent from me if my school is to be used as an example in any publication.

If you have questions or comments regarding this study, please feel free to contact Sharlene Fedorowicz, doctoral student at Lesley University in Cambridge, MA, USA. I will be happy to share and discuss the results at the end of the study by request. Phone number is 508-878-5399 and email address is shari.fedorowicz@gmail.com or sfedorow@lesley.edu.

You may also contact Sharlene Fedorowicz's Dissertation Advisor, Sal Terrasi at Lesley

University, at 508 894-4266 or sterrasi@lesley.edu

There is a Standing Committee for Human Subjects in Research at Lesley University to which complaints or problems concerning this research project may, and should, be reported if they arise. Contact the Lesley Committee Co-Chairs Drs. Terry Keeney or Robyn Cruz (irb@lesley.edu) at Lesley University, 29 Everett Street, Cambridge Massachusetts, 02138.

Once you have completely read and understand this Letter of Consent, please sign, scan, and return this form via email to sfedorow@lesley.edu along with a suggested interview time that works with your schedule.

Print Name

Sign Name

Today's Date: _____

Skype Contact Information: _____

Appendix C: Pilot and instruments used for collecting dataPILOT:

Hello _____

We worked together on a NEASC visit to _____ in _____. I hope everything is going well and you have been able to work on other NEASC trips!

I'm getting back in touch with you because I could use some help gathering information. I am working on my doctorate and am very interested in collecting data on international schools but need to see if what I want to do is manageable. If you had a few minutes I would really appreciate it if you could answer the questions below within the next couple of days.

1. How do you compare yourselves to other schools/countries in terms of student performance and achievement? For example, what benchmarks do you use...TIMSS, PISA, PIRLS, SAT, OECD acknowledged tests, OTHER...if any?
2. Do you compare yourself against other American International Schools, other NEASC accredited schools, local schools, different countries, or other?
3. Without using names or identifying students (confidentiality), does your school keep general information on where students arrive from, longevity of locations of countries/schools, and where they move to when they leave your school?
 - a. Do you have general international benchmark scores for all of your previous and current students?
4. Are there other burning questions related to international schools that school leaders and teachers want to know more about that is lacking in current research?
5. Are there any other resources you could direct me to?

I really appreciate your time!

Thank you!

QUANTITATIVE DIGITAL SURVEY:

HOST COUNTRY CULTURE IMPACTS IN INTERNATIONAL SCHOOLS Oct 21 final

Q1 Directions: Please answer the following questions in the 10 minute survey to the best of your ability based upon your opinions and perceptions of working at an International School. This survey is about your opinion and perception only so there are no right or wrong answers. Information can only be seen by the researcher and therefore all answers will be kept confidential. Providing your email address is optional, but not necessary to take the survey, in the event you are open and available to a 20 minute follow-up interview. Some questions are open ended, but most are checking answers on a Likert Scale. Thank you for participating.

Q2 (Optional Question). You may be invited to work with the researcher in a 20 minute follow-up interview via Skype or phone. Please provide your name and email address if you are willing to participate.

Q3 Which of the following best describes your gender identity?

- Male (1)
- Female (2)
- Transgender (3)
- Other (please explain) (4) _____

Q4 My position in the school best fits the role of:

- Administrator (1)
- Teacher (2)
- Other (please explain) (3) _____

Q5 What is the name of your school? (optional)

Q6 Is your international school considered an "American" International School?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)
- Other (please explain): (3) _____

Q7 In what host country do you work?

Q8 What term best describes the host country's governance?

- democratic (1)
- communist (2)
- socialist (3)
- monarchy (4)
- Other (please explain) (6) _____

Q9a For the next three questions, select the top three most common religious orientations that are practiced in the host country in which you work. Only one response is needed per row. Most predominant religious orientation in the host country:

- Buddhism (1)
- Christianity (2)
- Confucianism (3)
- Hinduism (4)
- Islam (5)
- Judaism (6)
- Indigenous (7)
- Other (please explain) (8) _____
- None or N/A (9)

Q9b 2nd most predominant religious orientation in the host country:

- Buddhism (1)
- Christianity (2)
- Confucianism (3)
- Hinduism (4)
- Islam (5)
- Judaism (6)
- Indigenous (7)
- Other (please explain) (8) _____
- None or N/A (9)

Q9c 3rd most predominant religious orientation in the host country:

- Buddhism (1)
- Christianity (2)
- Confucianism (3)
- Hinduism (4)
- Islam (5)
- Judaism (6)
- Indigenous (7)
- Other (8) _____
- None or N/A (9)

Q10a For the next three questions, select the top three most common religious orientations that are practiced in your school in which you work. Only one response is needed per row. Most predominant religious orientation in your school:

- Buddhism (1)
- Christianity (2)
- Confucianism (3)
- Hinduism (4)
- Islam (5)
- Judaism (6)
- Indigenous (7)
- Other (please explain) (8) _____
- None or N/A (9)

Q10b 2nd most predominant religious orientation in your school:

- Buddhism (1)
- Christianity (2)
- Confucianism (3)
- Hinduism (4)
- Islam (5)
- Judaism (6)
- Indigenous (7)
- Other (8) _____
- None or N/A (9)

Q10c 3rd most predominant religious orientation in your school:

- Buddhism (1)
- Christianity (2)
- Confucianism (3)
- Hinduism (4)
- Islam (5)
- Judaism (6)
- Indigenous (7)
- Other (8) _____
- None or N/A (9)

Q11a The next three questions ask about the different cultural backgrounds of the student population. Please select only one answer for each row.

	The US (1)	The Host Country (2)	A Different Country (3)
The school population is largely comprised of students from: (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q11b .

	The US (1)	The Host Country (2)	A Different Country (3)
The second largest student population is from: (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q11c .

	The US (1)	The Host Country (2)	A Different Country (3)
The third largest student population is from: (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q11d If you selected "A Different Country" in the question above, please list the country or countries below:

Q12a The next three questions refer to the socioeconomic status of the student population. Please select only one answer for each row.

	Affluent (Wealthy) (1)	Upper Middle Class (2)	Middle Class (3)	Lower Middle Class (4)	Poor (5)
The school population is largely comprised of students with a socioeconomic background best described as: (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q12b .

	Affluent (Wealthy) (1)	Upper Middle Class (2)	Middle Class (3)	Lower Middle Class (4)	Poor (5)
The second largest student population is largely comprised of students with a socioeconomic background best described as: (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q12c .

	Affluent (Wealthy) (1)	Upper Middle Class (2)	Middle Class (3)	Lower Middle Class (4)	Poor (5)
The third largest student population is largely comprised of students with a socioeconomic background best described as: (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q12d Please provide any additional information related to the socioeconomic status of the student population:

Q13a Read each statement and choose the response that best represents your selection based upon your own perception and opinions about the school in which you work. Select only one

answer that BEST describes what you think. (Strongly Agree = you strongly agree with the statement, Strongly Disagree = you strongly disagree with the statement).

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (3)	Strongly disagree (4)
The host country culture is similar to US culture. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q13b .

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (3)	Strongly disagree (4)
Cultures clash in this country. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q13c .

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (3)	Strongly disagree (4)
People with different religious orientations clash in this country. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q13d .

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (3)	Strongly disagree (4)
Genders are treated the same in this host country. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q13e .

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (3)	Strongly disagree (4)
Polygamy is practiced in this host country. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q13f .

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (3)	Strongly disagree (4)
The host country law is similar to US law. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q13g .

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (3)	Strongly disagree (4)
The host country culture is assimilated regularly into school practices and events. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q13h .

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (3)	Strongly disagree (4)
The school takes host country's holidays off. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q13i .

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (3)	Strongly disagree (4)
The school takes host country's religious observations off. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q13j .

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (3)	Strongly disagree (4)
It is the school's responsibility to maintain host country culture identification. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q13k .

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (3)	Strongly disagree (4)
Taboo topics related to host country society are easily discussed within the school. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q13l .

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (3)	Strongly disagree (4)
Teachers adapt their teaching style to match the host country culture. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q13m .

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (3)	Strongly disagree (4)
The school is open to ideals and practices that are conducive to expression and autonomy of the individual. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q13n .

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (3)	Strongly disagree (4)
The composition of the faculty represents the US, host culture, and third culture mix. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q13o .

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (3)	Strongly disagree (4)
The religion of the host country culture influences how the school operates. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q13p .

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (3)	Strongly disagree (4)
Host country educational customs that are different than in the US need to be adhered to. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q13q Please provide any additional information related to host country culture influences, impacts, or challenges you have noticed:

Q14 What type of board do you have at your school?

- Appointed (1)
- Elected (2)
- Both Appointed and Elected (3)
- Other (please explain) (4) _____

Q15a The next three questions ask about the composition of the School Board. Please select only one answer for each statement.

	US Parents (1)	Host Culture Parents (2)	Third Culture Parents (different culture than US or host country) (3)	Community Members that are not parents of children in the school (4)	Other (5)
The School Board is largely comprised of members best described as: (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q15b .

	US Parents (1)	Host Culture Parents (2)	Third Culture Parents (different culture than US or host country) (3)	Community Members that are not parents of children in the school (4)	Other (5)
The second largest group that makes up the School Board is best described as: (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q15c .

	US Parents (1)	Host Culture Parents (2)	Third Culture Parents (different culture than US or host country) (3)	Community Members that are not parents of children in the school (4)	Other (5)
The third largest group that makes up the School Board is best described as: (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q15d If you selected "other", please describe the composition of the school board:

Q16a In the next part, read each statement and choose the response that best represents your selection based upon your own perception and opinions of the school in which you work. Select

only one answer that BEST describes what you think. (Strongly Agree = you strongly agree with the statement, Strongly Disagree = you strongly disagree with the statement).

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (4)	Strongly disagree (5)
The School Board annually reviews policy to ensure that the host country cultural needs are met. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q16b .

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (4)	Strongly disagree (5)
The School Board communicates frequently with educators in the school to discuss policies, finances, and laws. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q16c .

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (4)	Strongly disagree (5)
The School Board communicates frequently with the school community to discuss policies, finances, and laws. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q16d Please provide any additional information related to the school board that you would like the researcher should know:

Q17a The next three questions ask about the composition of the Administrative Team in your school. Please select only one answer for each statement.

	US Educators (1)	Host Culture Educators (2)	Third Culture Educators (different culture than US or host country) (3)	Other (4)
The Administration is largely comprised of members best described as: (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q17b .

	US Educators (1)	Host Culture Educators (2)	Third Culture Educators (different culture than US or host country) (3)	Other (4)
The second largest culture that makes up the Administration is best described as: (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q17c .

	US Educators (1)	Host Culture Educators (2)	Third Culture Educators (different culture than US or host country) (3)	Other (4)
The third largest culture that makes up the Administration is best described as: (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q17d If you selected "other", please describe the composition of Administration:

Q17e Please provide any additional information related to Administration that you would like the researcher should know:

Q18a The next three questions ask about the composition of the teachers in your school. Please select only one answer for each statement.

	US Educators (1)	Host Culture Educators (2)	Third Culture Educators (different culture than US or host country) (3)	Other (4)
Teachers are largely comprised of members best described as: (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q18b .

	US Educators (1)	Host Culture Educators (2)	Third Culture Educators (different culture than US or host country) (3)	Other (4)
The second largest culture that makes up the teachers is best described as: (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q18c .

	US Educators (1)	Host Culture Educators (2)	Third Culture Educators (different culture than US or host country) (3)	Other (4)
The third largest culture that makes up the teachers is best described as: (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q18d If you selected "other", please describe the composition of Teachers:

Q18e Please provide any additional information related to Teachers that you would like the researcher should know:

Q19a Read each statement and choose the response that best represents your selection based upon your own perception and opinions in the school in which you work. Select only one answer that BEST describes what you think. (Strongly Agree = you strongly agree with the statement, Strongly Disagree = you strongly disagree with the statement).

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (4)	Strongly disagree (5)
The host country's laws influences how school leaders manage and operate the school. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q19b .

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (4)	Strongly disagree (5)
The school leaders collaborate with teachers to establish clear understanding of the host culture influence in the school. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q19c .

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (4)	Strongly disagree (5)
School leaders work with teachers to assimilate host country culture into school pedagogy and events. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q19d .

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (4)	Strongly disagree (5)
School leaders clearly communicate the vision and goals of the school to teachers. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q19e Please provide any additional information that you would like the researcher should know:

Q20a Read each statement and choose the response that best represents your selection based upon your own perception and opinions of the school in which you work. Select only one answer that BEST describes what you think. (Strongly Agree = you strongly agree with the statement, Strongly Disagree = you strongly disagree with the statement).

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (4)	Strongly disagree (5)
Practices are in place at your school to assist new educators in adjusting to an international setting. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q20b .

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (4)	Strongly disagree (5)
Educators in this school like each other. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q20c .

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (4)	Strongly disagree (5)
Educators express pride in their school. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q20d .

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (4)	Strongly disagree (5)
Transient rate is high among educators in my school. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q20e .

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (4)	Strongly disagree (5)
The school has a good reputation within the host country community. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q20f .

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (4)	Strongly disagree (5)
The school and community frequently conduct events together. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q20g Please provide any additional information that you would like the researcher should know related to community relations:

Q21 Who decides which curricula is chosen for the school?

- School Board (1)
- Parents (2)
- School Administrators (3)
- Teachers (4)
- Community (5)
- Other (please explain) (6) _____

Q22 Please provide any additional information that you would like the researcher should know about school climate:

Q23 The following standards are used in the school (check all that apply):

- US Common Core State Standards (1)
- UK Standards (2)
- IB (International Baccalaureate) (3)
- Other (Please describe): (4) _____

Q24 What international benchmark test(s) do you use to assess student achievement and performance? (Please select all that apply)

- TIMSS (1)
- PISA (2)
- PIRLS (3)
- SAT (4)
- ISA (5)
- IGCSE (6)
- Other (please add) (7) _____
- None (8)

Q25 What national benchmark test(s) do you use to assess student achievement and performance? (If applicable)

Q26a Read each statement and choose the response that best represents your selection based upon your own perception and opinions of the school in which you work. Select only one answer that BEST describes what you think. (Strongly Agree = you strongly agree with the statement, Strongly Disagree = you strongly disagree with the statement).

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (4)	Strongly disagree (5)
Educators are provided professional development to understand how to integrate the host country culture into the curriculum and instruction. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q26b .

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (4)	Strongly disagree (5)
Host country culture is reflected in the school's curriculum. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q26c .

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (4)	Strongly disagree (5)
The school offers specific courses to students related to the culture of the host country. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q26d .

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (4)	Strongly disagree (5)
Intercultural literacy, i.e., the competency that allows for effective cross-cultural engagement, is central to the school's culture. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q26e .

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (4)	Strongly disagree (5)
Special needs support is available for students with learning differences. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q26f Please provide any additional information that you would like the researcher should know about curriculum and instruction:

Q27 From your perception, how does the host country’s culture contribute to the success of your school?

Q28 From your perception, how does the host country’s culture contribute to the challenges of creating a successful school?

Q29 Additional comments you would like to share:

QUALITATIVE INTERVIEW QUESTIONS:

1. What are the specific reasons expatriate families chose to have their children attend AIS or IS while abroad besides consistency in standards and curriculum? (example: Western values, national ideologies, other, etc.?)
2. How does the school support host country students that want to attend the AIS or IS? (example: any limits to the number of host country students that can attend, financial constraints, etc.)
3. What reasons would a host country's national standards and curriculum be more highly valued by the government than an international curriculum (ex., IB)?
4. Explain how teaching styles are different between host country teachers and overseas teachers.
 - a. How do international teachers make the connection with host country students?
 - b. Is Professional development provided for new hires related to host country culture?
 - c. What are the successes and challenges related to teaching styles?
5. Rich cultural differences exist between parents and schools. Define and explain the role of parents and challenges regarding their expectations in your school.
6. What is *international mindset* mean to you?
 - d. Does your school create an international mindset, if so how?
7. Provide specific examples of how host country culture is integrated into your school.
 - e. How does it add to success and challenges?

Appendix D: Quantitative Survey Aligned to Guiding Research Questions

Intro: Demographics

Perception Questions by Section:

- A. Cultural Dynamics
- B. School Board
- C. School Leadership
- D. School and Community Climate
- E. Curriculum and Instruction

Intro: Demographic Questions on Survey

Section on Survey	Category	Survey Q#	Survey Question	
Section a	Demographic/Background Information	2	Contact Information	demographic
Section a	Demographic/Background Information	3	Gender	demographic
Section a	Demographic/Background Information	4	Position: Admin or Teacher	demographic
Section a	Demographic/Background Information	5	School Name	demographic
Section a	Demographic/Background Information	6	AIS or IS or Other?	demographic
Section a	Demographic/Background Information	7	Host Country	demographic
Section a	Demographic/Background Information	8	Type of Governance	demographic
Section a	Demographic/Background Information	9a	1st Country Religious Orientation	demographic
Section a	Demographic/Background Information	9b	2nd Country Religious Orientation	demographic
Section a	Demographic/Background Information	9c	3rd Country Religious Orientation	demographic
Section a	Demographic/Background Information	10a	1st Religious Orientation in School	demographic
Section a	Demographic/Background Information	10b	2nd Religious Orientation in School	demographic
Section a	Demographic/Background Information	10c	3rd Religious Orientation in School	demographic
Section a	Demographic/Background Information	11a	1st Student Cultural Background	demographic
Section a	Demographic/Background Information	11b	2nd Student Cultural Background	demographic

Section a	Demographic/Background Information	11c	3rd Student Cultural Background	demographic
Section a	Demographic/Background Information	12a	1st Student SES	demographic
Section a	Demographic/Background Information	12b	2nd Student SES	demographic
Section a	Demographic/Background Information	12c	3rd Student SES	demographic
Section 2a	Cultural Dynamics	13n	Faculty composition	demographic
Section 2b	School Board	14	Type of School Board	demographic
Section 2b	School Board	15a	1st composition of School Board	demographic
Section 2b	School Board	15b	2nd composition of School Board	demographic
Section 2b	School Board	15c	3rd composition of School Board	demographic
Section 2b	School Board	15d	Other (SB composition)	demographic
Section 2c	School Leadership	17a	1st composition of Administrator	demographic
Section 2c	School Leadership	17b	2nd composition of Administrator	demographic
Section 2c	School Leadership	17c	3rd composition of Administrator	demographic
Section 2c	School Leadership	17d	Other (Admin composition)	demographic
Section 2c	School Leadership	18a	1st composition of Teacher	demographic
Section 2c	School Leadership	18b	2nd composition of Teacher	demographic
Section 2c	School Leadership	18c	3rd composition of Teacher	demographic
Section 2c	School Leadership	18d	Other (teacher composition)	demographic
Section 2d	School and Community Climate	20d	Transient Rate	demographic
Section 2e	Curriculum	21	Who chooses curriculum?	demographic
Section 2e	Curriculum	23	Standards used	demographic
Section 2e	Curriculum	24	International benchmark tests used	demographic
Section 2e	Curriculum	25	National benchmark tests used	demographic

A. Section 2a: Cultural Dynamic Questions

Survey Q#	Survey Question	Alignment to Research Q			Alignment to Aspect Question										
		GQ 1	GQ 2	GQ 3	A 1	A 2	A 3	A 4	A 5	A 6	A 7	A 8	A 9	A 10	A 11
13a	HCC Similar to US	1			1										
13b	Cultures clash	1			1	1			1						
13c	Different religious orientations clash		2							1				1	
13d	Genders are treated the same		2							1			1	1	
13e	Polygamy is practiced		2							1				1	
13f	HCC has similar law to US		2		1				1	1					
13g	HCC is assimilated into school practices			3	1			1							
13h	Schools take HCC holidays off	1		3				1	1					1	
13i	Schools take HCC religious observances off	1	2	3					1					1	
13j	Schools maintain HCC identity	1		3		1		1	1					1	
13k	Taboo topic discussed easily at school	1		3				1						1	
13l	Teachers adapt teaching style to HCC	1		3		1		1	1						
13m	Students have freedom of expression and autonomy			3		1		1							
13n	Faculty composition							1							1
13o	HCC religion influences school's operations	1	2	3				1	1					1	
13p	HCC educational norms need to be adhered to		2	3		1		1	1						

C: Section 2c: School Leadership Questions

Survey Q#	Survey Question	Alignment to Research Question			Alignment to Aspect Question										
		GQ 1	GQ 2	GQ 3	A 1	A 2	A 3	A 4	A 5	A 6	A 7	A 8	A 9	A 10	A 11
19a	HC law influences how leaders manage schools		2	3		1	1				1				
19b	Admin collaborate with teachers on HCC influences			3				1	1		1	1			1
19c	Admin work with teachers on assimilation of HCC			3			1	1		1	1				1
19d	Admin communicated goals of school to teachers			3						1					1
19e	Other (Admin communication)			3			1	1				1			1

Appendix E: Internal Review Board (IRB) Application**Application for Review of Human Subjects Research**Date Submitted 9/7/16 (original) 9/27/16 (resubmitted)Application for: Exemption from IRB Review **Expedited Review** Full Review**Lead Researcher** *: Name, Address, Phone, E-mail

Sharlene Fedorowicz
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Faculty Supervisor* (only if student researcher): Name, Address, Phone, E-mail

Salvatore Terrasi (Project Director, Lesley Institute for Trauma Sensitivity, Adjunct Faculty for GSASS and GSOE)
 29 Everett St, Cambridge, MA 02138
 508 894-4266
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Faculty Supervisor is the official Principal Investigator under Federal Regulations*Investigator(s) status – indicate all that apply:** **Faculty** Staff **Graduate student(s)** Undergraduate**Title of the Project:**

An examination of educators' perceptions of home and host cultural dynamics in

American International Schools abroad

Proposed Project Dates:

September 2016- April 2016

Type of Project:

Faculty research **Thesis/Dissertation** Independent Study Other (please describe)

1.1 Briefly describe the purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to examine the dynamics and challenges of relationships between American International Schools and host country cultures as perceived by educators. This study will examine how these impacts influence the capacity of educators to manage, lead, and navigate the cultures in the school. By asking educators to share their perceptions and experiences in the challenges of working at an AIS in a host country, this study plans to illuminate the intrinsic and extrinsic factors that contribute to working overseas. Through this mixed methods study, country and cultural differences will provide information on what techniques and strategies AIS employ to be successful.

1.2 Provide the number of adults, and the number and ages of minors

Approximately 230 American International Schools are in existence overseas. The adults to be contacted at the American International Schools will consist of both Administrators and Teachers and therefore surveys could be taken at multiple different schools and locations. No parents or minors will be asked to take the survey or be involved in the research project. In addition, no intrusive intervention is part of this research project.

1.3 Briefly describe the project design (e.g., experimental, ethnographic, etc.):

The approach that is used for this study is a Mixed Method Sequential Explanatory Design (Creswell, 2009). The Mixed Method Sequential Explanatory Design collects data from American International Schools outside of the US ranging from a culturally diverse array of countries on different continents. The Mixed Method Sequential Explanatory Design approach will lend itself to a sufficient sample size that represents the American International School population. The purpose of a sufficient sample size is to be able to obtain enough participants to find common themes for this population.

The Mixed Method Sequential Explanatory Design will be used to collect both quantitative and qualitative data from the participants. A survey is used to collect quantitative data from participants in order to identify patterns in the data across and between countries, which is used as a comparison between the population subsets. The quantitative data collection process allows for acquiring a large quantity of data that represents the population. Through examining the results of different American International Schools, themes or patterns may emerge from the data providing an opportunity to follow-up on more detailed questions to impart more depth into the answers to the questions. The qualitative interview piece of the data collection is used as a follow-up questioning method based on survey results and themes. The qualitative process will also clarify any confusion in the quantitative data that may need an explanation. Once the qualitative data is coded and categorized, the results allow the development of questions that can be used for qualitative interviews to measure items more specifically relevant and detailed to the primary research question. Examples of patterns that may lend to additional interview questions might be cultural norms, political climates, policies, curricula,

instruction, and assessments used by schools. The subsets and patterns of issues allow the researcher to obtain additional pertinent information from the participants.

The actual schools selected are culturally non-identical countries throughout Eastern Asia, Islamic, Christian, Africa, and South America. The reasons for using such diverse locations, cultures, and religions are two-fold. First, provide a comparison across non-identical cultural schools in order to remove regional influences and similarities and look for common challenges. Second, to determine if similar issues exist for non-identical American International Schools.

1.4 Indicate whether the study involves any of the following:

- | | | |
|--|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Case Studies | <input type="checkbox"/> Experimental intervention | <input type="checkbox"/> Task performance |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Educational tests | <input type="checkbox"/> Standard psychological tests | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> <u>Survey or questionnaire</u> |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> <u>Interviews</u> | <input type="checkbox"/> Observations | <input type="checkbox"/> Analysis of existing data |

1.5 How will subjects be recruited?

Subjects will be recruited by one of two ways. First, as a member of the international NEASC team, I have access to a directory of Head of Schools (administrative leaders) emails for all of the 230 American International NEASC schools. A second way to obtain a list if getting the list from NEASC is not possible, is through the US Department of State Office of Overseas Schools, which contains a public email list containing contact information of administrators and teachers in American International Schools (AIS) overseas. Based upon the 230 AIS, I estimate a 25% return rate of administrators and teachers for the online quantitative survey. The 25% is based upon the number of returned responses of the five question pilot sample sent to AIS in the spring to determine if this study was feasible. Therefore, calculating the 25% of the 230 schools, I estimate approximately 58 administrators and 58 teacher surveys to be returned this fall. As part of the online survey, participants will be asked if they are willing to participate in follow-up qualitative interview questions to offer more information by providing their email address. The pool of participants providing an email for the qualitative interview questions will be selected based upon their answers to the quantitative survey questions that warrant further inquiry. The interview protocol will be developed based on the results of the survey. Once volunteers are selected, a Letter of Consent form will be sent to their email address for them to read, sign, and email back to the researcher (attached) indicating the researcher can then contact the participant to interview. I estimate approximately 6-8 qualitative interviews will occur based upon the willingness of administrators and teachers to participate and the actual ability to connect for an interview. The researcher will attempt to equally distribute the interviews between administrators and teachers. Criteria for further inquiry is determined by the researcher after analyzing the survey results and deciding where more information might be needed.

1.6 Do subjects risk any stress or harm by participating in this research? If so, why are they necessary. How will they be assessed? What safeguards minimize the risks? [It is not necessary to eliminate all risks, only to be clear and explicit about what the risks may be. The IRB is alert to any tendency to suggest that risks are lower than they may actually be.]

Minimal to no risk is anticipated for participants taking the survey or being interviewed during this research process as there is no intrusive intervention. A letter of consent will be included as part of the survey process providing participants the availability of opting out of taking the survey at any time. In addition, it will be made clear to the participants that no names will be used in the survey and all information will be kept confidential by the researcher. The survey will ask if participants are available for a 20 minute follow-up interview via Skype or phone if the opportunity presents itself based upon the analysis of the survey instrument.

Both the survey questions and follow-up interview questions will not consist of asking any personal information except their names for possible follow-up interview questions due to the nature of the Mixed Method Sequential Explanatory Design. For example, information or answers will not be tied to their employment, or shared with their employer. The first part of online quantitative survey itself will consist of collecting demographic data from participants. Therefore, demographic questions, such as position or role of the educator, city and country of school location, the number of years the educator has been in education, religious affiliation, gender, etc. will be asked in order to distinguish differences between educators, location, and culture for quantitative analysis and potential follow-up interview questions. The second part of the online survey will focus primarily on cultural factors perceived by educators that may impact American International Schools. For example, how they as an educator manage, lead, and navigate their school relative to being in a host country culture. The qualitative piece of the research will consist of approximately 6-10 follow-up interview questions with different educators in different schools via Skype or phone. Participants selected for interviews are based upon the data they provide for the online survey that requires more information. Participants will be made aware that during the Skype or phone interview, the conversation between the researcher and the participant may be recorded to facilitate transcription of answers and analysis of the data.

1.7 Describe the data that will be collected:

Using the Mixed Method Sequential Explanatory Design, two different types of data collection tools are used. The advantage of using both provides two sources of information. The quantitative research piece allows for the ability to obtain a large quantity of data that can then be analyzed for statistical significance. The qualitative research design piece provides the researcher an opportunity to ask in-depth questions related to the information obtained from the quantitative survey. Conducting quantitative and qualitative research can give the researcher in depth information removing false results based on lack of data.

Survey Instrument Reliability and Readability. Some questions and items within the survey instrument were adapted from and based upon research from DeLeon (2015), Douglas (2010), Fleetham (1997), Frethiem (2007), Muller (2012), and Robinson (2012) but not in the questionnaire instrument itself. The survey instrument has been reviewed by peers to remove ambiguity and provide reliability and readability of the survey. Attached to the IRB application is a working copy of the survey instrument that has been reviewed by my committee and will be translated into an electronic survey via a data collecting instrument such as Qualtrics or SurveyMonkey and therefore minor adjustments to format may occur.

Quantitative Data Collection. For the quantitative piece of the data collection, a digital survey, such as Qualtrics or SurveyMonkey, would be sent to educators via email with a link attaching the letter of consent and online survey. The survey would take approximately 20 minutes and specifically sent to teachers and administrators of American International Schools. Questions in the survey will consist of relevant demographic items that will include characteristics pertinent to my

analysis. Such items include school location, nationality of educators, number of years educators have been at the school, and the role of the educator. The remaining questions will pertain to and address the different aspects to be measured. The instrument will be constructed according to areas that are based in the research literature related to cultural dimensions. The examples of cultural dimensions are linked to the aspects of research such as intrinsic or extrinsic challenges, perceptions between male and female educators, or religious differences. Several items will be allocated for each dimension measured to ensure validity and reliability of the questions. Each question would provide a space for participants to explain why they answered the way they did.

Development of the survey questions that are specific to the issues of interest would come from literature reviews and preliminary conversations with teachers and administrators in American International Schools. All 230 American International Schools in 69 countries would be asked to participate with the anticipation that at least 25% respond with fidelity to the survey. Digital surveys will be distributed to educators electronically as the main data collection instrument. For the first part, demographic questions on the survey contain short answers, for example places where participants can write in the name of the country, or brief information. A majority of the survey, the second part, would consist of quicker answers on the Likert scale with the comment section after each question if the participant would like to contribute more information.

Questions on the survey related to the demographics of the school has the purpose of gathering information on student, teacher, and administrator background information. This background information on demographics is important because it provides a clear distinction between cultural, religious, possible political values, and issues. The questions from the second part of the survey is based upon the literature review and preliminary responses questions are developed that measure items and issues more specifically. For example, three to five questions may measure curriculum, another three to five questions may measure instruction, then assessments, then political climate, student performance, and a section for other responses. Questions on the survey related to each topic area would provide a comprehensive accumulation of information related to a focus area.

Qualitative Data Collection

The second type of data collection used in the research is in the form of qualitative information in the mixed methods design. Qualitative data collection is used to purposefully structure a set of interviews for maximum variation between countries. Questions asked lead to deeper understanding in determining what schools deal with while trying to keep the learning standards consistent. Approximately 6-10 participants would be interviewed based on data analysis from the original survey received in the quantitative study. Participants chosen and questions asked would be based upon the need to obtain more information on a subset of data. For example, if the quantitative data shows that all countries have a high rating and issues with school finance, I would want to know more information about why they selected the answer they did. In other words, determine what the reasons were behind why a participant presented certain answers and ask for an explanation. The best way to get the information would be to follow up with interview questions. Each interview should last 20 minutes.

Plan for Data Analysis of Qualitative Information

Information from the qualitative interviews would be examined for commonalities and differences by coding results. Codes to categorize information from interviews would be established prior to talking to participants with approximately five codes to keep it simple. After categorizing participant feedback using the different coded areas, subsets of information that require additional codes would be necessary. Information from interviews lend to discovering and creating more codes to address themes. Obtaining information from interviews provides an opportunity to discuss qualitative findings and get to the core of the issues that American International Schools face when educating students.

All quantitative and qualitative data collected by the researcher (me) would be kept

confidential and not be shared.

1.8 Describe the steps to be taken to respect subject's rights and expectations of privacy, confidentiality and anonymity:

The research will consist of two types of data collection. At the beginning of the survey, participants will be required to read a digital letter of consent informing them of their rights to exit the survey at any time. No electronic or digital signature is required so that the participant's identity remains anonymous unless they choose to provide an email to be contacted for a follow-up interview. The letter of consent will allow participants to understand that the survey and any follow-up interview questions are anonymous and confidential and they can opt out at the survey at any time. Their name or school will not be used, nor will they be identified personally, in any way or at any time to anyone or in any publication.

All information collected will be kept private by the researcher. The participants will be made aware that I will not be sharing any specific research results by person or school with anyone. However, because I will be interviewing some people I need to know names of participants and contact information so that I can get in touch with them with follow-up in-depth questions. It will be necessary to identify participants in the study for follow-up interviews and to identify the role within the school for analysis purposes but all information provided by the participant will remain confidential. However, the participants will also be made aware that data collected may be analyzed by location and therefore results from this study may be included in my doctoral dissertation and may also be included in manuscripts submitted to professional journals or other professional publications.

1.9 Will subjects' identities or private information be revealed if this study be reported through publication or public presentation?

Subjects' identity or private information will not be revealed if this study is published or presented in public. The letter of consent will specifically address the anonymity, confidentiality, and privacy of participants. Although names of individuals and schools will not be identified, a potential risk exists of a school to be identified if there is a small number of participants from a particular country.

If this application is seeking an **exemption from IRB Review**, please check the policy in the Faculty Handbook. Please see the worksheet on the criteria for an exemption. If you believe that the proposed research qualifies for an exemption, you may end the application here and submit these two pages to irb@lesley.edu. You will be notified whether your application for exemption has been approved. If it is not approved, you will be asked to complete the remaining sections of this application.

Applicants seeking either expedited or full IRB review are required to complete the remainder of this form.

2.1 Identify the institutional affiliation of the Principal Investigator (including School, Division, Center or Office). Also identify the affiliation and status of the co-investigator who is a student.

The principal investigator is Salvatore Terrasi (Project Director, Lesley Institute for Trauma Sensitivity, Adjunct Faculty for GSASS and GSOE). The student investigator that will be conducting the research is Sharlene (Shari) Fedorowicz, Ph.D. doctoral student in Educational Leadership.

2.2 Identify the institutional affiliation of other participants on the project who are not members of the Lesley University community.

None. This research is part of the Educational Leadership doctoral program. Both the researcher (doctoral student) and Senior advisor are part of the Lesley University community. No other institutional affiliations are associated with this study.

2.3 If the principal investigator is not a member of the Lesley community, then a Lesley faculty or staff must be a co-sponsor of the research project. Please identify that person.

N/A. The researcher is from the Educational Leadership doctoral program. The Senior Advisor is part of the Lesley faculty.

2.4 Identify the funding source and any relevant restrictions on the research, if applicable.

No funding source or restrictions are required for this research project.

2.5 If the proposed project involves collaboration with another institution, please identify and indicate if IRB review from that institution and been sought and granted. Include the IRB review number. Include relevant contact information.

No other universities or institutions that contain IRB review will be surveyed.

2.6 Location(s) of the research activity:

The research will be conducted world-wide in 69 countries where American International Schools are located.

3.1 Provide further details on the characteristics of the human subjects. Please describe in greater detail the numbers of subjects, the range of ages, gender, and other relevant demographic characteristics that may define the sample being studied.

All educators working abroad at each American International School, regardless of role as administrator or teacher, will be asked to take the survey. All male and female adults at or over the age of 21 in the education profession will participate in the survey whether they are from the US, the

host country, or from a different country working at the school. The purpose of asking all educators is to get a large enough sample size to conduct quantitative data analysis.

3.2 How are subjects to be chosen or recruited? Describe sampling procedures.

A list of potential participants from American International Schools will be obtained from either NEASC or the US Department of State Office of Overseas Schools. The researcher created an introduction letter (attached) to be distributed via email requesting educators from American International Schools to participate in the survey. Within the email will be a link for educators to access the electronic survey instrument. If educators choose to participate and click on the link, the first part of the survey instrument contains a letter of consent (attached). The letter of consent contains full disclosure of the research followed by a digital signature check-off box that states that the participant is willing and volunteering to take the survey with no repercussions and may opt out anytime. Due to the nature of the study being international, it is not feasible to physically collect signatures but rather collect digital signatures. The Head of each American International School will be the initial point of contact at each school and will be asked to take the survey along with a request for them to distribute the survey to other administrators and teachers within their school.

3.3 What will subjects be asked to do, what will be done to them, or what information will be gathered? (Append copies of interview guides, instructions, tests, or questionnaires.)

The participants will be asked to first digitally read and sign the letter of consent volunteering to take the survey. After the participants have signed off, they can click on the electronic survey link to fill out the digital survey anonymously. At the end of the quantitative survey, they will be asked if they are open to be contacted for a 20 minute in-depth interview via Skype or phone call. All information will be kept anonymous by the researcher through a secure portal and no information will be shared.

3.4 If interviews are planned, identify the interviewers and how will they be trained?

This research is a Mixed Method Sequential Explanatory Design (Creswell, 2009). After the quantitative survey has been distributed and results received, 6 to 10 participants will be asked to be contacted for follow-up in-depth interview questions. The 6 to 10 individuals will be selected based upon the preliminary analysis of the electronic survey instrument, which will be determined after analyzing the answers to the survey. I will be the only person conducting the individual survey with participants via Skype or phone. Interviews will be scheduled with the participants and I will Skype or call them with a list of questions.

3.5 If an intervention is planned, please describe and include the number of times intervention will be made and over what period of time (see policy guidelines for the definition of 'intervention'):

N/A. No intrusive intervention is planned or required to conduct this research.

4.1 How do you explain the research to subjects and obtain their informed consent to participate? (It is essential to allow participants to ask questions at any point. Be sure to append your Informed Consent Form.

The letter of consent will start by addressing the research questions, the purpose of this study, and the benefit to the participant. The explanation for the research and informed consent will be as follows:

Research Question: The problem of this study addresses the similarities and differences in cultures and the impact to American International School educators in their capacity to manage, lead, and navigate cultural aspects to provide a successful school and a quality education

Purpose of the Study: This study is intended to examine the dynamics and challenges of relationship between American International Schools and host country cultures as perceived by educators. Further, in what manner these impacts influence the capacity of educators to manage, lead, and navigate the cultures into the school

Benefits to Participants:

- To explain how intrinsic (race, gender, religion) and extrinsic factors (funding, country laws) contribute to the challenges related to strategies used to manage, lead, and navigate American International Schools
- To explain intra- or intercontinental similarities and differences in challenges and issues experienced by American International Schools
- To provide information utilized by American International Schools that may offer successful guidelines or strategies useful for other American International Schools
- To understand altruistic relationships that benefit American International Schools

4.2 If subjects are minors or not competent to provide consent, how will parent or guardian permission be obtained? How will verbal assent of the participants be obtained?

N/A. No minors or students will be taking surveys or participate in interview questions.

4.3 How will subjects be informed that they can refuse to participate in aspects of the study or may terminate participation whenever they please?

The letter of consent will specifically address their choice to opt out at any point during the survey or interview without consequence. In addition, it is made clear in the letter of consent that their information and answers will be confidential and their identification will remain anonymous at all times.

4.4 If subjects are students or clients, how will you protect them against feeling coerced into participation?

N/A. Neither students nor clients will be taking surveys or participating in interviews.

4.5 Are subjects deliberately deceived in any way? If so, provide rationale. Describe the deception, its likely impact on participants, and how they will be debriefed upon completion of the research.

No. The questions are straightforward in order to obtain direct information related to their school. Deception is not part of the research study nor is intrusive intervention.

4.6 How might participation in this study benefit subjects?

Participants may benefit because this study will provide information utilized by American International Schools that may offer successful guidelines or strategies useful for other American International Schools. Further, explanations for how intrinsic and extrinsic factors contribute to the challenges related to strategies used to manage, lead, and navigate American International Schools may reveal intra- or intercontinental similarities and differences in issues experienced by American International Schools. Participants may also learn what other schools due to the successful.

4.7 Will participants receive a summary of results? If yes, please describe.

Once the dissertation is completed and published, schools may request a copy through the researcher.

5.1 How will the following be protected?

- a. Privacy: Protecting *information* about participants.

In terms of privacy and protecting information about participants, only the researcher will have access to survey results. No individual names or school names will be used in the dissertation or any publications unless written consent is provided by a Head of School, or school leader. The digital survey is password protected by the researcher so that no other individual or school can gain access to the results of the survey.

- b. Anonymity: Protecting *names* and other *unique identifiers* of participants. Names should not be attached to the data, unless subjects choose to be identified, and the identification of subjects is essential to the proposed project.

Anonymity of participants will be strictly adhered to because data will be analyzed by region and not by school or by individual. If a school or individual is to be identified, then written consent will be obtained by the participant or the school. The only risk is that in some countries only one school might participate, which may provide a slight risk related to school identification. However, the school could be eliminated from the study or grouped together and analyzed with other countries in the form of a region to provide anonymity.

- c. Confidentiality: Protecting *data* about participants. How is access to data limited? Consider how coding will be kept separate from information obtained; how data will be stored and when will it be destroyed; whether data will be used in the future and, if so, how permission for further use will be obtained?

The only personal information collected regarding individuals will be names, gender, religion, and number of years in education. The personal information is used by the researcher in order to conduct data analysis and follow-up with potential future interviews. Individual names will not be used in the results, citation, or any future publications. The research results will not be destroyed in the event that the researcher uses this information for publications or to collect additional information.

5.2 Are there any other procedures or details of the study the Human Subjects Committee should use to assess how your study protects human subjects?

No. The study strictly uses straightforward questions (attached) via electronic survey or interviews via Skype or phone to answer questions pertaining to their school and a host country culture. No intrusive intervention will be conducted during this research. The attached survey instrument will be translated into an e-format using an electronic survey instrument such as Qualtrics or SurveyMonkey so some changes in formatting only may occur. The questions themselves will remain the same as attached to this application.

Attachments, as appropriate (Please include all attachments in one file labeled by the author's last name, as shown below):

- Written Informed Consent Form. The consent form must include contact information for the

applicant, the faculty supervisor (if the applicant is a student), and the IRB co-chairs, either Robyn Cruz (rcruz@lesley.edu) or Terry Keeney (tkeeney@lesley.edu).

- Recruitment letters or flyers
- Instructions to informants
- Interview Guide
- Compensation information
- Data collection instrument, e.g., test
- List of all co-investigators (including contact information)
- Description of any experimental manipulation
- Information sheets or debriefing method
- Letters of IRB approval from cooperating institution(s)

Send the completed form as an email attachment to irb@lesley.edu.

Applicants are requested to send the application electronically, with all accompanying documents, in **one file**, with the following format for the file: Last Name of Applicant IRB Application Date Submitted.

The email that accompanies the application will serve as an electronic signature.

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