Cross-culture contact : a study of factors that contribute to culture shock on ESL students' adjustment in the english language institute at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Jingyun Li

To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Jingyun Li entitled "Cross-culture contact : a study of factors that contribute to culture shock on ESL students' adjustment in the english language institute at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville." I have examined the final electronic copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Education.

Patricia Davis-Wiley, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation and recommend its acceptance:

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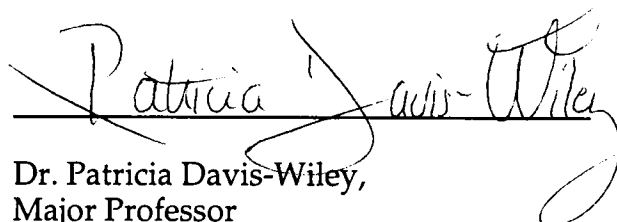
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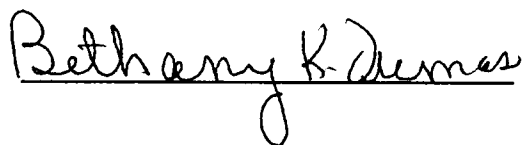
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Dr. Patricia Davis-Wiley,
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Associate Vice Chancellor and
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CROSS-CULTURE CONTACT: A STUDY OF FACTORS THAT
CONTRIBUTE TO CULTURE SHOCK ON ESL STUDENTS'
ADJUSTMENT IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE INSTITUTE AT
THE UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE, KNOXVILLE

A Dissertation

Presented for the

Doctor of Philosophy

Degree

The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Jingyun Li

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my loving father,

Li Paida ,

who instilled in me a love for learning.

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Appreciation is extended to the outstanding work of the staff in the Computing Center at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, who contributed to test the reliability of the instrument of the dissertation.

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My greatest appreciation is expressed to my parents for their love and understanding. Thousands of miles of distance, overseas, has never dampened my mother's desires to enable me to pursue my educational goals, and my father's continued support. Thanks also to my brother, who is a true friend in sharing disappointments and pleasures. Because of them, my dream has come true.

ABSTRACT

The factors that contribute to culture shock among international students who study abroad have been researched continuously since 1960. However, the findings remain controversial.

The purpose of this study was to identify, through survey research methodology, what demographic factors, including age, gender, marital status, nationality, length of stay in the U.S., previous travel experience in other countries, and number of American friends, were related to culture shock linguistically, socially, and psychologically among ESL students.

Subjects participating in this study were 66 ESL students who were native speakers of Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and Spanish at the English Language Institute at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, enrolled during the 1997-1998 academic year.

The questionnaire, developed by the researcher specifically for this study, was translated into Chinese, Korean, Japanese, and Spanish languages. The translated questionnaires were distributed and subsequently collected by the researcher after completion. These participants were asked to answer 40 questions to describe their linguistic, sociological and psychological difficulties, which relate to culture shock. In addition, the participants were asked to respond to six open-ended questions that reflected their feelings and perspectives of American people and American life.

Statistical testing of the hypotheses was performed by using the Stat-Star program on a personal computer. The analysis of the data of the closed-ended

questions was accomplished using the Pearson Correlation Coefficient method. The analysis of the data of the open-ended questions was performed using qualitative methods.

The results of the analysis of the data led to the following conclusions:

1. An ESL student's age did not produce a significant relationship on his/her perceptions toward the linguistic aspects of culture shock, sociological aspects of culture shock, and psychological aspects of culture shock.

2. An ESL student's gender did not produce a significant relationship on his/her perceptions toward the linguistic aspects of culture shock, sociological aspects of culture shock, and psychological aspects of culture shock.

3. An ESL student's martial status did not produce a significant relationship on his/her perceptions toward the linguistic aspects of culture shock, sociological aspects of culture shock, and psychological aspects of culture shock.

4. An ESL student's nationality did not produce a significant relationship on his/her perceptions toward the linguistic aspects of culture shock, sociological aspects of culture shock, and psychological aspects of culture shock.

5. An ESL student's length of stay in the U.S. did produce a significant relationship on his/her perceptions toward the linguistic aspects of culture shock, sociological aspects of culture shock, and psychological aspects of culture shock.

6. An ESL student's previous travel experience did produce a significant relationship on his/her perceptions toward the linguistic aspects of culture shock, sociological aspects of culture shock, and psychological aspects of culture shock.

7. The number of an ESL student's American friend did produce a significant relationship on his/her perceptions toward the linguistic aspects of

culture shock, sociological aspects of culture shock, and psychological aspects of culture shock.

The narrative data indicated that ESL students felt that American life was both exciting and stressful. Students enjoyed freedom, convenient life style, advanced technology, and equal human rights. On the other hand, students felt that the American society was money-oriented, and unsafe. However, students were very impressed by Americans' warm, and polite manner, and their way of respecting privacy. Interestingly, students also concluded that American people were selfish, exhibited a lack of self-discipline, and had a superior attitude.

Recommendations for further research include studies exploring other demographic factors and their relationships with culture shock, replication of the study with a larger population, and with populations from different geographic areas.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The expansion of cross-cultural programs, the trend toward global education, and the recognition of the advantages of foreign study have all succeeded in sending young people abroad. The enrollment of international students in academic programs in American colleges and universities has been steadily increasing for the past several decades. For example, in 1911, there were only 4,856 international students in the United States (Chung, 1988). However, the enrollment reached 453,787 in 1997. Students from Asia comprise 57.3%, Europe, 14.8%, Latin America, 10.4%, Middle East, 6.7%, North America, 5.2%, Africa, 4.6%, and Oceanic, 0.9%. In addition, 5% of the total population is studying in the intensive English language programs cross the whole country (The Chronicle of Higher Education, 1997). Furthermore, according to Zikopoulos' (1993) study, nearly one-third of all college students in the world who are studying abroad is in the United States. Currently, the top four countries sending the largest contingency of students to the U.S. are Japan, China, Korea, and India. Clearly, American universities have a vested interest in inviting international students to study in the U.S., and in finding ways to understand their most common dilemmas.

Research regarding international students' adaptation first began in the post-World War II era. Researchers hoped to provide empirical information about the international students at the universities, in order to better understand them and serve them more effectively.

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In the process of achieving their educational goals in American institutions, international students undergo a multiplicity of problems. The literature on cross-cultural education indicates that the problems international students confront during their sojourn in American universities are many and varied. These problems have been described as ranging from personal, social, financial, to academic (Dulebohn, 1989; Hammer, 1992; Moore, 1987). Even though some of these problems may disappear over time, others may still remain. Levine and Adelman (1982) emphasize that for better intercultural communication, people should understand the following aspects in the second culture: verbal patterns, nonverbal communication, personal relationships, family values, educational attitudes, work values, time and space patterns, and cultural awareness.

One of the universal problems facing many international students going abroad is that of culture shock. Leaving a home culture to live in a new culture represents one of the most difficult trials a person can experience. The cross-cultural living experience is often characterized by confusion, frustration and crisis. Culture shock occurs as a result of this transitional experience in a new culture. Students may be anxious because they neither speak the language well, nor know the customs, nor understand people's behavior in daily life. Culture shock may be responsible for a variety of problems, including the inability to cope, misinterpretation of reality, and a complete breakdown in communication.

The study of culture shock is shared by researchers in many disciplines, such as anthropology, psychology, sociology, and linguistics. It was the anthropologist Oberg who first used the term "culture shock" at the end of the 1950s to refer to the difficulty of cultural transition, descriptions of which can be found in literature from the beginning of the 17th century to present. Oberg

(1960) defines culture shock as being "precipitated by the anxiety that results from losing all our familiar signs and symbols of social intercourse" (p. 177).

Interestingly, Henderson, Milhouse and Cao (1993) found that language difficulties are perceived to constitute the most prevalent and far-reaching manifestation of culture shock in the population of adult English as a second language (ESL) college students in America. For example, 97% of the 150 adult Chinese students whom they surveyed stated that language problems cause them the most trouble. Oberg (1972) also emphasizes the importance of language as being a tool to help the individual recover from culture shock. He claims that language is the principal symbol system of communication. Learning a new language is difficult, particularly for adults. This task alone is quite enough to cause frustration and anxiety, no matter how skillful current language teachers are in making it more manageable for students. Language appears at the bottom of the students' initial anxiety as a result of "the loss of commonly perceived and understood signs and symbols of social intercourse" (Adler, 1972, p. 13). Indeed, studies have extensively explored the theory that the degree of culture shock is dependent upon variables which can be classified into four broad categories: the sojourners' background characteristics, the sojourn experience itself in a foreign country, communication variables (including the second language), and personality traits.

In addition, social difficulties may cause partial culture shock among these ESL students. Loneliness and social isolation are often the "shadow side" of language and communication problems, darkening the foreign student's stay in the new culture; this is widely reported by ESL students to researchers in this area (Chen, 1992). The variable of communication difficulties also has much to do with the international student population mostly "sticking together," with

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members of specific nationalities mainly associating with other fellow nationals, and rarely integrating socially with American students. In fact, reports describing culture shock also frequently refer to the loss of social cues (Dodge, 1990; Sue & Wagner, 1973). One's social manners and patterns of interacting, which tend to be taken for granted and are almost automatic in one's own culture, are suddenly challenged and found lacking in the new environment. Thus, what is appropriate to say or do in common social situations, such as greeting people, or asking for directions, suddenly becomes a stressful decision. It must also be pointed out that some cultural groups often experience more culture shock in the U.S. than do others, and this mostly depends on the level of similarity between the two cultures.

Similarly, psychological difficulties may also cause culture shock which negatively influences these ESL students. Many ESL adult students report disorientation that virtually amounts to a "psychic injury," according to Henderson, Milhouse, and Cao (1993, p. 381). One of the deep psychological dilemmas is homesickness, which is frequently intensified by many other cultures' greater emphasis on family bonds, than those usually found in America. For instance, Asian, Latino, and African cultures, are demonstrably much more family-oriented than their American counterpart (Sue & Sue, 1990). Another deep psychological dilemma is anxiety and foreboding, such as the fears of being cheated, robbed, injured, or getting sick. Thus, the feeling of vulnerability, often creates the very unpleasant feelings of powerlessness, and helplessness.

Furthermore, there has been a need to identify the major factors that are associated with culture shock affecting international students in the United States. These factors may include age, gender, marital status, length of staying in the second culture, and attitude toward the second culture. Meloni (1986) points out

that national origin, level of education (undergraduate or graduate), marital status and the field of study are also major variables affecting the adjustment of international students. Yet, the results of research on the dimensions of culture shock that influence international students' adaptation remain controversial. A closer examination of these factors is thus necessary in order to understand the problems of these intensely motivated and highly intelligent international students.

The present study attempts to correlate some aspects of culture shock (such as linguistic, social, and psychological variables) with some demographic factors (such as age, gender, marital status, nationality, length of staying in the U.S., previous travel experience in other countries, and number of American friends) to measure cross-cultural adaptation of ESL students, who study in the English Language Institute (ELI) at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville.

Statement of the Problem

The problem addressed in this study is to investigate the factors related to culture shock of ESL students in the ELI at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville.

For international students whose native language is not English, learning English as a second language has become an inseparable part of their lives while studying in the United States. They must take a language proficiency test, such as the TOEFL (Testing of English a Foreign Language), in order to demonstrate "competency" before being admitted to an American institution of higher education. In addition, language seems to be the major factor in the students' feelings of anger and hostility as a translation of their inability to adjust to the

new environment. Therefore, the proficiency of English as a second language has become an important topic to be studied. However, due to the difficulty in testing and recording the effects of culture shock on language proficiency, there have been few studies conducted (Cauchon, 1994; Damen, 1982; Evans, 1987).

Other difficulties which may be caused by culture shock, such as social problems need to be taken into consideration. For example, Surdam and Collins (1994) found that foreign students who spent more leisure time with Americans were significantly better adapted than those who spent the majority of their leisure time with people from their own countries. The research of Surdam and Collins (1994) also indicates that students from outside the Western countries tend to experience significantly more adaptation difficulties than do those from Western nations. Juffer (1983) also finds that Asian students are more hesitant to talk with Americans than Europeans, and the students who are more likely to talk informally with Americans have better culture shock adapation. Thus, Asian students typically suffer from a great deal more culture shock in the U.S. than students from other areas.

Moreover, another major aspect of culture shock includes psychological difficulties. According to Henderson, Milhouse, and Cao's (1993) study, an international student reports that her self-esteem and self-consciousness were beaten constantly and mercilessly by the new way of life, education system, living system and transportation system. That is, students appear to experience culture shock through thoughts and feelings of anger, hostility, fear, frustration, sickness, unhappiness, loneliness and homesickness.

Although, many studies have investigated some demographic factors that highly influence culture shock linguistically, socially and psychologically among international students in the United States, the results differ. Some have found

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that such variables as age, gender, previous travel experience, and duration of stay showed a marked effect on most problems in culture shock adaptation (Lehrfied, 1974; Okamoto, 1991). Other studies, however, have found that variables such as English ability, social-economic background and attitudes toward the U.S. culture were significantly related to the degree of adjustment, but that international students' age, gender, marital status, nationality, length of stay in the U.S. did not appear to affect the degree of culture shock (Chung 1988; Onyemenem, 1988; Shandiz, 1981).

Therefore, factors that correlate with culture shock adaptation which influence international students in the American institutions need to be studied and re-examined.

The Purpose

The purpose of this study is to identify some variables that are associated with culture shock, such as linguistic difficulties, social difficulties and psychological difficulties among ESL students. Specifically, the following factors will be taken into consideration: the student's age, gender, marital status, nationality, length of stay in the U.S., previous travel experience in other countries, and number of American friends.

Particularly, the present study will examine culture shock experienced by international students who are native speakers of Chinese, Korean, Japanese, and Spanish, and study English as a second language at the English Language Institute at The University of Tennessee at Knoxville, during the academic year 1997-1998.

Significance of the Study

International students are coming to United States colleges and universities in ever increasing numbers. In recent years, much research has focused on the various problems of the international students studying in the ESL programs in the U.S.

Therefore, it is hoped that this study will contribute to second language teaching and research by investigating the factors which influence linguistic aspects of culture shock, and that it will give ESL learners advice and guidance in adapting themselves as quickly as possible to their new linguistic and cultural environment. The information provided may also help them make conscious adjustments in their own individual feelings and attitudes, in order to increase success in their new second language environment.

It is anticipated that this study will add to the existing knowledge on international students' adaptation and adjustments, and promote multicultural understanding among American educators and international students.

By examining the factors which are associated with culture shock among international students, governments or agencies of foreign countries may find this study helpful as a guide in counseling students before they leave their home countries.

This study may also aid international student advisors in helping ESL students solve their culture shock problems during their stay in American colleges and universities.

Finally, this study may help educational administrators and classroom teachers become aware of their international students' needs and problems, so

that they will design more flexible curricula to help their international students achieve their educational goals.

Limitations

This study has the following limitations:

1. The sample of English as a Second Language (ESL) students is selected solely from the population of the English Language Institute (ELI) at The University of Tennessee at Knoxville.

2. In this study, specifically, the sample only involves the ESL students who are native speakers of Chinese, Korean, Japanese, and Spanish.

3. This study is limited to Korean, Japanese, Chinese and Spanish students who attend the ELI during the 1997-1998 academic year.

4. The findings of this study are only restricted to data collected from one instrument, the Culture Shock Inventory.

Definition of Terms

Special terminologies are often used when discussing culture shock and cross-culture communication. In order to clarify their meaning, operational definitions are provided as follows:

1. Adaptation: It is the process of learning to know and use the means to solve problems or attain academic success within a target culture.

2. Adjustment: The individual copes with new environment, by learning behaviors and languages that are different entirely from those of his/her country of origin. In the process of adjustment, the individual is creating a

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satisfying relationship with his/her new environment while not necessarily abandoning his/her own cultural identity.

3. <u>Cross-cultural communication</u>: It occurs when individuals interrelate from different cultures and give meaning to verbal, written, or non-verbal symbols.

4. <u>ELI</u>: English Language Institute.

5. <u>Home country</u>: The country from which the international students originally come.

6. <u>International students</u>: Students from other countries other than the U.S., usually holding student visas such as F1, F2, and J1.

7. <u>Language proficiency</u>: It is the general language ability of a person as a result of his/her cumulative experiences with the given language. Language proficiency can be represented by the scores obtained by international students in standardized language tests (such as TOEFL). These scores represent the general capacity of the international students to negotiate the English language, and are therefore, used as predictors of international students' future academic behavior.

8. <u>Second-language acquisition</u>: This refers to the gradual development of ability in a second language by using it in communicative situations.

9. <u>Sojourner</u>: Those students who travel from their different countries to the United States to study and stay for a period of time.

10. <u>Target culture</u>: The culture of the country in which the international students are visiting.

11. <u>TOEFL</u>: Test of English as a Foreign Language. It has been used both for diagnosis or for prediction purposes, and has represented a reliable and valid

source of judgment for the English capability of international students in academic programs in American colleges and universities.

Statement of Hypotheses

In attempting to identify which demographic factors may have a significant relationship with culture shock linguistically, sociologically, and psychologically among ESL students in the English Language Institute at The University of Tennessee at Knoxville, the following research hypotheses are posed:

Ho1. There is no significant relationship between an ESL student's age and culture shock.

Ho2. There is no significant relationship between an ESL student's gender and culture shock.

Ho3. There is no significant relationship between an ESL student's marital status and culture shock.

Ho4. There is no significant relationship between an ESL student's nationality and culture shock.

Ho5. There is no significant relationship between the length of stay in the U.S. of an ESL student and culture shock.

Ho6. There is no significant relationship between the previous travel experience in other countries of an ESL student and culture shock.

Ho7. There is no significant relationship between the number of American friends of an ESL student and culture shock.

Organization of the Study

The study will be organized into the following five chapters. Chapter One will be an introduction to the study which will include background of the problem, discussions of the purpose, the importance of the study, statements of limitations, definitions of terms, statement of hypotheses, organization of the study, and a chapter summary.

Chapter Two will be a review of the literature on the topic, first presenting the anthropological, psychological, sociological, and linguistic perspectives of culture shock, then focusing on the research related to various demographic variables and their relationships to culture shock, and finally discussing culture shock curves and stages.

Chapter Three will discuss the methods and procedures used in the selection of subjects, the creation and administration of the instrument, and data analysis.

Chapter Four will present the results of the study.

Chapter Five will discuss the findings and conclusions of the study and will offer recommendations for further research.

Chapter Summary

This chapter introduces the research topic, problem, purpose, significance of the study, limitations, definition of terms, statement of hypotheses, and organization of the dissertation. The aim is to briefly identify and examine current trends and issues of culture shock on international students in the U.S. institutions.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter is a review of the literature related to culture shock research. The overview of this research history will be discussed in the following sections: definitions and perspectives of culture shock from anthropology, psychology, sociology, and linguistics; research related to various demographic variables and their effects on culture shock; and the stages and curves of culture shock.

In 1871, Tylor was the first to use the word "culture" in a sociological sense in English. He defined culture as, "that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society" (p. 1). After him, many scholars have defined the concept of culture from a variety of perspectives. From an anthropological point of view, Barnouw (1985) claims, "A culture is the way of life of a group of people, the complex of shared concepts and patterns of learned behavior that are handed down from one generation to the next through the means of language and initiation" (p. 5). Another highly influential definition was espoused by Goodenough (1957) from a social-linguistic perspective,

> A society's culture consists of whatever is one has to know or believe in order to operate in a manner acceptable to its members. Culture is not a material phenomenon; it does not consist of things, behavior, or emotions. It is rather an organization of these things. It is the form of things that people have in mind, their models for perceiving, relating, and otherwise interpreting them. (p. 167)

Culture Shock

Culture shock, and its causes and effects, has been the focus of much research attention in the past three decades. The following section outlines selected research on culture shock drawn from literature.

Theories and perspectives which are concerned with culture shock have their roots in a variety of disciplines. In the earliest sociological writing on this topic, cross-cultural conflict was described as homesickness or a type of mental illness. Little specific understanding existed as to why separation from "home" would result in such great difficulties and symptoms. In the end of the 19th century, Kline (1898), in studying the phenomenon of nostalgia, formulated a theory which explained nostalgia as a reaction to the replacement of the familiar environment with one which was unknown or strange. Kline used the term "shock" to describe the reaction, presenting the original introduction of the contemporary concept of culture shock (cited in Dulebohn, 1989, p. 93). After the Second World War, scholars from various disciplines began to investigate the phenomena of cross-cultural contact and conflict. Since then, many researchers have approached the concept of culture shock quite differently. The differences among them are all largely a matter of emphasis. Scholars often define culture shock as it relates to their special interests or study at a particular time. Researchers, however, have attempted to improve and extend Oberg's idea of culture shock. Many terms, such as Smalley's (1963) "language shock," Byrnes's (1966) "role shock," Guthrie's (1975) "culture fatigue," and Anderson's (1994) "change shock" have been used. The following section describes culture shock from anthropological perspectives.

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Anthropology

Oberg (1960) first defines culture shock in this way,

> Culture shock is precipitated by the anxiety that results from losing all
> our familiar signs and symbols of social intercourse. These signs or
> cues include the thousand and one ways in which we orient ourselves
> to the situations of daily life. (p. 177)

Basically, his idea is that when individuals enter a new culture, all or most of those familiar cues which they have gained in their own cultures are removed. These cues include the language people speak, and the beliefs that people accept, customs, norms, gestures, and facial expressions.

Many of the studies of culture shock have attempted to correlate it with occupational, situational, experiential, and personal variables. Oberg (1960) describes culture shock as an illness. He begins that "culture shock might be called an occupational disease of people who have been suddenly transplanted abroad. Like most ailments, it has its own symptoms and cures" (p. 177). Several scholars followed Oberg in classifying culture shock as a disease. Foster (1962), explains culture shock as, "a mental illness, ... the victim usually does not know he/she is afflicted. He/she finds that he/she is irritable, depressed and probably annoyed by the lack of attention shown him/her" (p. 190). Clarke (1976) in a similar tradition also classifies culture shock as a disease. He notes, "for the individual in a strange culture, social encounters become inherently threatening, and defense mechanisms are employed to reduce the trauma ... the similarities between the schizophrenic and a person in a foreign environment are striking" (p. 380). However, researcher Dulebohn (1989) argues that the labeling of culture shock as a disease is misleading. The word "disease" conveys the idea that culture shock is unpreventable, debilitating and without benefit. Culture shock is not a destructive process or condition. Although symptoms accompany

culture shock, they tend to be a result of stress. Also, even though similarities may be noted between the reactions to confronting a new culture and indications of mental illness, culture shock may be explained as the absence of the familiar cultural environment and a replacement of one which is foreign to the sojourner.

The anthropologist Spindler describes culture shock as a hazard rather than a disease. Spindler (1970) asserts, "it is an occupational hazard and we have all suffered from it at one time or another" (p. 299).

Arensberg and Niehoff (1964), greatly experienced cross-cultural situations, and suggest that culture shock is simply, "a temporary attitude that will pass as soon as he/she becomes familiar enough with local customs and manners" (p. 189). From their point of view, the significant aspect of culture shock is that it occurs during the earliest part of the person's stay abroad.

Supporting a position similar to Arensberg and Niehoff, Bock (1970) states that culture shock is largely an emotional matter. The more exotic and alien the society, and the deeper one's immersion in its social life, the greater the shock. The important features of culture shock include one's inability to make any sense out of the behavior of others, or to predict what one will say or do.

Furthermore, Williams (1967) reports that culture shock is an experience that can only be dealt with in the field on the basis of the situation and people's perceptions of their own culture and the target culture. The following section describes culture shock from psychological perspectives.

Psychology

For psychologists, culture shock is an experience of personality in culture. Studies have characteristically emphasized adaptive responses to stress.

Descriptions of culture shock reflect everything from a little irritability to psychological panic. Adler (1972) concludes,

> Culture shock is caused by the encounter of an individual of one cultural heritage with the differences presented by another cultural system in which he/she is immersed. The shock is the shock of isolation and the loss of the familiar. (p. 10)

Furthermore, Adler (1972) summarizes three interrelated viewpoints of culture shock. First, culture shock is seen as a predominately negative experience of personal loss of that which is culturally, socially, and psychologically familiar. Second, culture shock is a psychological illness or disease. Third, culture shock is a crisis in behavior and attitude that occurs prior to the successful adaptation to the new environment. In the same article, Adler views the culture shock process as being "fundamental in that the individual must somehow confront the social, psychological and philosophical discrepancies he/she finds in his/her new surrounding, as compared with his/her own cultural props, self-image, and understandings" (p. 14).

Other psychologists, Furnham and Bochner (1986), claim that the culture shock hypothesis implies that the experience of a new culture is an unpleasant surprise of shock, partly because it is unexpected, and partly because it may cause a negative evaluation of one's own culture. In addition, Lundstedt (1963) and Hays (1972) find the same results. Culture shock is a psychological and physical reaction that is difficult to control or predict. Thus, individuals are anxious and confused until they develop a new set of cognitive constructs to understand and behave appropriately in the new culture.

A "shock" is a sudden, or violent, mental or emotional disturbance. Psychological studies have characteristically emphasized the effects of culture shock on stress and anxiety.

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A study by Spradley and Philips (1972) relates culture shock to a model of stress. Threatening stimuli, both sensory and symbolic, are stressors, producing a physical tension, or disequilibrium as a state of stress, inferred from the presence of physiological, psychological, social, or cultural indicators known as stress responses. Moreover, the occurrence of stress produced by novel stimuli in a cross-cultural experience can be explained in terms of "information overload." According to Hall (1977), information overload is a technical term to describe a situation in which the system breaks down when it cannot properly handle the huge volume of information to which it is subjected. The term generally refers to the limit of the nervous system. Another researcher, Dabrowski (1964), focuses on the effect of culture shock regarding anxiety. He argues that anxiety, frustration, and discomfort are instrumental to the process of self-understanding and personality development. May (1970) also emphasizes that culture shock is associated with anxiety as well. Anxiety affects normal behavior. Lack of self-confidence, distrust of others and complaints about everything are common during the process of culture shock. Writing from a rich cross-culture experience, Anderson (1971) states, "the 'shock' imagery suggests some resultant failure in appropriate response mechanisms, a disarrangement of control related to psychic injury or incapacitation--a neurotic condition" (p. 1121).

From a different point of view, Anderson (1994) argues that the term "culture shock" is vague, and overgeneralized. It should more properly be labeled "change shock." She explains,

> Culture shock to all these situations is misleading, because it masks real differences in the magnitude and cause of disorientation and emotions in evidence. In most of the situations cited, the common denominators have much less to do with culture than with radical environment change coupled with unfamiliarity. (p. 297)

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Although culture shock is most often associated with negative consequences, some investigators view culture shock as a learning process. It provides stimuli necessary to self-development and personality growth. Hoopes and Althen (1971) and David (1971) suggest that culture shock is the way in which the individual reconfirms his or her own identity in the new linguistic, emotional and cultural learning. Adler (1975) sees culture shock as a transitional experience which can result in the adoption of new values, and behavior patterns. He states, "in the encounter with another culture, the individual gains new experiential knowledge by coming to understand the roots of his or her own ethnocentrism, and by gaining new perspectives and outlooks on the nature of culture" (p. 22).

In addition, psychologists have recognized that personal characteristics are seen as contributing to communication competence. Hammer, Gudykunst and Wiseman (1978) identify three dimensions of intercultural effectiveness, (1) the ability to deal with psychological stress--frustration, interpersonal conflict, stress, pressure to conform, financial difficulties, social alienation, and political systems; (2) the ability to effectively communicate--establish meaningful dialogue, deal with misunderstandings, and deal with different communication styles; and (3) the ability to establish interpersonal relationships--develop relationships, maintain relationships, understand others, empathize with others, and work with other people. The following section describes culture shock from sociological perspectives.

Sociology

Merriam Webster's Collegiate Dictionary (1993) defines sociology as a systematic study of the development, structure, interaction, and collective behavior of groups of people. Sociologists study culture shock by comparing people's values, beliefs, attitudes, and opinions of different cultures.

The sociologist Gorden (1974) compares American and Colombian social behavior, such as shaking hands, greeting, leave-taking, and using titles. He finds that, Americans believe that Colombians were generally thoughtless of others; did not dress appropriately for the occasion; did not greet each other properly; and did not care about their reputation among other Colombians. On the other hand, Americans can easily give a Colombian the impression that they do not want to meet people, or to participate in social events, because they do not observe the social rituals that are so important to the Latin Americans. Furthermore, Americans tend to greet people less frequently, and to be less formal or profuse when they greet them. Gorden (1974) concludes,

> The mechanisms of social control that generally operate within our own society to get us to accept obligations as well as rights do not operate immediately upon the sojourner in the host culture. The degree to which a person accepts both the obligations and the rights connected with his/her role is an index of his/her integration into a particular group or culture. (p. 196)

Social-psychologist Fernandez (1988) studies the problems of Southeast-Asian students who come to the universities of the United States. These students "carry over the culturally ingrained emotional meanings of essential social roles, and new role meanings often come into conflict with traditional ones" (p. 157). The diversity between the home country and the American lifestyles results in culture shock. Some obvious differences between American and Asian cultures

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exist. For example, in regards time orientation, Asians tend to stress the past and future, and the present is seen as a transitory period. In contrast, Americans value the present and look forward to the future. In the role of family, lineage and family background are extremely important to Asians in establishing an individual's character and personality. For Americans, the behavior or misbehavior of other family members does not have a significant effect on the family as a whole--achievements and failures are attributed solely to the individual. In social behavior, Asian cultures emphasize formality in interpersonal relations, versus the more informal and spontaneous nature of the Americans.

Moreover, "role shock" as defined by Byrnes (1966) in relation to American technical assistants abroad is "the frustration and stress, which associated with such discrepancies as between what a technical assistant views as the ideal role for himself/herself, and the actual role to be abroad; or between the role he/she expects to play, and the role he/she actually plays" (p. 96).

Many researchers have investigated the school as a social setting. Dodge (1990) studies the problems of international students in the U.S. universities, and finds that many international students believe that because university representatives rarely reach out to them, they have to rely on each other for advice on everything from academic schedules to American culture. But, administrators say foreign students do not always take advantage of the resources, and stay together rather than mix with Americans. As students experience a strange culture for the first time vicariously in the classroom, the students require support for their own positions, and opportunity to adjust to new ideas and customs. Simulations, in which students assume characteristics and behaviors of the people they are studying, often provide a useful way to

teach about other cultures. Teachers need to find ways to make the unfamiliar familiar.

From another point of view, Ruben (1976) offers guidelines for cross-cultural communication effectiveness, and finds that effective communication skills are the key to adaptation and coping with culture shock. Different people explain themselves and interpret the world around them differently. Ruben argues that people who recognize that their beliefs, values, and views are their own, and not necessarily shared by others, often find it easier to form productive relationships than do people who believe they know "the truth," and strive to sell their own perceptions, knowledge, and values to others. If one is able to "put oneself in another's shoes" i.e. if one is able, through gestures, eye contact, smiles, and words, to indicate that he/she is sincerely interested in the other person, then that person is much more likely to positively develop and maintain human relationships within and between cultures. The following section describes culture shock from linguistic perspectives.

Linguistics

Language is a human being's most important means of transmitting ideas from one person to another, as well as transmitting culture from one generation to the next, culture is encoded in linguistic form. Different language expresses different realities, and categorizes experience in different ways. They provide alternative patterns for customary ways of thinking and perceiving. Language is viewed by many linguists as a "symbolic meaning system." Linguist Haslett (1987) views language as a "symbolic code" that underlies verbal communication (the use of language), and nonverbal communication (gestures, eye gazes,

proxemics). Scholars have clearly demonstrated strong differences in verbal and nonverbal communication across cultures and subcultures. The barrier of language difference is the most obvious problem to overcome cross-cultural boundaries. The studies of Barnlund's (1975) verbal self-disclosure; St. Clair & Giless' (1980) social identity; Scherer & Ekmans' (1985) critical differences in nonverbal communication; Gudykunst's (1986) intergroup communication; and Schieffelin & Ochss' (1986) communication development have shown that cultural differences determine how messages are sent, responded to and interpreted.

Like language, culture is a semiotic system in which symbols function to exchange meanings. The relationship between language and culture has been studied extensively by many people. For instance, Casson (1981) claims, "Language and culture are not independent or mutually exclusive cognitive systems composed of analogous structures and processes. Rather, culture is a wider system that completely includes language as a subsystem" (p. 19). Thus, the relationship of language to culture is a part to a whole. Other researchers such as Bilmes and Boggs (1979) argue that the analogy between language, as a part of culture, and culture as a whole is not perfect. They believe that language is the foundation of culture (cited in Casson, 1981, p. 25). Chomsky's (1965) concept of grammar links speech sounds to their semantic interpretation. Bilmes and Bogges (1979) also explain that culture, like grammar, links behavior and meaning. Thus, culture is a type of grammar.

For some linguists, such as Smalley, culture shock is really a matter of language shock. In fact, Smalley (1963) uses the term "language shock" to identify the important role language difficulty plays in culture shock. Language is the most effective communication medium, in which the largest number of

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cues to interpersonal relationships is transmitted. Smalley (1963) explains, "The very exercise of language study itself gives some people acute culture shock" (p. 54). Some people gag when trying to make certain sounds in a new language, and may afterwards suffer from certain emotional disturbances because of this. Learning a new language may unconsciously remind them of the helplessness of childhood, when they first tried to articulate many strange sounds. Indeed, moving to another country is often accompanied by a host of language and communication obstacles that are hard to anticipate. For example, often ESL students learn English first in a school or institute setting in their home countries, so that the English language they learned then tends to be too formal, and thus becomes not practical for many encounters in the target country.

Furthermore, theories have demonstrated how culture shock affects second language acquisition among ESL students. According to Krashen's (1987) study, language acquisition is the "natural" way to develop linguistic ability. His Comprehensive Input hypothesis and Affective Filter hypothesis relate to affective factors, such as attitudes about language, motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety. Second language learners with favorable attitudes towards the target language and self-confidence may have a "low filter;" thus, they may learn a second language more efficiently. On the other hand, those who have unfavorable attitudes and high anxiety may have "high filters," and the input of second language may be blocked or impeded. When ESL students experience culture shock physically and emotionally, they may have a negative attitude toward the host people, and the whole process of second language learning. Therefore, they may consciously or unconsciously block the comprehensive input. Krashen (1987) further describes this concept,

Those whose attitudes are not optimal for second language acquisition will not only tend to seek less input, but they will also have a high or strong Affective Filter--even if they understand the message, the input will not reach that part of the brain responsible for language acquisition, or the language acquisition device. (p. 178)

Fillmore (1979) concludes that the acquisition of language requires the participation of at least two parties--the learner and someone who speaks the language already. Language cannot be learned without input, and to get input of the right sort, learners need exposure to the language as it is used in social situations which involve them (cited in Gao, 1994, p. 39). In the same vein, Condon (1979) states that there are two criteria in understanding: (1) the linearity of language, and (2) the deep biases and built-in blinders that every culture provides (cited in Cauchon, 1994, p. 11). Therefore, when learning a second language, one's own cultural tendencies tend to weaken the learning experience, and the learner may or may not be consciously aware of this phenomenon.

Also, Jones (1977) describes the social and psychological factors that affect the individual's acquisition of a second language. Language shock is manifested in the fear of appearing comic, and in the frustration stemming from the inability to express an idea in the target language. Therefore, culture shock causes the learner to reject speakers of the target language. Damen (1982) suggests that culture shock, or the shock of the new, is a common experience for those learning a second language. International second-language learners often have difficulties in writing essays and reports, participating in classroom discussions and note-taking, understanding lectures, and/or having trouble comprehending the questions on tests. However, carefully constructed reading and writing lessons can assist learners in coping with particularly difficult periods of change, and can offer a means of communication. Reading and writing topics, such as describing opinions, emotions, and reactions can encourage the investigation of

cultural similarities and differences. This can also provide a framework for the discussion of personal reflection, and ultimately lead to cultural understanding.

Beyond the acquisition of basic language skills, studies have shown a positive correlation between language proficiency and the amount of social interaction. The relationship between language and interaction is summarized by Church (1982), "the relationship between language fluency and social interaction is most likely a reciprocal one with greater language confidence leading to greater participation that in turn leads to improved command of the host language" (p. 546). In fact, the greater the language ability the greater the potential for participation and adjustment in the new environment. The ability to communicate and understand within the target culture makes it possible for one to fulfill his/her everyday needs through interaction with native people in various situations.

In addition, many researches have shown that a positive attitude towards the target culture facilitates acquisition of the second language. Lambert (1961), Taylor, Catford, Guiora, and Lane (1971), Guiora, Brannon, and Dull (1971), and Lambert and Tucker (1972) all indicate that the degree of identification with the target culture affects second language acquisition. Gardner and Lambert (1972) studied 8th grade British-Canadian children who visited Quebec to learn French. They found that students' achievement depended not only on a positive attitude towards the culture, but also on the existence of prior language study. They conclude that the students' grades in French derived from a strong motivation and desire to learn the language. Rivers (1968) recommends that the strong bond between culture and language must be maintained for the student to have a complete understanding of the meaning language. She believes that differences in values and attitudes are the main sources of problems in foreign

language learning. Some ESL learners have limited knowledge of the differences between their native culture and the target culture, so that they find their problem-solving mechanisms do not work well in the target language learning. Robinson (1981) also studies the relationship of culture and second language acquisition, and summarizes it as follows,

> Research regarding the relationship between second language learning and attitudes toward the target culture reveals that a positive attitude or identification with the target culture and its members (or models) does facilitate acquisition of the language.... There is no evidence to support the assumption that any type of foreign language instruction will automatically promote cross-cultural understanding. (p. 34)

Researcher, Chung (1988) finds that there is a significant relationship between the degree of culture shock adaptation and second language skill; previous experience of visiting and living in other countries; attitudes toward the target country; and participation in the target culture. However, there was no major relationship between the degree of culture shock adaptation and age, gender, marital status, nationality, religiosity, and the length of stay in the target country. Another researcher, Cauchon (1994) investigates how culture shock affects ESL acquisition among international students. The research findings were that, (1) culture shock is not a conscious phenomenon in second language acquisition among international students; (2) the social environment plays a part in second language acquisition among international students; (3) in second language acquisition, it is not possible to have a self-contained cultural past (i.e., without the influences of the socio-economic aspects of the learners' background playing a part in the classroom); and finally, (4) second language learning among international students is affected by gender. Moreover, Wang (1993) indicates that nearly all of the ESL learners did not have the real chance to have communication with the speakers of their target language. They did not have

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the systematic training they needed in high school, when they came to American universities. In addition, they would be haunted by doubts as to whether their words and sentences accurately reflected their ideas or meanings. The following section describes the relationship between various demographic factors and culture shock.

Research Related to Various Demographic Variables and Their Effects on Culture Shock

Many researchers have carried out studies to identify factors that influence culture shock to discover cross-cultural adaptation. For example, in Shandiz's (1981) study, he selected 13 independent variables to measure cross-cultural adjustment. They are length of stay, age, sex, social-economic status, hometown size, academic status, social distance, English facility, cultural distance, anomie, previous contact with other cultures, involvement with home country, and missing family and friends. Another researcher, Juffer (1983), developed an instrument to access the degree of culture shock. She considered country of origin, working degree, age, length of stay, previous experience of visiting/living in other countries, living arrangement, American friends, financial resource, English language proficiency, gender, marital status, previous school attendance, religion, and orientation sessions as international students' background information. Similarly, Chung (1988) selected 11 demographic factors to identify their relationships with culture shock. These variables include age, sex, marital status, nationality, religion, educational background, counselor for personal life and academic advisor, living arrangement, length of stay in

America, previous experience of visiting/living in other countries, and orientation session.

Specifically, the seven major demographic factors which are taken into consideration in this study are discussed below,

Age

The relationship between age and culture shock adaptation is not consistent among various studies. For example, Lysgaard (1954) reports that younger students have more academic and social problems. However, Scott (1956) finds that the younger Scandinavian students he studied adjusted more easily to American conditions and ideas, whereas the older students adjusted more easily to academic and professional learning. Kron (1972) reports that the older transferred teachers to the inner city school experienced more culture shock compared with the younger teachers. In addition, other research, such as Chung (1988) and Onyemenem (1988) indicate that age has no relationship on culture shock.

Gender

Oberg (1960) states that culture shock affects females more than males. Porter (1962) and Hill (1966) agree that gender relates to adjustment, and report that women have more problems adjusting both academically and in general. Furthermore, Uehara (1986) finds that there is a statistically significant difference between male students and female students in terms of the degree of re-entry shock. Female students experienced greater re-entry culture shock than male

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students. On the other hand, Stirling (1968) finds that male Central American immigrants are more severely affected by symptoms of culture shock than female immigrants. Zain (1965) and Pavri (1963) also find a relationship between gender and culture shock both in an academic place as well as a personal one. Similarly, Okamoto (1991) again concludes that gender has a strong influence on culture shock adaptation. However, other studies, such as Chung (1988) and Onyemenem (1988) prove that gender does not appear to affect culture shock.

Marital Status

Porter (1962) and Scott (1956) report that single students experience more culture shock than do married students, but those international students who came with their spouses did not make any greater adjustment than did those married students who came without their spouses. Furthermore, Meloni (1986) also describes that marital status is related to culture shock adjustment. On the other hand, Chung (1988), Onyemenem (1988), and Shandiz (1981) find that there is no relationship between marital status and culture shock.

Nationality

Porter (1962), and Lee, Abd-ella, & Burks (1981) indicate that European students have fewer problems with social adjustment in the U.S. Those students who are typically classified as "non-Western" experience more problems with culture shock than those students usually classified as "Western." Similar results can also be found in the studies of Surdam and Collins (1994), and Michallidi (1996). Interestingly, Bennett, Passin, and Mcknight (1958) find that the Japanese

showed more symptoms of personal and emotional disturbance than most other international students. Again, Meloni (1986) also reports that national origin relates with culture shock adaptation.

Length of Staying in the U.S.

The evidence is mixed as to how closely correlated is the length of time spent in the U.S. and culture shock adaptation. Lysgaard (1955) describes the relationship between adjustment and time sequences of the sojourner, which is known as U-curve phenomenon. The level of satisfaction gradually declines as the time goes and then increases after a length of stay. Bennett, Passin, & Mcknight (1958), in a study of Japanese students, finds that the longer the residence was in the U.S., the more balanced the attitude was toward this country, the shorter the stay, the more serious adjustment difficulties they had. Also, Hassan (1961) finds that an increasing length of stay in the U.S. is more likely to produce a higher degree of interaction with Americans. Similar results can also be found in Juffer's (1983) study. She found that the students who stay longer in the target country have better assimilation. However, Porter (1962) discovers those international students on campus for 13 months or longer checked more problems on an inventory than those on campus fewer than 13 months. Yet, Chung (1988), Gezi (1965), and Onyemenem (1988) conclude that the duration of the students' stay in the U.S. is not significantly associated with their adjustment.

Previous Travel Experience in Other Countries

Some researchers, such as Chung (1988), Juffer (1983), Okamoto (1991), Reddin (1980), and Swell & Davidsen (1956) find that there are significant relationships between previous experience of visiting/living in other countries and culture shock. The sojourners who have previous experience have better adjustment and higher culture-shock adaptation. On the other hand, Cort and King (1979) and Torbiorn (1982) conclude that precious travel experience in other cultures does not reduce culture shock. Toribiorn (1982) concludes that older Swedish business people have more travel experiences but also experience higher culture shock than younger people.

Number of American Friends

The majority of the research has found that the more American friends the international students have the better adjustment and less culture shock they experience. Seltiz, Christ, Havel, & Cook (1963) find that international students who had, at least, one American friend are in better spirits than those who did not have one. Similarly, Searle and Ward (1990) find that satisfaction with relationships with host nationals is positively related to psychological adjustment of Malaysian and Singapore students in New Zealand. Host nationals are the most significant source of emotional support. Gezi (1965), and Sewell and Davidsen (1965) summarize that international students who had been able to establish American friendships were less homesick, enjoyed their stay more, and experienced less difficulty with non-academic situations. Torbiorn (1982), on the other hand, finds that those people who make friends with the host nationals

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went through deeper culture shock, but later were better adjusted and satisfied with their stay. However, not all researchers agree that there is a significant relationship. Morri (1960) points out that contact with the host people does not necessarily relate to favorable attitudes toward the U.S. or academic satisfaction.

Culture Shock Stages and Curves

Individuals differ greatly in the degree to which culture shock affects them. The time which people take to adjust to their new environment varies from individual to individual. However, once people realize that their experience of discomfort is a common and temporary phenomenon, they usually find that they can cope better with the symptoms. Culture shock has been described in different stages. In the literature, scholars have used the U-curve and the W-curve models to describe the process of culture shock adjustment.

U-Curve Hypothesis

The idea of the U-shaped curve is first described by Lysgaard (1955). He studied over 200 Norwegian Fulbright scholars in the United States, and concludes that people go though three phases: initial adjustment, crisis and regained adjustment. He implies that the period of adjustment takes about 20 months, with some point between 6 and 18 months being the bottom of the U. One year later, Sewell and Davidsen (1956) studid 40 Scandinavian students at the University of Wisconsin, and also find evidence supporting the U-curve

hypothesis. Oberg (1960), the originator of the term "culture shock," also explains culture shock in terms of four stages, which are summarized below,

(1) Honeymoon. The individual is fascinated by everything new. This stage lasts from a few days or weeks, to six months, depending on circumstances.

(2) Culture Shock. The individual has hostile and aggressive attitudes towards the host country. The use of stereotypes and negative manners towards the target population may occur, and if the hostility and emotional crisis are severe enough, finally, a nervous breakdown may occur. Some may leave, but others may stay at this juncture.

(3) Recovery. The individual is beginning to find a way to open psychologically to the host culture. He/she is then willing to try to understand the people of the host country, and to use a sense of humor when encountering unfamiliar social situations.

(4) Adjustment. The individual begins to accept and enjoy the customs of the host country. The adjustment is as complete as possible and he/she then functions in the culture without traumatic symptoms. The individual develops two patterns of behavior for living in two different cultures.

In 1963, Jacobson suggests that there is a nine-phase sequence for cross-cultural travelers, (1) the pre-departure; (2) the act of leaving; (3) the process of traveling; (4) entry; (5) post-arrival orientation; (6) exploration; (7) tentative commitment; (8) ultimate commitment; and, lastly, (9) the decision about further travel. The similar hypothesis of the U-curve can also be found in the studies of Foster (1962), Lundstedt (1963), and Smalley (1963).

The researcher Sill (1968) studies Peace Corps Volunteers, and offers an adjustment time of the culture-shock process. He finds that Volunteers complete

the first period--"Discovery" (0 to 4 months); then enter into the second period--"Self-Alignment" (4 to 8 months); then move on to the third period--"Participation" (8 to 20 months); which finally lead to the last period--"Devolution" (20 to 24 months).

The U-curve adjustment theory is also supported by Adler (1975). He expands the four-stages phases into five stages. He argues that the U-curve hypotheses reflect the peak and valley of adjustment through time, but that other researchers take no account of the progressive changes in identity, which can protect one from the culture shock process. He illustrates the transition experience as summarized below,

(1) Contact. The individual is insulated by his or her own culture. Differences, as well as similarities provide rationalization for continuing confirmation of status, role, and identity.

(2) Disintegration. Cultural differences begin to intrude. Growing awareness of being different leads to a loss of self-esteem. The individual experiences a loss of cultural support and ties, and misreads new cultural cues.

(3) Reintegration. Rejection of second culture causes preoccupation with likes and dislikes; differences are projected. Negative behavior, however, is a form of self-assertion and growing self-esteem.

(4) Autonomy. The individual is socially and linguistically capable of negotiating most new and different situations; he or she is assured of the ability to survive new experiences.

(5) Independence. Social, psychological, and cultural differences are accepted and enjoyed. The individual is capable of exercising choice and responsibility and able to create meaning from situations.

Another researcher, Barker (1980) reports that one version of the pattern of the U-curve was used by the Arabian American Oil Company (Aramco) as an orientation document for Americans going to Saudi Arabia. He charts a rise in excitement reaching a peak after two weeks in the country, followed by a steady decline through the third month, then returning to normal in the sixth month.

Moreover, Brick (1991) represents the four stages as euphoria, depression, adjustment and acceptance in Figure 1.
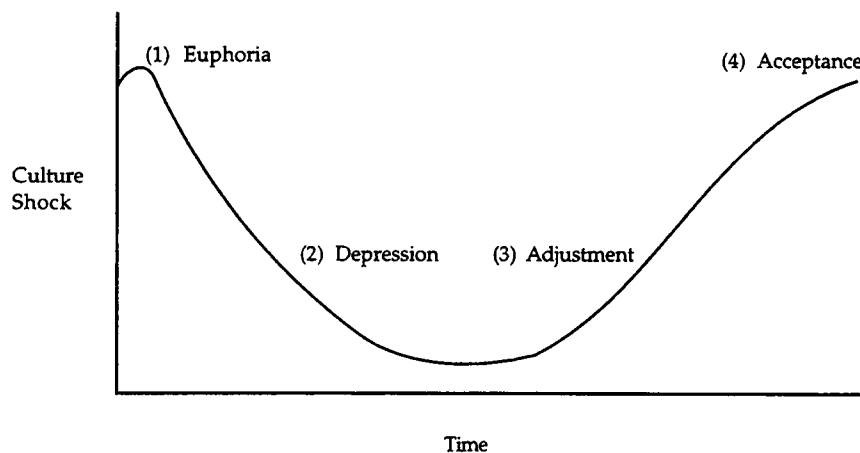
Figure 1: U-curve Adjustment Process of Culture Shock

Source: Brick, J. (1991). <u>China: A handbook in intercultural communication.</u> Sydney: Macquarie University. p. 34.

W-Curve Hypothesis

The W-shaped curve theory is basically similar to the U-shaped curve. There are two kinds of W-curves. One is simply to add the re-entry stage to the U-curve, and another is the extension of the U-curve. Gullaborn and Gullaborn (1963) find that once sojourners return to their home country, they often

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undergo a similar re-acculturation process; thus, the double U, is W. Levine and Adelman (1982) describe W-curve adjustment that is illustrated in Figure 2.

Rhinesmith (1975) describes each stage as follows,

(1) Honeymoon Period. Initially sojourners are fascinated and excited by the new. They are elated to be in a new culture.

(2) Culture Shock. The sojourners are immersed in new problems: housing, transportation, shopping, and language. Mental fatigue occurs from continuous strain to comprehend the second language.
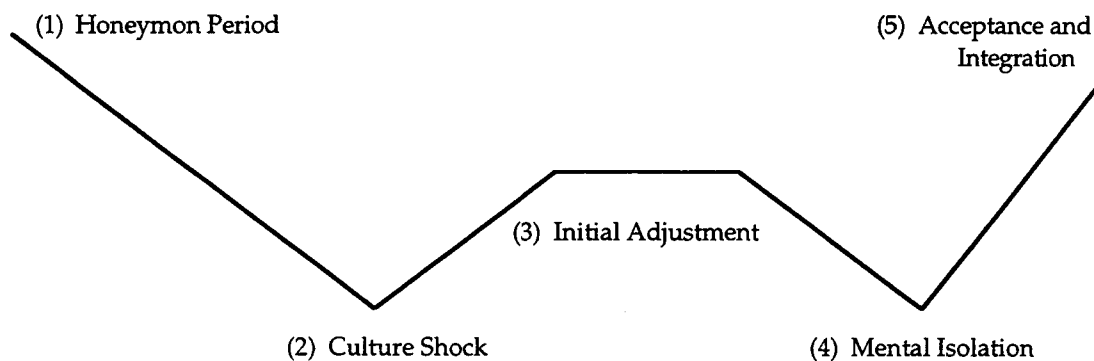
Figure 2: W-curve Adjustment Process of Culture Shock

Source: Levine, D. R. & Adelman, M. B. (1982). Beyond language: Intercultural communication for English as a second language. NJ: Englewood Cliffs, Prentice-Hall Inc. p. 198.

(3) Initial Adjustment. Everyday activities are no longer major problems. Although the sojourner may not be fluent in the language spoken, basic ideas and feelings can be expressed with the second language.

(4) Mental Isolation. The sojourners have been away from their family for a long period and may feel lonely. Many still feel they cannot express themselves with the second language. Frustration and a loss of self-confidence result. Some sojourners remain at this stage.

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(5) Acceptance and Integration. Routine has been established. The sojourners have accepted the habits, customs, foods, and characteristics of the people in the new culture. They feel comfortable with friends, associates and the language of the country.

The W-curve suggested by the Gullahorns entailed the significant problems of "return adjustment," which arise when the sojourner typically found himself/herself out of phase with his/her home culture on his/her return. Other researchers, such as Cajoleas (1959), David (1971), Brislin & Van Buren (1973), and Gama & Pedersen (1977) also examine the Re-entry culture shock theory. Rhinesmith's (1975) re-entry adjustment process is presented in Figure 3.

Rhinesmith's (1975) describes the re-entry adjustment processes as the following,

(1) Acceptance and Integration. The returnees are excited with their return home. They have high expectations of the results of their sojourn.

(2) Return Anxiety. There may be confusion and emotional pain with disrupted friendships. Many people realize how much they have changed because of their sojourn and may be nervous about going home.
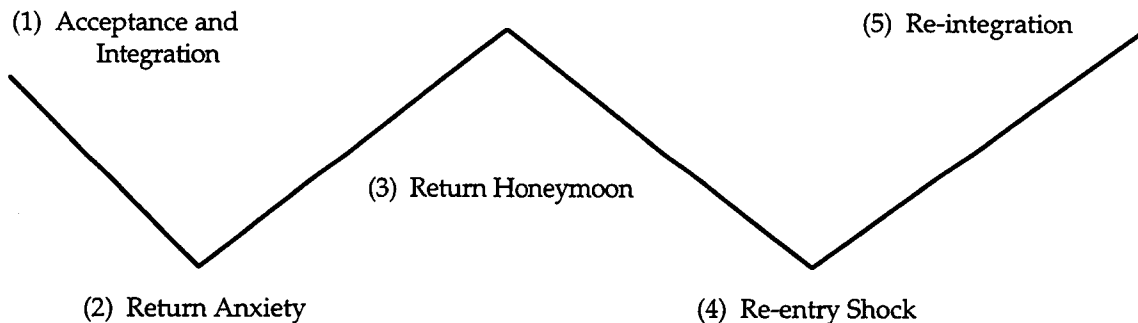
Figure 3: W-shaped Curve of the Re-entry Adjustment Process

Source: Levine, D. R. & Adelman, M. B. (1982). <u>Beyond language: Intercultural communication for English as a second language.</u> NJ: Englewood Cliffs, Prentice-Hall Inc. p. 199.

(3) Return Honeymoon. With the arrival in one's own country, there is excitement. There is something to look forward.

(4) Re-entry Shock. Family and friends may not understand or appreciate what the sojourners have experienced. The native country or city may have changed in the eyes of the returnees.

(5) Re-integration. The returnees become fully involved with friends, family and activities and feel once again integrated in the home. Many people at this stage realize the positive and negative aspects of both countries and have a more balanced perspective about their experiences.

Some recent investigations have produced results which did not support both the U-curve and W-curve theories. Klineberg and Hull (1979) study international students at campuses around the world, and conclude that their data provide insignificant support for the U-curve hypothesis. They also find that the process of adjustment does not relate to the duration of the foreign sojourn. In addition, Baldassini & Flaherty (1982) analyze the acculturation process of Colombian immigrants in New Jersey, and find that adjustment is not correlated to time for adults, but is for children. Furthermore, in a review of the U-curve literature, Church (1982) finds some evidence from seven studies which proved that the U-curve hypothesis is weak, and overgeneralized. He concludes, (1) not all sojourners start off excited, optimistic, and happy, in fact, some are depressed and anxious right from the beginning; (2) some people never become anxious, or unhappy, and enjoy the experience of adjusting to the culture right

from the start; and (3) those U-curves have dramatically different shapes--all are fairly irregular.

A similar theory can be found in Furnham & Bochners' (1986) study. They believe that the U-curve hypothesis is too vague and too generalized to be of much use in predicting or understanding sojourner adjustment. They argue,

> There may be something salvageable in the U-curve hypothesis, but more sensitive, complex, and longitudinal research will need to be done to determine either its existence or usefulness, and this work will need to be placed more firmly within a general theoretical framework. (p. 132)

Conclusion

The severity of culture shock depends on many factors, such as the individual's personality, language ability, and emotional support. It is also influenced by the extent of the differences, either actual or perceived by individual between the two cultures. For example, a sojourner may be unprepared to confront another culture. His/her previous enculturation has prepared him/her to operate only in his/her native world, not in an alien culture. The lack of cultural knowledge results in stress, and information overload. Yet, culture shock can also be viewed as a beneficial experience. Understanding culture shock opens doors to successfully adjust to a cross-cultural environment. The benefits include culture learning, a greater self-awareness, preparation for future encounters, and an international outlook. This chapter has reviewed the literature of the history of culture shock from different perspectives: anthropological, psychological, sociological, and linguistic. This review has also revealed several unresolved issues, and controversies. Lastly, sojourner adjustment was discussed, as well as a number of determinants of culture shock.

CHAPTER III

METHOD AND PROCEDURE

Introduction

This chapter describes the methods used in the development of this dissertation. The basic objective of this investigation was to ascertain and to analyze the effects of culture shock on ESL students' adjustment as regards to seven demographic factors.

In order to meet the objective of this study, the survey was conducted utilizing a self-report, paper-and-pencil format. Since the purpose of this study was to correlate the aspects of culture shock and some demographic factors to measure cross-cultural adaptation, the descriptive correlational survey method is considered the most suitable method (Fox, 1969).

Thus, in this chapter, the following areas were clarified: (1) design of the study, (2) subjects, (3) sampling procedures, (4) instrumentation, (5) validity and reliability of the instrument, (6) data collection procedures, (7) data analysis, and (8) chapter summary.

Design of the Study

This study represents a descriptive correlational survey approach to research. The survey which is the Culture Shock Inventory (CSI), was developed by this researcher. The CSI (Appendix B) consists of three parts. The first part of

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the CSI included 12 questions that involved some demographic factors, such as age, gender and martial status to measure cross-cultural adaptation.

The second part of the CSI included questions dealing with linguistic, sociological and psychological culture shock aspects. The linguistic section consisted of 15 questions, the sociological section consisted of 14 questions, and the psychological section consisted of 11 questions. These were measured by a four-point Likert-type scale ((1) strongly agree, (2) agree, (3) disagree, and (4) strongly disagree). The advantage of this method is that it is easy to answer.

The third part of the CSI included six open-ended questions. They were descriptive in nature. They aimed at soliciting the ESL students' opinions and thoughts on their own life experiences in the United States in order to broaden the scope of information and investigation. These questions were indicative of contacts with the target culture, which relate to the aspects of culture shock. They offered an opportunity to the ESL students to describe and discuss their feelings and views about their daily life activities, which helped the researcher investigate the reasons, which cause culture shock.

The study began with the distribution of the cover letter (Appendix A), the consent form (Appendix B), and the questionnaires (Appendix D-G) to the native speakers of Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and Spanish who study English as a Second Language in ELI at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville. The accompanying cover letter explained the purpose of the study and asked for the ESL students' participation by signing of the consent form, and by the completion of the questionnaire. The questionnaire asked for the students to identify some demographic factors and their relationships with the aspects of culture shock. In addition, the survey method followed a self-report, paper-and pencil format. It took less than 20 minutes to answer all the questions. The

researcher oversaw the distribution and collection of completed questionnaires at the ELI. Each item of the instrument was then examined to judge its relevance to the research of the factors, which may contribute to the subjects' culture shock adjustment.

Subjects

This study was designed for the utilization of international students, who enrolled in The English as a Second Language classes in the English Language Institute at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, during the 1997-1998 academic year. Specifically, this research study was only limited to those ESL students who were native speakers of Chinese, Korean, Japanese, and Spanish. Members of this population were non-immigrant ESL students.

According to the data obtained from the Registrar's office, Fall 1997, at the English Language Institute, 93 international students were enrolled. The students were from 22 countries and areas, with a broad range of diversity of cultures. Among them, there were 66 international students who are the native speakers of Chinese, Korean, Japanese, and Spanish, which represents the majority of the population at the ELI. Specifically, 44 students come from Korea, who were significantly higher in attendance rates for ESL classes in the ELI. Seven students come from Japan, six students come from Taiwan, five students come from Colombia, three students come from Venezuela, and one student comes from People's Republic of China. Table 1 shows the distribution of the student population.

Table 1

The Distribution of Student Population

Rank	Country of Origin	Student Population	Returned Questionnaires	Percentage of Returns
1	Korea	44	37	84%
2	Japan	7	6	86%
3	Taiwan	6	5	83%
4	Colombia	5	3	60%
5	Venezuela	3	2	67%
6	China	1	1	100%
Total No.	6	66	54	82%

The subjects for this study ranged in age from 18 to 36 years old, and were students ranging from the beginning level to the advanced level of the English language proficiency. The sample of students was 20 males and 34 females.

Sampling Procedures

Before starting the project, the researcher discussed the study with selected administrators, ESL instructors and international students at the ELI. They indicated a great deal of interest and support, and agreed to assist in this research. A list of all international students enrolled at the ELI in the Fall

semester of 1997 was requested from the Registrar's Office. After obtaining the list, 66 students who were the native speakers of Chinese, Korean, Japanese, and Spanish were selected from the seven ESL grammar classes to participate in this study.

Then, this researcher discussed the project in detail with the ESL instructors, and succeeded in getting their agreement to hand-deliver the questionnaire to their students. From the 66 students who received the questionnaires, 54 students completed and returned them to this researcher. By Dec. 15, 1997, 54 questionnaires were received, at a return rate of 82%.

Instrumentation

In order to collect the desired data and to test the research hypotheses, an original instrument was developed by this researcher to best suit the ESL students' situations, since no appropriate instrument was found in the published literature on the phenomenon of culture shock. The development of this instrument followed an extensive attempt which included searching the literature for information regarding demographic factors, such as age, gender, marital status and their relationships with culture shock. Specifically, the following culture shock instruments were examined: The Michigan International Study Problem Inventory (Porter, 1963); The Culture Shock Inventory (Reddin & Powell, 1975); The Research Instrument (Shandiz, 1981); The Culture Shock Adaptation Inventory (Juffer, 1983); The T.S.U. Study of Cross-cultural Adaptation (Onyemenem, 1988); Questionnaire (Okamoto, 1991); and Interview Questions (Gao, 1994). Furthermore, the researcher consulted with several

faculty members having expertise in the area of Foreign Language Education, Sociology and Psychology, and with some international students who study at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville. In addition, the questionnaire was presented to the doctoral committee of the researcher for critique. Based upon the comments and suggestions of the committee members, revisions were made. The committee assisted in and approved the final draft of the instrument.

The questionnaire consisted of three parts, designed to survey the subjects' demographic information, including age, gender, marital status, nationality, length of staying in the U.S., previous travel experience in other countries, and number of American friends, and their effects on culture shock aspects, which include linguistic difficulty, sociological difficulty, and psychological difficulty.

The Culture Shock Inventory Part I consisted of 12 questions to survey the subjects' personal information by using a multiple-choice format. Part II consisted of three sections with a total of 40 questions. The linguistic section was designed to test students' language proficiency regarding speaking, listening, reading, writing, grammar, and comprehension ability. The sociological section was designed to test students' social, behavior, and culture value difficulties. The psychological section was designed to test anxiety, frustration, fear, homesickness and hostility and physical panic of the ESL students. Part III consisted of six questions dealing with the ESL students' general feelings and ideas of the life in the United States.

The instrument was then translated into Chinese, Korean, Japanese, and Spanish to ensure full comprehension of the content by several of The University of Tennessee, Knoxville doctoral students who are native speakers of the

languages, and who also have a superior level of English proficiency (Appendixes D-G). The instrument took approximately 20 minutes to complete.

Validity and Reliability of the Instrument

Gay (1992) mentions, "validity is the degree to which a test measures what it is supposed to measure and, consequently, permits appropriate interpretation of scores" (p. 138). Thus, the instrument was tested by a pilot study to approve its effectiveness. Before data collection, the self-administered questionnaire was pretested by 10 ESL students who are native speakers of Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and Spanish. These students were enrolled in the ESL classes at Pellissippi State Technical Community College and Maryville College. One of the main focuses of the pilot study was to check whether the wording of the items of the questionnaire was easy to read and to interpret by the members of the sample. The results indicated that all questions were free of words, idioms, syntax, and none of them appeared to be too vague to answer. Very minor changes were subsequently made on the format of the questionnaire.

Furthermore, the doctoral committee of this dissertation was used to establish content validity. Each item of the instrument was judged according to its relevance of the factors that may contribute to culture shock adaptation.

In addition, Cronbach (1949) states that the construct validity includes testing the research hypotheses empirically. The hypotheses in this study consisted of whether ESL students' demographic factors actually relate to culture shock. The present study is a correlational research, according to Gay (1992). It is a correlational study, which provides an estimate of how related dependent, and independent variables are.

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Gay (1992) also states that reliability is the degree to which a test consistently measures whatever it measures. Reliability is expressed as a coefficient; a high coefficient indicates a high reliability. The reliability of the instrument used in this research study was calculated and tested by the Computing Center at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville following the pilot study. The reliability was determined by the Cronbach Alpha Coefficient Test. Cronbach Alpha is the most commonly used reliability coefficient for multiple-item measures in educational research (Gay, 1992). The Reliability estimate of the Section I of Part II of the questionnaire was .81; the Section II of Part II of the questionnaire was .51; and the Section III of Part II of the questionnaire was .70. Thus, the estimate reliability of the instrument of this dissertation was .67, which indicated a high reliability. The statistical results are reported in Chapter IV of this dissertation.

Data Collection Procedures

After selecting the sample and establishing the instrument, as well as securing the cooperation of the ELI administrators, the researcher filed Form A with the Human Subjects Committee at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville on Oct. 15, 1997, and gained permission to collect data starting on Oct. 30, 1997. The research began with each ESL classroom instructor handing the cover letter and questionnaire to their ESL students on Dec. 15, 1997. The cover letter explained the study and invited the ESL students to participate in the study by returning the questionnaire. The consent form was embedded in the cover letter. The students were told to avoid writing their names anywhere on the questionnaire. They were also permitted to use a dictionary to find out the

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meaning of any words, which were difficult to understand on the Culture Shock Inventory.

The questionnaire was handed out by the ESL instructors, and then collected by the researcher after completion. Sixty-six copies of the questionnaire were handed out at same time, and 54 students returned them for a return rate of 82%. Then, this researcher used all questionnaires to analyze the data for this dissertation.

Data Analysis

The descriptive correlational survey method was selected to be the most suitable method to data analysis of the 40 closed-ended questions. The data analysis began with the screening and reading of the returned questionnaires. Data gathered from the questionnaires were then coded and analyzed with the Stat-Star program on a personal computer.

This study was essentially correlational research, and the data on the questionnaire were interval data, correlational statistics (i.e. standard deviations, correlation coefficients, coefficients of determination, and significance tests), were employed for analyzing the closed-ended questions. Gay (1992) confirms that correlational research involves collecting data in order to determine whether, and to what degree, a relationship exists between two or more variables. This kind of study provides an estimate of how related dependent and independent variables are. The data analysis and testing of the research hypotheses involved the use of the Product Moment Correlation Coefficient method, which is referred to as the Pearson r. The Pearson r is the appropriate coefficient for determining a relationship between variables. It ranges from -1.00 through 0 to

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+1.00. The negative sign means that increasing amounts of one variable are associated with decreasing amounts of the other variable. On the other hand, the positive sign means that increasing amounts of one variable are associated with increasing amounts of the other variable, and if the coefficient is near .00, the variables are not related (MacDougall and Stevens, 1994, p. 23). Thus, the correlation coefficient expresses the degree of relationship of any two variables in a specific population. In this study, for the 40 close-ended questions, the dependent variables, which are aspects of culture shock, were tested against independent variables (i.e. demographic factors). All hypotheses were tested at the .05 level or better ($p < .05$).

In addition, qualitative methodology was applied to the six open-ended questions for thematic analysis. The data were divided into categories, then themes were created based on the discovered categories of information, followed by the analysis of these themes. This researcher started the first step with the translations of the six questions. The translations were read and reread by the researcher in order to discover regularities and patterns, as well as topics (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982). The second step was sorting and grouping all the categories of information; the third step was putting all categories together. The researcher was then able to identify the different topics. Finally, in the fourth step, the researcher classified the data into different themes. These themes present the ESL students' feelings of like and dislike of life in the U.S. which may contribute to culture shock. Therefore, the descriptive and thematic analysis allowed the researcher to describe the factors, which may affect culture shock.

Chapter Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to offer support to the methodology used by the researcher in this study. It introduced the subjects, instrument, procedures, data collection and analysis. The correlational survey method was utilized. The population was ESL students who were native speakers of Chinese, Japanese, Korean and Spanish, and studied at the ELI at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville during the academic year of 1997-1998. Questionnaires were given to students during class sessions and then collected after they were completed.

The survey instrument was developed by the researcher on the bases of literature review and research purpose. The questionnaire was composed of three parts. It was pretested with 10 ESL students. Of 66 students who received the questionnaires, 54 completed and returned them at a return rate of 82%. The responses to the questionnaires were then coded, tabulated, and analyzed by the researcher. Data analysis was mainly conducted by using the Stat-Star program on a personal computer. The correlation coefficient method was used to test the relationships between the seven demographic factors with the three aspects of culture shock. For the six open-ended data, qualitative methods were used for thematic analysis. Results of the data analysis will appear in Chapter IV of this dissertation.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

This study was designed to investigate the relationships between seven demographic factors and linguistic, sociological and psychological aspects of culture shock to measure the ESL students' cross-culture adjustment. Therefore, this chapter presents the following results of data analysis: (1) the reliability of the Culture Shock Inventory (CSI), (2) analysis and presentation of the findings of Part I (40 close-ended questions) of the Culture Shock Inventory, (3) analysis and presentation of the findings of Part II (six open-ended questions) of the Culture Shock Inventory, and (4) summary.

The sample population of this study consisted of 54 ESL students who were enrolled in the English Language Institute at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville during the 1997-1998 academic year. Statistical testing of the hypotheses was performed by using Stat-Star program on a personal computer. The analysis of the data of the closed-ended questions was accomplished using the Peason Correlation Coefficient method. The distribution of the ESL students' bibliographical data, and distribution of the ESL students' responses of the questionnaire is presented in this chapter. Moreover, the analysis of the data of the open-ended questions performed using qualitative methods, is also summarized and presented in Chapter IV.

Furthermore, the first seven tables (Tables 1 through 7) show the effects of the ESL students' age, gender, marital status, nationality, length of staying in

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the U.S., previous travel experience in other countries, and number of American friends and their perceptions toward the culture shock aspects linguistically, sociologically, and psychologically. The additional tables (Tables 8 through 13) present characteristics of ESL students' responses about their American life that may contribute to culture shock.

Reliability of the Culture Shock Inventory

In order to examine the reliability of the questionnaire, Cronbach's Reliability Coefficient Alpha was used. Cronbach Coefficient Alpha is the most commonly used reliability coefficient for multiple-item measures, and it is useful to assess homogeneity of the test instrument (Bausell, 1986). The Computing Center of The University of Tennessee, Knoxville helped test the items in the questionnaire following a pilot study conducted by the researcher. By using the SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) program on a personal computer, the calculating result of the Cronbach's Alpha of the instrument was .67. The estimated reliability of Section I (15 linguistic items) of the instrument was .81, the estimated reliability of Section II (14 sociological items) of the instrument was .51, and the estimated reliability of Section III (11 psychological items) of the instrument was .70. In comparing with the reliability coefficients of instruments developed through dissertations, such as Juffer's Culture Shock Adaptation Inventory: 53 to 92; and Chung's Culture Shock Adaptation Questionnaire: 75 to 86, the numbers in the instrument of this dissertation indicate that the intercorrelations of items are high enough to establish a good reliability. Table 2 shows the reliability of the instrument of this study.

Table 2

The Reliability of the Culture Shock Inventory

	Linguistic Aspects	Sociological Aspects	Psychological Aspects	Total
Number of Items	15	14	11	40
Reliability Estimates	.81	.51	.70	.67

Analysis and Presentation of Findings of

the Culture Shock Inventory (Part I)

Analysis and Presentation of the ESL Students' Bibliographical Data

Table 3 is a summary of the bibliographical data controlled for age, gender, martial status, nationality, length of staying in the U.S., previous travel experience of other countries, and number of American friends.

Based on the demographic data collected form the 54 ELI students, Table 3 indicates that the majority of the students (69%) had ages ranging from 19 to 25. Sixty-three percent of the sample of international students was female and 37% was male. Among them, 15 male students came from Korea, three male students came from Japan, one came from Colombia, and one came from Taiwan. In addition, 22 female students came from Korea, four from Taiwan, three from Japan, two from Colombia, two from Venezuela, and one from

Table 3

Distribution of ESL Students by Biographical Data

Categories	Number of the students	Percentage of the students
Age		
18 or less	6	11
19-25	37	69
26-35	11	20
Total	54	100
Gender		
Female	34	63
Male	20	37
Total	54	100
Martial Status		
Single	41	76
Married	13	24
Total	54	100

Table 3 (continued)

Distribution of ESL Students by Biographical Data

Categories	Number of the students	Percentage of the students
Nationality		
China	1	1.8
Colombia	3	5.6
Korea	37	68.5
Japan	6	11.1
Taiwan	5	9.3
Venezuela	2	3.7
Total	54	100
Length of Staying in the U.S.		
Less than one year	30	55.6
1-2 years	18	33.3
2-3 years	6	11.1
3-4 years	0	0.0
Total	54	100

Table 3 (continued)

<u>Distribution of ESL Students by Biographical Data</u>

Previous Travel Experience in Other Countries		
None	22	40.7
1 country	13	24.1
2 countries	14	25.9
3 countries	3	5.6
4 countries	1	1.85
5 countries or more	1	1.85
Total	54	100

American Friends		
None	7	12.96
1 friend	7	12.96
2 friends	13	24.08
3 friends	11	20.37
4 friends	7	12.96
5 friends or more	9	16.67
Total	54	100

China.

Of the 54 sample students, the larger proportion, 41 students (76%), were single and 13 students (24%) of the students were married. Furthermore, 37 Korean students constituted 68.5% of the total population. In this study, Asian students constituted 90.7%, and Latin American students only constituted 9.3% of the total population.

As seen in Table 3, 30 students (55.6%) reported being in the United States for one year or less, whereby 18 students (33%) reported having studied in this country for one to two years. However, only six students (11.1%) said that the length of their stay was between two to three years. No student in the sample reported a stay in the U.S. being over three years.

In Table 3, compiled from the research data, 40.7% of the total population reported that they did not have any previous travel experience in other countries before they came to the United States. Thirteen students (24.1%) said that they had traveled to one country other than their own countries and the United States; 14 students (25.9%) reported that they had traveled to two countries besides their own countries and the United States; and five students (9.3%) reported that they had traveled to three or more countries.

The question about the students' American friends was considered a possible indicator of interest in getting to know American culture. Several researchers, such as Sewell and Davidsen (1965), Gezi (1965), and Searle and Ward (1990), suggested that students who have a desire to establish a personal relationship with people from another country were likely to exhibit less culture shock. The students were asked to report the number of their American friends in the questionnaire. Table 3 shows the variety of their responses to this question. About 13% of the students reported they had no American friends,

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another 13% of the students said they had one American friend, and another 13% said they had four American friends. However, the majority of the population (24%) reported that they had only two American friends. The next section will present ESL students' responses to the research questionnaire.

Analysis and Presentation of ESL Students' Responses of the Questionnaire

Revealed in Table 4 is the frequency distribution of the 54 students' responses to the 40 closed-ended questions in the Culture Shock Inventory (CSI).

As shown in Table 4, students responded to each item of the CSI. In Section I (linguistic factors), items 1 through 4 dealt with students' general feelings and attitudes of learning and using the English language. Item 1 indicated that 48 students (89% of the total population) felt nervous communicating in English. Items 2 and 3 showed that most of the sample students in the study believed that it was wrong to use language problems as an excuse to do poor work. They also hoped that they could have more opportunities to speak English at the ELI. Interestingly, item 4 described that the majority of the surveyed students (94%) only spoke their native languages (not English) with students from their native countries.

Items 5, 6, and 7 indicated how much time students spend on learning English speaking, listening, and reading skills. Responses showed that 45 students (83%) spent a great amount of time watching American TV or movies every week. Although most students did not spend a great amount of time listening to American radio, they did on reading American newspapers, magazines and books each week (83%).

Table 4

Frequency Distribution of ESL Students' Responses of the Questionnaire

Variable/Item Number	N	Distribution of Responses			
		SA	A	D	SD
Section I					
1	54	16	32	5	1
2	54	5	34	12	3
3	54	2	5	25	22
4	54	30	21	2	1
5	54	9	36	9	0
6	54	1	25	24	4
7	54	13	24	15	2
8	54	12	32	8	1
9	54	18	30	3	3
10	54	7	36	11	0
11	54	9	39	3	3
12	54	23	22	5	4
13	54	13	33	6	2
14	54	2	16	31	5
15	54	5	33	13	3
Section II					
1	54	3	19	24	8
2	54	5	7	28	14
3	54	5	42	6	1
4	54	4	26	18	6
5	54	0	11	22	21
6	54	16	25	12	1
7	54	0	16	26	12
8	54	6	31	14	3

Table 4 (continued)

Frequency Distribution of the ESL Students' Responses of the Questionnaire

Variable/Item Number	N	Distribution of Responses			
		SA	A	D	SD
9	54	7	39	6	2
10	54	3	19	29	3
11	54	3	22	28	1
12	54	6	21	25	2
13	54	8	28	16	2
14	54	6	41	7	1
Section III					
1	54	4	19	21	10
2	54	16	26	9	3
3	54	2	11	27	14
4	54	8	17	21	8
5	54	1	17	27	8
6	54	15	27	9	3
7	54	5	28	19	2
8	54	3	25	23	3
9	54	0	4	40	10
10	54	2	22	24	6
11	54	2	27	18	7

Note: SA, Strongly Agree
       A, Agree
       D, Disagree
       SD, Strongly Disagree

Items 8, 9, 10, and 11 indicated the students' English comprehension ability. The majority of students agreed or strongly agreed that their oral English proficiency, listening comprehension and English grammar was at the beginning or intermediate level. Eighty-three percent of the total students reported that their oral English ability was limited, but that they were able to order meals, get a hotel room, and go shopping. Also, 89% students described that they could understand and answer simple questions, and negotiate simple situations in English. In addition, 41 students (76%) answered that their English grammar was limited.

In items 12 through 15, students described their English speaking, listening, reading and writing problems. Most students felt that speaking (83%), listening (83%), and writing (70%) were troublesome, but that reading (33%) was less bothersome.

In Section II (sociological factors), the distribution of responses indicated the students' general opinions and feelings about their social life in the U.S. The answers to item 1 showed that half of the students felt that their life at the U.S. was more exciting than in their home countries. Also, most students (83%) felt that the U.S. was not similar to their home countries in many ways. Forty-seven students (89%) agreed or strongly agreed that life in the U.S. sometimes was inconvenient, but was generally acceptable. Furthermore, item 4 indicated that half of the sample students were not surprised by the way Americans live (students were not surprised about the way Americans dress themselves, their living customs, or the way Americans greet each other).

Items 5, 6, 7, and 8 described the students' social lives and social behaviors in the U.S. None of the students (0%) strongly agreed that they were highly involved in American social life. However, the majority of the students (78%)

agreed or strongly agreed that they felt more comfortable with their native people than with Americans (item 6). Only 16 (30%) students felt, but none strongly felt that they tried to be like Americans (item 7). In fact, most students (68%) often worried about their social behavior in the U.S. (item 8). For example, they worried about the way to greet American people, ask their American friends for help, or communicate with American teachers.

Items 9, 10, 11, 12, and 13 described students' feelings about American people. Item 9 indicated that the majority of the students (83%) felt that Americans are polite and friendly. Less than half of the students (41%) felt that they were disappointed about Americans' social behavior (item 10). In item 11, 46% of the students answered that they received unequal treatment from Americans. Interestingly, half of the students (50%) agreed or strongly agreed that Americans appreciated ESL students' cultural values (item 12). Moreover, most students (67%) felt that they were hesitant to talk about their feelings with Americans (item 13). Again, item 14 indicated that the majority of the students (83%) could negotiate ordinary social situations in their daily life in the U.S.

Additionally, in Section III (psychological factors) of the questionnaire, students described their psychological and physical situations. Less than half of the students (43%) felt that they were more depressed in the U.S. than in their home countries. Also, the majority of the students (78%) expressed their feeling of homesickness (item 2). In item 3, only 13 students (24%) reported that they were physically sick more in the U.S. than they were at home. Interestingly, almost half of the students (46%) indicated that they did not like American food (item 4). Furthermore, most students (65%) answered that they did not feel absent-minded more in the U.S. than they were at home (item 5). However, most students (78%) reported that they worried more often in the U.S. than in

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their home countries (item 6). In item 7, more than half of the students (61%) were concerned about getting cheated in the U.S. Again, half of the students felt more lonely in the U.S. (item 8) than in their own countries. However, in item 9, only four students (7%) agreed that their memory was poor in the U.S. In addition, almost half of the students agreed or strongly agreed that they felt more tired, and that they more easily lost tempers over little things in the U.S. than they did at home (items 10, and 11). The next section will present the relationship between ESL students' demographic factors and culture shock aspects.

Analysis and Presentation of the Relationship Between Demographic Factors and Culture Shock Aspects

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients, using the Stat-Star program, were calculated to obtain precise estimates of the degree of relationships between the demographic factors and culture shock aspects of the sampled students. Table 5 presents summaries of the descriptive statistics regarding the independent variables and their relationship with culture shock aspects. The first column of the table lists the seven demographic variables. The second column shows the number of the students who participated in this study. The mean scores are presented in column three. The third column indicates the estimated standard deviation for each factor in order to show its variation. The means of the subjects' responses to each variable ranged from 1.6 to 3.6, and the estimated standard deviations ranged from 0.6 to 1.6.

Table 5

Descriptive Analysis of Demographic Variables

Source of variation	Culture Shock Aspects		
	N	Mean	estSD
Age	54	2.1	0.6
Gender	54	1.6	0.5
Martial Status	54	1.8	0.4
Nationality	54	3.3	0.9
Length of Staying in the U.S.	54	1.6	0.7
Previous Travel Experience in Other Countries	54	2.1	1.2
American Friends	54	3.6	1.6

Furthermore, Table 6 demonstrates the mean and estimated standard deviation of each culture shock aspect. The first column of the table indicates the three aspects of culture shock. The second column indicates the number of the students who participated in the study. The third column presents the mean scores, and the fourth column shows the estimated standard deviation for each aspect. The means of the subjects' responses to each factor ranged from 28.9 to 32.6, and the estimated standard deviations ranged from 3.0 to 3.8.

Table 6

Descriptive Analysis of Culture Shock Aspects

Source of variation	Demographic Factors		
	N	Mean	estSD
Linguistic Culture Shock	54	32.6	3.0
Sociological Culture Shock	54	34.2	2.4
Psychological Culture Shock	54	28.9	3.8

Additionally, Table 7 indicates the Pearson Correlation Coefficient (r) between the demographic factors and culture shock aspects. As seen in Table 7, the effects of the ESL students' age, gender, martial status, nationality, length of staying in the U.S., pervious travel experience in other countries and American friends on their perceptions with regards to the linguistic, sociological and psychological aspects of culture shock are reported. All hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance.

The first hypothesis in Chapter I stated that there was no significant relationship between an ESL student's age and culture shock. The statistical findings in Table 7 do support the null hypothesis (r_{lcs} = -0.01, r_{scs} = -0.23, r_{pcs} = -0.02), therefore, based on the research result, the decision is to accept the null hypothesis of no relationship between an ESL student's age with culture shock aspects.

Table 7

Descriptive Analysis of Pearson Correlation Coefficient (r) Between Demographic Variables and Culture Shock Aspects

Source of variation	Pearson Correlation Coefficient (r)		
	LCS	SCS	PCS
Age	-0.01	-0.23	-0.02
Gender	0.16	-0.00	0.11
Martial Status	0.05	0.13	0.08
Nationality	0.07	-0.04	0.12
Length of Stay in the U.S.	0.40*	0.28*	0.39*
Previous Travel Experience in Other Countries	0.68*	0.41*	0.54*
American Friends	0.61*	0.61*	0.61*

Note: * p<.05
LCS, Linguistic Culture Shock
SCS, Sociological Culture Shock
PCS, Psychological Culture Shock

The second hypothesis of this study, the relationship between an ESL student's gender and culture shock is examined in Table 7. The correlations (rlcs = 0.16, rscs = -0.00, rpcs = 0.11) indicate that there is no relationship between an ESL student's gender and culture shock, therefore, this hypothesis is accepted.

In the third hypothesis, the calculated correlations (rlcs = 0.05, rscs = 0.13, rpcs = 0.08) show that an ESL student's martial status is not related to culture shock aspects.

Similarly, to test the fourth hypothesis of the research, the results are reported as in Table 7 (rlcs = 0.07, rscs = -0.04, rpcs = 0.12), and indicates there is no significant relationship between an ESL student's nationality with culture shock aspects. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted.

However, the statistical findings in Table 7 do not support the null hypothesis of no significant relationship between an ESL student's length of stay in the U.S. and culture shock aspects (the fifth hypothesis). The correlations (rlcs = 0.4, rscs = 0.28, rpcs = 0.39) revealed that the null hypothesis is rejected.

The sixth hypothesis stated that there was no significant relationship between an ESL student's previous travel experience in other countries and culture shock. The correlations (rlcs = 0.68, rscs = 0.41, rpcs = 0.54) support the null hypothesis to be rejected. Therefore, it can be concluded that previous travel experience in other countries and culture shock aspects are significantly related to each other.

Lastly, in testing of the seventh hypothesis, the correlations (rlcs = 0.61, rscs = 0.61, rpcs = 0.61) indicate that there is a significant relationship between the number of an ESL student's American friends and culture shock aspects, therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Analysis and Presentation of Findings of

the Culture Shock Inventory (Part II)

In order to capture the complexity of affective factors that include attitudes and personality of the ESL students, and to respond to the purpose of the study, and also to answer the six open-ended research questions, the following presentation format was adapted. The narrative data were first translated, read, and the discovered phenomena were then divided into categories. The categories of responses from each individual question were described in terms of the number and the percentage of participants documenting in the data.

Linguistic Difficulties

The English language problem was the major difficulty that the ESL students encountered in the beginning months of their stay in the United States. As shown in Table 8, almost 70% of the total students who were sampled mentioned that they found language to be the most difficult factor with which to cope. The students expressed having problems understanding native English speakers in both academic and daily life situations due to lack of skills in speaking, listening, reading and writing comprehension.

Expressing ideas in ESL classes is one of the most difficult situations for students. For example, one Korean respondent described that she had problems in understanding lectures and presenting herself in her classes. She wrote, "all my teachers speak very fast in the class, I can't follow them. Sometimes, I can

Table 8

Characteristics of the ESL Students' Most Difficult Experiences in the U.S.

Characteristics	Number of the students	Percentage of the students
Linguistic Difficulties		
English language use in daily life situations	24	44.4
English language use in the ESL classes	13	24.0
Social Difficulties		
Make friends with Americans	4	7.4
Racial problems and biases	3	5.5
Social behavior	3	5.5
Transportation problem	2	3.7
Financial problem	1	1.9
Psychological Difficulties		
Allergy	1	1.9
Homesickness	1	1.9
Loneliness	1	1.9
Sleeplessness	1	1.9
Total	54	100

understand a word or two. I am so nervous when the teachers call me up to answer a question." Because of their lack of confidence with English, ESL students are afraid to speak in class. In a similar situation, another Korean respondent indicated that she had tremendous problems in understanding slang and idiomatic expressions. She said, "I enjoy learning slang, it is fun, but there are so much of slang, which need to be learned, and I do not know how to use them correctly." Interestingly, most comments on difficulty were related with studying for the TOEFL exam. One Taiwan respondent wrote, "in my life, I can not find anything which is more difficult than passing the TOEFL test."

In daily situations, one Japanese respondent said, "I tried to open an account in a bank, but I couldn't express what I wanted to say. The bank assistant lost patience because of my English. I had to ask a friend to come to the bank and help with interpretation." Similarly, one Taiwan respondent described that she had English language difficulties in a hospital. She couldn't tell the doctor about her symptoms. She wrote, "I tried so hard to tell him about my problems. I don't think he fully understood my English. He gave me some prescriptions, unfortunately, they did not help me much."

Social Difficulties

Data presented in Table 8 indicate that some respondents (5.5%) worried about their social behavior when they are in contact with Americans. Because of the significant differences of American culture and their native cultures, students hesitate to greet and to talk with Americans. They are afraid of doing or saying inappropriate things.

Data also showed that some respondents (5.5%) experienced racial biases. One Japanese female student and one Venezuelan female student mentioned that the clerks in stores are warmer and more patient to American customers than to them. They said that they experienced this kind of bias often. The Venezuelan respondent wrote, "maybe because of my English, or maybe the clerks think that I can not afford to buy the stuff, they never pay any attention to me. When I ask them questions, they always show less interest in me."

Interestingly, one Korean respondent described Americans who are around him often laugh at students' English accents. They have prejudices against international students, not personally to a particular one, but to all international students. He wrote, "I don't feel discrimination at the beginning, people were warm to me, but when I stay longer, I can find some discrimination here."

Another major social difficulty was friends and friendship. Friendship with Americans is a topic, which elicited various responses from respondent to respondent. Since there is a great difference in the concept of friends and friendship in American culture and the students' own cultures, some students find that making real friends with Americans is their most difficult experience.

One respondent expressed, "my American friends are nice, polite to me, they always say some nice things about me. However, I can't ask them for help, such as having a ride for shopping. It's hard to have a deep relationship with them." Furthermore, another respondent described, "I am afraid to describe my feeling to my American friends, because I do not think they really care about or understand me. We never talk about personal things or family matters when we get together. We only talk about news, weather, movies, music, or school matters." Again, one Taiwan respondent considered her American friends as

temporary friends. She wrote, "I think we are friends now, we meet often, we talk and have fun, but soon after I finish my study here, we will have no contact at all."

Other sociological difficulties include transportation and financial problems. Respondents mentioned that they felt life is very inconvenient because they cannot go anywhere without a car. Also, living costs and tuition are expensive in the U.S.

Psychological Difficulties

Four respondents reported that their psychological problems in the U.S. were difficult with which to cope. One male respondent stated, "I have been here four months, I still feel tired. I sleep a lot, but still can not deal with the time difference. Also, I have a bad appetites." One female respondent experienced a terrible allergy in East Tennessee. Similarly, another female respondent who just arrived at the ELI two months ago reported feelings that she suffers homesickness tremendously. She described that there was neither a family's love nor close friends. In addition, loneliness is another psychological symptom, which was also mentioned by a Korean respondent.

Likes of American Life

Table 9 shows that students, in general, are satisfied with their life in the U.S. They expressed some thoughts concerning how did they enjoy their new lives.

Table 9

Characteristics of Most Likeness of American Life and American People

Characteristics	Number of the students	Percentage of the students
American Life		
Exciting	20	37
Freedom	13	24
Convenient	10	18
Clean environment	8	15
Equal human rights	3	6
Total	54	100
American People		
Warm, kind and polite manner	23	42
Straightforward style	13	24
Respect privacy	8	15
Open-minded	6	11
Hard-working	4	8
Total	54	100

"Life is more exciting here. Everything is new. I can meet people from all over the world. There is a new environment, a new language, new living styles, and people look so different from each other," one respondent described.

"Life is more convenient here. Everybody has a car, you can go anywhere you want. You can buy food or drink from machines. The public services make life easy," stated another respondent.

Other students felt that they enjoyed the freedom and equal human rights very much in the United States. One said, "You can do anything you like, as long as you do not against the law. Nobody cares about what you are doing." Moreover, another student reported, "I feel everybody is equal here, I can argue with my teacher in the class, I also can complain to my teacher about his/her teaching style or teaching content."

Likes of American People

Some students felt that Americans are open-minded, appreciate differentiation, and are interested in variety. Americans also respect privacy, gossip about other people is not common. Americans' warm and polite manners were highly appreciated by these ESL students. Furthermore, one Taiwan respondent described, "Americans are straightforward. If they say, 'yes,' they will do it. If they say, 'no,' they really mean it. They express their feelings, appreciation, likes or dislikes right away."

Dislikes of American Life

As indicated in Table 10, most students (52%) felt that the life in the U.S. is very stressful. The first kind of stress was academic pressure, a pressing feeling generated by school-related activities. The second kind of stress was a feeling of being uncomfortable in a new environment. All the familiarity in the home country was gone, the students had to face the challenge of adapting to a new living environment. General anxiety and worrying about the new life caused unpleasant feelings.

One respondent mentioned, "The pressure comes from school work and living arrangements. I often worry about my study, my social behavior and my health here. There are too many new things that I have to learn, such as the new language, the new living style, and the new customs. I am looking forward to going back to my own country soon." Other respondents (26%) indicated that everything is money-oriented in America. One respondent said, "You cannot go anywhere or do anything without money. Money is also the measurement of success. I can feel the coldness of this society." In addition, some students described their feeling of being unsafe and worrying about getting cheated, as well as the problems of crime and drugs in the U.S.

Dislikes of American People

In Table 10, some students (35%) reported that Americans exhibit superior attitudes toward them. One respondent said, "Americans are nice to your face,

Table 10

Characteristics of the Most Dislikes of American Life and American People

Characteristics	Number of the students	Percentage of the students
American Life		
High pressure, stress	28	52
Money-oriented	14	26
Unsafe	7	13
Crime, drug	5	9
Total	54	100
American People		
Superior attitudes	19	35
Unhonesty	17	32
Selfish	10	18
Lack of self-disciplines	8	15
Total	54	100

but they keep a distance from you. They have prejudices against you. They think that it is their country, so they know the truth." Some respondents (18%) felt that Americans only think about their own interests, so they are selfish sometimes. Also, other respondents (15%) reported that Americans have problems with self-control. A great number of Americans use drugs and alcohol, and they suffer from these problems.

A Typical Day in the ELI

All respondents (100%) described in Table 11 that they spend most of their time studying English at the ELI at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville. They attended English speaking, listening, reading, writing and grammar classes. Two-thirds of the day were related to school work and school activities. Students also indicated that they spend some of their spare time on homework, or getting together with their American friends or fellow students watching TV, or going to the movies. One respondent wrote, "I am always busy learning English. I always have a lot of homework. I also try to spend some time with friends who come from the same country as I. I can speak my own language with them, so that I can relax."

Table 11

Characteristics of a Typical Day at the ELI for ESL Students

Characteristics	Number of the students	Percentage of the students
School work and activities	54	100
Get together with friends	54	100
Leisure time activities	54	100

Impression of American Society

All respondents expressed a certain degree of having a good impression of American society. As seen in Table 12, students emphasized that this society is full of opportunity. One Asian respondent wrote, "If you work hard, you can make things happen." Another respondent also said, "This is a land of opportunity, you can realize your dreams. As long as you have your goals, and you work hard, you always can achieve your goals."

Other students were impressed by the idea of freedom and equal human rights the society. One student said that she liked the democracy of American society. Everybody must follow the law.

Table 12

Characteristics of Impression of American Society

Characteristics	Number of the students	Percentage of the students
More opportunity	19	35
Freedom	11	20
Appreciation of diversity	10	19
Advanced technology	7	13
Highly-developed society	4	7
Lawful society	3	6
Total	54	100

Interestingly, some respondents (19%) mentioned that people could fully express their individuality. This society appreciated diversity. One respondent wrote, "You can see any kind of people, dress, and behavior. You can also enjoy all kinds of cultures, customs, food and clothes of the world. You can bring your individuality into full potential in America."

Furthermore, some other impressions of the society include the high-technology. Students indicated that almost everybody can have a car, and the use of computers is very popular. Technology makes life so convenient, and the country is very well developed.

Problems with the English Language

According to most of the Asian students, English language instruction in their home countries was not systematic, and the emphasis was on grammatical analysis rather than aural and oral communication skills. Table 13 shows that students found that pronunciation, such as differentiation of certain sounds is very difficult. One Japanese respondent gave examples, the sound /r/ vs. /l/, /m/ vs. /n/ were the most troublesome sounds for him to pronounce. Moreover, slang and colloquial language constitute other major problems for students in speaking English. Students explained that slang is often used by Americans in daily situations, but is not learned in school. "I find slang and idioms bother me so much, I do not know how to interpret them and use them," one respondent said. Some students suffer the problems of having foreign accents. They commented that Americans did not understand them when they spoke English.

Some respondents (41%) indicated that their listening problem was listening to main ideas. One Korean respondent, who has just been in the U.S. for three months, wrote, "I can only understand one or two words. I have to always guess the meaning of what Americans said." Furthermore, lacking vocabulary and understanding of colloquial expressions also bothers students.

Table 13

Characteristics of the Problems of English Language

Characteristics	Number of the students	Percentage of the students
Speaking		
Pronunciation	20	37
Foreign accent	14	26
Slang	11	20
Idiom	9	17
Total	54	100
Listening		
Main ideas	22	41
Differentiation of sounds	17	31
Colloquial usage	15	28
Total	54	100
Reading		
Vocabulary	28	52
Culture background	26	48
Total	54	100
Writing		
Grammar	21	39
Tense	18	33
Preposition	8	15
Articles	5	9
Spelling	2	4
Total	54	100

In addition, some students (48%) described that understanding cultural backgrounds is important in order to fully understand the reading message. One respondent reported, "Sometimes I can read each word, but still can not understand the meaning of the paragraph. The culture meaning is embedded in words." Another respondent wrote that her vocabulary is so limited, it always takes her so much time to check dictionaries to find meaning of words, which negatively impacts her reading speed.

Lastly, some students (39%) mentioned that grammar bothers them tremendously in writing. The problems include tense, use of appropriate articles and propositions. One respondent wrote, "When I write, I often focus on putting my thoughts together, it is hard for me to also concentrate on articles or propositions." Moreover, students commented that they could not write effective English because they tended to use the grammar of their native languages. One Taiwan respondent described, "I write in Chinese first, then translate it into English, so it always does not sound like native English writing."

Summary

This chapter has presented the results of the analysis of data collected from 54 ESL students who enrolled at the ELI at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville. The chapter first presented the statistical results of the reliability of the instrument, which were calculated at the Computing Center of The University of Tennessee, Knoxville. The chapter then provided analysis and findings of the 40 closed-ended questions, which included the distribution of sample students' bibliographical data, the frequency distribution of their responses to the questionnaire, and correlations between ESL students' seven

demographic factors and linguistic, sociological and psychological aspects of culture shock. Finally, the chapter presented the findings of the six open-ended questions. The description of the characteristics of information was summarized as it was revealed in the narrative data. The conclusions, discussion of the findings of this study, and recommendations for future research will appear in Chapter V of this dissertation.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter presents a summary, conclusions of the research findings, and a discussion of these findings. Furthermore, suggestions and recommendations for future study are also presented.

Summary

Increasing numbers of international students are coming to the United States, from all over the world, to pursue their higher education. The new living and academic environment may cause the phenomenon known as culture shock. The area of culture shock research has received considerable attention since 1960. Various attempts have been made to investigate the factors of culture shock from different theoretical viewpoints, including an anthropological view, sociological theory, psychological theory and linguistic points of view. In addition, a great number of researchers has attempted to measure culture shock in order to predict successful overseas adaptation.

This research began with a plan to investigate some demographic factors which have influenced culture shock adaptation among ESL students. This was accomplished by focusing on international students selected from six different countries who were attending the English Language Institute at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville during the 1997-1998 academic year. The influence of

interacting factors on culture shock aspects, were investigated by using a Culture Shock Inventory which was developed for this research.

An extensive overview of different theories, perspectives and research of the literature provided insight for the development of the appropriate rationale, which led to the generation of the research questions for this study. Culture shock aspects (linguistic, sociological, and psychological) and demographic factors (age, gender, martial status, length of staying in the U.S., previous travel experience in other countries, and number of American friends), utilized as the dependent and independent variables, were designated by the researcher on the basis of the literature review and research purposes. Furthermore, the content validity of the instrument was established by the doctoral committee of the dissertation and a panel of faculty members who have expertise in the fields of Foreign Language/ESL Education, sociology, and psychology. The reliability of the instrument was estimated through Cronbach Correlation Alpha by the Computing Center of The University of Tennessee, Knoxville following a pilot study. The reliability of the instrument was .67. All hypotheses were supported or rejected at the .05 level of significance.

In order to test the research hypotheses, a pilot study was conducted with 10 ESL students who were enrolled at Pellissippi State Technical Community College and Maryville College to test the effectiveness of the instrument. After minor modifications, the questionnaire, which was translated into the students' native languages, was administered to 66 ESL students who were native speakers of Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and Spanish at the ELI. Of the 66

students who received the questionnaire, 54 (82%) returned the completed instrument.

The collected data were analyzed by utilizing the Stat-Star program on a personal computer. The Pearson Correlation Coefficient method (means, standard deviations, correlation coefficients, and significance test) was used to measure the relationships of culture shock aspects and the demographic factors. Moreover, qualitative methods were used to analyze the narrative data of the Culture Shock Inventory. The following section discusses research findings that were observed based on the analysis of the research instrument.

Conclusions of the Research Findings

In Chapter IV, responses of the questionnaire of the ESL students indicated that most sample students (82%) had a positive attitude toward learning English at the ELI. Students spent a great amount of time watching American TV or movies, and reading American books and newspapers. Furthermore, most students' (89%) English proficiency (i.e. speaking, listening, reading and writing abilities) was reported as being at the beginning level. In addition, speaking, listening and writing English troubled students more than reading English. Furthermore, students' responses of their social life in the U.S. indicated that none of them felt they were highly involved in American social life. Most students (78%) felt more comfortable with people of their native countries than with Americans; most students worried about their social behavior in the U.S. However, most students (83%) expressed that they could

negotiate ordinary social situations in their daily lives in the U.S. Additionally, students described their feeling of homesickness. They also reported that they worried more often in the U.S. than in their home countries.

The data, which were collected by the Culture Shock Inventory, was used to test the seven major research hypotheses in this study. The possible significant relationships between culture shock aspects and demographic factors were tested by a Pearson Correlation Coefficient. The findings appear below:

1. It was concluded that an ESL student's age did not produce a significant relationship on his/her perceptions toward the linguistic aspects of culture shock, sociological aspects of culture shock, and psychological aspects of culture shock.

2. It was concluded that an ESL student's gender did not produce a significant relationship on his/her perceptions toward the linguistic aspects of culture shock, sociological aspects of culture shock, and psychological aspects of culture shock.

3. It was concluded that an ESL student's martial status did not produce a significant relationship on his/her perceptions toward the linguistic aspects of culture shock, sociological aspects of culture shock, and psychological aspects of culture shock.

4. It was concluded that an ESL student's nationality did not produce a significant relationship on his/her perceptions toward the linguistic aspects of culture shock, sociological aspects of culture shock, and psychological aspects of culture shock.

5. It was further concluded that an ESL student's length of stay in the U.S. did produce a significant relationship on his/her perceptions toward the

linguistic aspects of culture shock, sociological aspects of culture shock, and psychological aspects of culture shock.

6. It was concluded that an ESL student's previous travel experience in other countries did produce a significant relationship on his/her perceptions toward the linguistic aspects of culture shock, sociological aspects of culture shock, and psychological aspects of culture shock.

7. It was also concluded that the number of an ESL student's American friend did produce a significant relationship on his/her perceptions toward the linguistic aspects of culture shock, sociological aspects of culture shock, and psychological aspects of culture shock.

Further conclusions can be drawn from the narrative data collected by the research instrument. The results indicated that the majority of the research subjects (68%) felt that the English language problem was their most difficult challenge in the U.S. The language problems included differentiation of certain sounds, foreign accent, slang, colloquial expressions, idioms, grammar, culture backgrounds, and passing the TOEFL exam. Moreover, some students mentioned that their social difficulties in the U.S. included making friends with Americans, experiencing racial biases, and worrying about appropriate social behavior. In addition, the students reported experiencing psychological difficulties in the U.S. that included homesickness, and loneliness.

The narrative data also indicated that the students' feelings of American life and the American people. According to the subjects, American life is both exciting and stressful. Students enjoyed freedom, convenient life, advanced technology, equal human rights, and the clean environment. On the other hand,

some students felt that American society was stressful, money-oriented, unsafe, and involved drug and crimes. On one hand, some students were very impressed by Americans' warm, kind and polite manner, straightforward style, and the way of respecting privacy. On the other hand, some students also concluded that American people were selfish, exhibited a lack of self-discipline, and had a superior attitude toward them.

Discussion of the Research Findings

A review of literature relating to the variety of difficulties experienced by the international students in this study, suggested that demographic variables such as age, gender, marital status, nationality, length of stay in the U.S., previous travel experiences in other countries, and the number of American friends may or may not relate to culture shock.

The present study confirmed Chung's (1988), and Shardiz's (1981) studies, that age, gender, marital status, and nationality are not significant related to culture shock. The study also supports Hassan's (1961), Lysgaard's (1955), and Porter's (1962) studies that the length of stay in the U.S. is a factor which has a significant impact on culture shock adaptation. This finding is contradicted to Gezi's (1965) statement in which the length of stay in the U.S. did not relate to culture shock. Furthermore, the study supports Chung's (1988) finding, that previous experiences in living in and visiting other countries has an impact on culture shock. In addition, the number of American friends appears to be a

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significant factor that relates to culture shock adaptation. The results of the present research confirmed Heilpern's (1966) and Juffer's (1983) studies.

Findings generalized from the narrative data show that most students (68%) experienced English language problems. This result supports Henderson, Milhous and Cao's (1993) study. According to Gullahorn and Gullahorn's (1966) research, international students' ability in their use of English has a great influence on their cultural adaptation to a new culture. When they suddenly face unfamiliar situations, the students may lose their self-confidence in using the English language. In addition, the non-verbal language of English, gestures, eye contact, and facial expression may also influence an individual's communicative ability. Furthermore, Benson (1978), Brislin (1981), and Church (1982) conclude that English language proficiency adversely affects academic performance, general adjustment and social interactions. Reinicke (1986) also points out that language competence raises the success rate in a foreign culture. International students experience academic and non-academic difficulties that are linked to their lack of English language proficiency.

In addition, the social difficulties that were revealed in the narrative data in this study suggested that participation in American society and activities, and interacting with American people relate to culture shock. This finding supports Arnold's (1967) and Goldsen's (1965) research. Also, racial biases that were mentioned in the data supports Alexander and Seidman's (1990), and Miller's (1971) findings. International students feel socially alienated, and they seek out primary support from people of their native country, instead of Americans.

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Therefore, international students perceive a sense of alienation which results in their feeling of social estrangement and powerlessness.

Moreover, psychological and physical difficulties include the factors of homesickness and safety. According to Pedersen's (1991) study, one of the major reasons for cross-culture adjustment problems of international students is the loss of social and emotional support, due to the separation of family and friends. This results in the students' feelings of loneliness and homesickness. Also, according to Sandhu and Asrabadi (1994), international students suffer from fears related to a sense of insecurity in unfamiliar places. These fears are often associated with reports of high crime and statistics on violence. According to Clark's (1975) study, international students are very sensitive in the verbal and nonverbal behavior by Americans. In summation, the favorable impression of American life and American people may result in a wonderful experience in the students' journey, while the negative impression of American life and American people may cause unpleasant feelings which may result in culture shock (May, 1970).

In conclusion, the primary significance of this study is that it provides generalized information about culture shock adaptation among ESL students. Findings may help ESL students in the future who are experiencing culture shock. The information may also help agencies and organizations, as well as ESL teachers in understanding ESL students' culture shock problems pursuing educational goals in the United States.

Recommendations for Further Research

The results of this study suggest the following recommendations for further culture shock research:

1. Further research into culture shock should be conducted with a wider population.

2. Further research into culture shock should also be conducted with student populations from other academic levels, not only pre-college ESL students, but also international students at undergraduate or graduate levels.

3. There is a need to survey international students who are native speakers of other language in addition to Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and Spanish.

4. Further replication of this study may be conducted with subjects who attend ESL programs at different universities, or at different geographical locations in the United States.

5. Replication studies should be conducted to verify different demographic factors, such as educational background, religious affiliation, orientation attendance, and the impact of the student's support group from his/her home country, in order to examine their relationships with culture shock.

6. A follow-up to this study should occur with the addition of an oral interview with each participating student to elicit greater descriptive detail and to provide clarification and validation of the written narrative data.

It must be noted in this study that individual differences and variations exist in an individual's adjustment to culture shock. Even in a similar setting, some students cope easily with problems, while others are easily discouraged or upset, and often feel inadequate or mistreated. In spite of individual differences, the findings reveal that all students appear to face certain problems in common and pass through the same stages, regardless of their age, gender, marital status, and nationality--characteristics that are found to be insignificant in the present research study, in relation to culture shock adjustment.

However, on the basis of the findings of present study, such variables as the length of stay in the U.S., previous travel experience in other countries, and American friends have been found to have a significant relationship with culture shock adaptation in one way or the other. In fact, there are many other factors, beside those discussed in this study, that may indeed influence an ESL student's adjustment process, his/her perception or feelings. More thought and research are certainly needed to identify on all aspects of ESL students' experience in the United States.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A: LETTER TO POTENTIAL PARTICIPANTS
EXPLAINING THE STUDY

Dear ESL student,

I am a Ph.D. student in the Foreign Language Education/ESL program at The University of Tennessee at Knoxville, and am conducting research for my doctoral dissertation. The purpose of the study is to identify some demographic factors that may relate to culture shock of non-native English speakers. Therefore, I would like to invite you to participate in this study.

Participation in this study is completely voluntary and may be terminated at any point without penalty to you. There are no risks involved in participation. It will take fewer than 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

It is the hope of this researcher that you will benefit from the process of reflection and response to the research questions, and also from the knowledge gained from the findings of this study. Your responses will be held in confidence. Code numbers will be assigned to each questionnaire prior to any reading and analysis in order to ensure anonymity. Findings of the study will be made available to all participants.

If you agree to participate, please sign the enclosed consent form, then complete the questionnaire, and return them me. I will be happy to answer any questions that you have concerning this study or your participation in it.

Thank you so much for your time and help in this study.

Sincerely,

Jingyun Li   Phone:

Doctoral Candidate, The University of Tennessee   (423) 521-0783

APPENDIX B: CONSENT FORM

Consent Form

I have been informed of the nature of this project. Its major purpose is to identify some demographic factors that affect culture shock. I have been asked to complete Culture Shock Inventory and a signed Consent Form for international students in the United States.

I understand that the information will be kept confidential and used only for research purposes. No names will be used on the questionnaires or in reporting results at conferences or in publications.

I understand that there are no anticipated risks from participation in the study.

I understand that participation is voluntary and that I may withdraw from the study without penalty.

I understand that questions about the research project may be directed to Dr. Patricia Davis-Wiley, Language Communication Humanities and Education, College of Education, University of Tennessee, Knoxville. Tel: 974-4212. E-mail: pdwiley@utk.edu

I freely consent to participate in this project under these conditions.

Signature of the participant _____

Printed name of the participant _____

If you are interested in receiving a summary of the results of this study, please write your address in the space below (including ZIP code):

_____

_____

_____

APPENDIX C: CULTURE SHOCK INVENTORY

(ENGLISH TRANSLATION)

Culture Shock Inventory

Thank you for participating in this study. The answers you provide are important since they will help make teachers more aware of new foreign students' situations. They will also be helpful to the English Language Institute in designing programs to better assist international students. Your responses can make a difference, so please answer each item as honestly as possible.

Please read the instructions for each part very carefully and follow the directions. Remember, this is not a test. There are no right or wrong answers. Only your sincere, honest, personal responses are important.

The following questionnaire has two parts:

Part I: Background information

Part II and Part III: Questions about things you may be feeling or thinking about your stay in the United States.

Culture Shock Inventory

Part I

Instructions: Please check _____ **the best answer for each question or write in your own answer. Be sure to answer every question.**

1. What is your age? _____
   - (a) 18 years old or less _____
   - (b) 19-25 _____
   - (c) 26-35 _____
   - (d) 36 years old or more _____

2. Are you? (a) male _____   (b) female _____

3. Are you? (a) married _____   (b) single _____

   If yes, does your spouse speak English? yes _____   no _____

4. What country were you born in? _____

5. What is your first (native) language? _____

6. What degree are you working toward?
   - (a) no plan _____
   - (b) Bachelors level _____
   - (c) Masters level _____
   - (d) Ph.D./Doctorate level _____

7. How long do you plan on staying in the United States?
   - (a) 0-1 year _____
   - (b) 1-2 years _____
   - (c) 2-3 years _____
   - (d) 3-4 years _____
   - (e) 4-5 years _____
   - (f) 5 years and more _____

8. How old were you when you first started learning English? _____

9. How many years of formal English instruction did you have before you came to the United States?
   - (a) 0-1 year _____
   - (b) 1-2 years _____
   - (c) 2-3 years _____
   - (d) 3-4 years _____
   - (e) 4-5 years _____
   - (f) more than 5 years _____

10. How long have you lived in the United States?

      (a) less than 1 year _____

      (b) 1-2 years _____

      (c) 2-3 years _____

      (d) 3-4 years _____

      (e) 4-5 years _____

      (f) over 5 years _____

11. How many other countries have you visited other than the U.S. and your home country?

      (a) None _____

      (b) 1 country _____

      (c) 2 countries _____

      (d) 3 countries _____

      (e) 4 countries _____

      (f) 5 countries or more _____

12. How many American friends do you have?

      (a) None _____

      (b) 1 friend _____

      (c) 2 friends _____

      (d) 3 friends _____

      (e) 4 friends _____

      (f) 5 friends or more _____

Culture Shock Inventory

Part II

Instruction: The following statements may or may not express things you are feeling and thinking. Please circle the number that most closely represents your general feelings about each statement.

1. Strongly agree   2. Agree   3. Disagree   4. Strongly disagree

Section I:

1. I feel nervous when communicating in English.   1   2   3   4

2. It is wrong to use language problems as an   1   2   3   4
   excuse for doing poor work.

3. I wish that I could speak my own language more   1   2   3   4
   here at the ELI of The University of
   Tennessee, Knoxville.

4. I only use my native language when I   1   2   3   4
   communicate with my native country people

5. I spend a lot of time every week watching   1   2   3   4
   American television, and movies.

6. I spend a lot of time every week listening to   1   2   3   4
   American radio.

7. I spend a lot of time every week reading   1   2   3   4
   American newspapers, magazines, and books.

8. My oral English proficiency is limited, but I can   1   2   3   4
   speak it well enough to be able to order meals
   in a restaurant, get a hotel room, or buy what
   I need.

9. I can understand simple questions or statements   1   2   3   4
   if the Americans speak very slowly and
   repeat what they say.

10. My English grammar ability is limited, I make   1   2   3   4
    mistakes, I can recognize them, but am not
    able to correct them well. I can make simple
    sentences.

11. My English comprehension ability is limited, I   1   2   3   4
can create with language, ask and answer
simple questions on familiar topics, and
handle simple situations.

12. Speaking to English bothers me.   1   2   3   4

13. Listening to English bothers me.   1   2   3   4

14. Reading to English bothers me.   1   2   3   4

15. Writing to English bothers me.   1   2   3   4

Section II:

1. Life is more exciting here than in my   1   2   3   4
country.

2. The U.S. is similar to my country in more ways   1   2   3   4
than I expected.

3. Sometimes life is inconvenient here, but it is   1   2   3   4
generally fine.

4. I knew what to expect of life in the U.S. and am   1   2   3   4
not surprised by the way Americans live.

5. I feel that I am highly involved in the social   1   2   3   4
life here.

6. I feel more comfortable with people from my   1   2   3   4
own country than with Americans.

7. I don't like being different here, so I try to be like   1   2   3   4
Americans.

8. I often worry about my social behavior here.   1   2   3   4

9. In general, American people are polite and   1   2   3   4
friendly.

10. Since I have been in the U.S., I have felt very   1   2   3   4
disappointed about Americans' social behavior.

11. I feel that I receive unequal treatment from   1   2   3   4

Americans.

12. I don't feel that Americans appreciate my cultural values.   1   2   3   4

13. I am hesitant to talk to Americans about my feelings.   1   2   3   4

14. I can go out on the streets here and easily handle almost any ordinary situation that comes up.   1   2   3   4

Section III:

1. I am depressed more often here than I was at home.   1   2   3   4

2. I often feel homesick.   1   2   3   4

3. I am physically sick more often here than was at home.   1   2   3   4

4. I don't like American food.   1   2   3   4

5. Since coming here, I am absent-minded more often than at home.   1   2   3   4

6. I worry more often here than I did in my country.   1   2   3   4

7. I am concerned about getting cheated here.   1   2   3   4

8. I often feel more lonely here than in my country.   1   2   3   4

9. My memory is poor here, I forget things easily.   1   2   3   4

10. I often feel tired here, so I sleep more than I did in my own country.   1   2   3   4

11. I lose my temper over little things here.   1   2   3   4

Culture Shock Inventory

Part III

Instructions: Please answer the following questions.

1. Describe an event, a thing, or an experience you find most difficult in the United States.

2. What do you like best about life and people in the United States?

3. What do you like least about life and people in the United States?

4. Describe a typical day in your life in the United States.

5. What is your impression of American society?

6. What are your problems with English, speaking, listening, reading and
   writing?

APPENDIX D: CULTURE SHOCK INVENTORY

(CHINESE TRANSLATION)

问题

第一章

指示：请在下面的每个问题上标出或写出你认为最正确的答案．请回答所有的问题．

1．你的年龄是？

    （1）18岁或不到 _____
    （2）19岁到25岁 _____
    （3）26岁到35岁 _____
    （4）36岁或以上 _____

2．你的姓别？（1）男 _____ （2）女 _____

3．你的婚姻状况？（1）已婚 _____ （2）未婚 _____

    如果已婚，你的配偶说英语吗？（1）说 _____ （2）不说 _____

4．你出生的国家是？ _____

5．你的母语是？ _____

6．计划要读的专业？

    （1）没有计划 _____
    （2）学士学位 _____
    （3）硕士学位 _____
    （4）博士学位 _____

7．你打算在美国待多久？

    （1）0到1年 _____
    （2）1到2年 _____
    （3）2到3年 _____
    （4）3到4年 _____
    （5）4到5年 _____
    （6）5年以上 _____

8．你从几岁开始学英语的？ _____

9．在你来美国以前，你学了几年英语？

    （1）0到1年 _____
    （2）1到2年 _____
    （3）2到3年 _____
    （4）3到4年 _____
    （5）4到5年 _____
    （6）5年以上 _____

１０．你在美国住多久了？

    （1）少于一年 _____
    （2）1到2年 _____
    （3）2到3年 _____
    （4）3到4年 _____
    （5）4到5年 _____
    （6）5年以上 _____

１１．除了美国和你自己的国家以外，你还访问过其它的国家吗？

    （1）没有 _____
    （2）1个国家 _____
    （3）2个国家 _____
    （4）3个国家 _____
    （5）4个国家 _____
    （6）5个国家或以上 _____

１２．你有几个美国朋友？

    （1）没有 _____
    （2）1个朋友 _____
    （3）2个朋友 _____
    （4）3个朋友 _____
    （5）4个朋友 _____
    （6）5个朋友或以上 _____

问题

第二章

指示：以下的陈术句可能表达或可能不表达你的感觉或想法．请根据你的感觉，在下列句子中圈出最正确的号码．

1．很同意　　2．同意　　3．不同意　　4．很不同意

第一部分：

1．当我用英语交谈时，我感到很紧张．	1	2	3	4
2．把语言问题当借口做劣质工作是错误的．	1	2	3	4
3．我希望在这里的英语语言学校有更多的机会讲自己的母语．	1	2	3	4
4．当我和我的同乡人交谈时，我只使用自己的母语．	1	2	3	4
5．我每个星期花很多时间看美国电视和电影．	1	2	3	4
6．我每个星期花很多时间听美国广播．	1	2	3	4
7．我每个星期花很多时间看美国报纸，杂志和书籍．	1	2	3	4
8．我的英语口语能力有限，但我可以在餐馆点菜，预定旅馆房间，或买我需要的东西．	1	2	3	4
9．如果美国人讲得很慢或重复所讲的话，我可以听懂简单的问题和句子．	1	2	3	4
10．我的英语语法能力有限，当我出错时，我可以意识到但不会改正它们．我可以讲简单的句子．	1	2	3	4
11．我的英语综合能力有限，我能使用英语问和回答简单的问题，处理简单的情况．	1	2	3	4
12．英语口语很难．	1	2	3	4
13．英语听力很难．	1	2	3	4
14．英语阅读很难．	1	2	3	4
15．英语写作很难．	1	2	3	4

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第二部分:

1．这里的生活比在我自己的国家时令我兴奋．　　　　1　　2　　3　　4

2．美国在很多方面很象我的国家．　　　　　　　　　1　　2　　3　　4

3．这里的生活有时不方便，但总的来说还可以．　　　1　　2　　3　　4

4．我知道美国的生活会怎么样，所以我不奇怪　　　　1　　2　　3　　4
　　美国人的生活方式．

5．我感觉我已很好的融入这里的社交生活．　　　　　1　　2　　3　　4

6．我感觉跟我的同乡人在一起比跟美国人在一　　　　1　　2　　3　　4
　　起舒服．

7．我不喜欢跟别人不同，所以在这里我尽可能　　　　1　　2　　3　　4
　　学跟美国人一样．

8．在这里我常常担心我的举止行为．　　　　　　　　1　　2　　3　　4

9．总体来讲，美国人很礼貌和友好．　　　　　　　　1　　2　　3　　4

10．自从来美国以后，我对美国人的举止行为　　　　1　　2　　3　　4
　　很失望．

11．我感到美国人对我不平等．　　　　　　　　　　1　　2　　3　　4

12．美国人不欣赏我的文化．　　　　　　　　　　　1　　2　　3　　4

13．我很犹豫跟美国人谈我的感觉．　　　　　　　　1　　2　　3　　4

14．在这里我几乎可以处理所有的日常情况．　　　　1　　2　　3　　4

第三部分:

1．比在我自己的国家时，我感到更加消沉．　　　　　1　　2　　3　　4

2．我经常感到想家．　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　1　　2　　3　　4

3．在这里我生病比较多．　　　　　　　　　　　　　1　　2　　3　　4

4．我不喜欢美国食品．　　　　　　　　　　　　　　1　　2　　3　　4

5．在这里我常感到心不在焉．　　　　　　　　　　　1　　2　　3　　4

6．在这里比在我自己的国家我更多感到担心．　　　　1　　2　　3　　4

7．在这里我常担心被欺骗．　　　　　　　　　　　　1　　2　　3　　4

8．在这里我常感到孤独．   1   2   3   4

9．在这里我的记忆力很差，我常忘事．   1   2   3   4

１０．在这里我常感到疲倦，所以我睡觉很多． 1   2   3   4

１１．在这里我常为一些小事发脾气．   1   2   3   4

问题
第三章

指示： 请回答下列的问题.

1．请描述一件你认为在美国遇到的最难的事或经历.

2．你最喜欢美国生活和美国人什么?

3．你最不喜欢美国生活和美国人什么?

4．描述一天你在美国的生活．

5．你对美国社会有什么印象？

6．你的英语口语，听力，阅读和写作有什么问题？

APPENDIX E: CULTURE SHOCK INVENTORY

(JAPANESE TRANSLATION)

カルチャーショックについて
(パートI)

　次の質問にお答え下さい. 一番あなたに当てはまると思われる番号の空欄にチェック＿＿✓＿＿、またはあなたの答を書いて下さい. 以下全部の質問にお答え願います.

1. あなたは何歳ですか.

　　　(a) 18歳以下 ＿＿＿＿＿＿
　　　(b) 19～25 ＿＿＿＿＿＿
　　　(c) 26－35 ＿＿＿＿＿＿
　　　(d) 36以上 ＿＿＿＿＿＿

2. 性別　(a) 男性 ＿＿＿＿＿＿　　(b) 女性 ＿＿＿＿＿＿

3. あなたは　(a) 既婚 ＿＿＿＿＿＿　　(b) 独身 ＿＿＿＿＿＿

　　　あなたが既婚者の場合あなたの配偶者は英語を話しますか.　　はい ＿＿＿＿＿＿　　いいえ ＿＿＿＿＿＿

4. あなたはどこの国で生まれましたか＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

5. あなたの母国語は何語ですか＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

6. あなたはどの学位を目ざしていますか.

　　　(a) まだ決めていない ＿＿＿＿＿＿
　　　(b) Bachelors level (学士) ＿＿＿＿＿＿
　　　(c) Masters level (修士) ＿＿＿＿＿＿
　　　(d) Ph.D./Doctorate level (博士号) ＿＿＿＿＿＿

7. あなたはどのくらいアメリカに滞在するつもりでしょうか.
    (a) 0 － 1 年 ＿＿＿＿
    (b) 1 － 2 年 ＿＿＿＿
    (c) 2 － 3 年 ＿＿＿＿
    (d) 3 － 4 年 ＿＿＿＿
    (e) 4 － 5 年 ＿＿＿＿
    (f) 5 年以上 ＿＿＿＿

8. あなたが何歳の時にはじめて英語を学びましたか.
    ＿＿＿＿歳.

9. あなたはアメリカに来る前に何年間英語教育を受けましたか

    (a) 0 － 1 年 ＿＿＿＿
    (b) 1 － 2 年 ＿＿＿＿
    (c) 2 － 3 年 ＿＿＿＿
    (d) 3 － 4 年 ＿＿＿＿
    (e) 4 － 5 年 ＿＿＿＿
    (f) 5 年以上 ＿＿＿＿

10. あなたはアメリカに住んで何年になりますか

    (a) 1 年未満 ＿＿＿＿
    (b) 1 － 2 年 ＿＿＿＿
    (c) 2 － 3 年 ＿＿＿＿
    (d) 3 － 4 年 ＿＿＿＿
    (e) 4 － 5 年 ＿＿＿＿
    (f) 5 年以上 ＿＿＿＿

11. あなたはアメリカとあなたの国を除いて 何か国訪問したことがありますか

    (a) 無し＿＿＿＿＿＿＿
    (b) 1 か国＿＿＿＿＿＿
    (c) 2 か国＿＿＿＿＿＿
    (d) 3 か国＿＿＿＿＿＿
    (e) 4 か国＿＿＿＿＿＿
    (f) 5 か国以上＿＿＿＿＿＿

12. あなたは何人アメリカ人の友達がいますか

    (a) 無し＿＿＿＿＿＿
    (b) 1 人＿＿＿＿＿＿
    (c) 2 人＿＿＿＿＿＿
    (d) 3 人＿＿＿＿＿＿
    (e) 4 人＿＿＿＿＿＿
    (f) 5 人以上＿＿＿＿＿＿

カルチャーショックについて
(パート II)

次の質問についてあなたの意見をお聞かせ下さい.
一番適当だと思われる答の番号に丸をつけて下さい

1. 全くそのとおりです.　2. まあそう思う.
3. そうは思わない.　　　4. 全くそうは思わない.

セクション I :

1. 私は英語でユミニュケーションを　　1. 2. 3. 4
する時不安を感じることがあります.

2. 何事かうまくできない場合に言葉が　1. 2. 3. 4.
不自由なためと言いわけするのは, よくない.

3. 私はここ, ノックスビルのテネシー　1. 2. 3. 4.
大学のELIで, もっと自分の国の言葉
で話したいと思う.

4. 私は自分の国の言葉を同じ国の人と　1. 2. 3. 4.
ユミニュケーションする時だけ話します.

5. 私は, 毎週アメリカのテレビや映画を　1. 2. 3. 4
長時間観ます.

6. 私は毎週アメリカのラジオをよく聞　1. 2. 3. 4.
きます.

7. 私は毎週アメリカの新聞, 雑誌, 本　1. 2. 3. 4.
を長時間読みます.

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8. 私は英語を話すのがすごく上手で　　1、　2、　3、　4、
はないけれども、レストランで注文
したりホテルで予約したりほしい
物を購入することは英語でできます

9. 私はアメリカ人がとてもゆっくり、　1、　2、　3、　4、
くり返し話してくれたら簡単な質問
や彼らの言っている事がわかります

10. 私は英語の文法はよく知らないし時々　1、　2、　3、　4
まちがいます。まちがいに気づきます
がどのように正したらいいかわかり
ません　簡単な文章は書くことがで
きます

11. 私は英語があまり上手ではあり　　1、　2、　3、　4、
ませんが簡単な質問や知っているこ
とについて答えることができます。

12. 私は英語を話すのが苦手です　　1、　2、　3、　4、

13. 私は英語を聞くのが苦手です　　1、　2、　3、　4、

14. 私は英語を読むのが苦手です　　1、　2、　3、　4、

15. 私は英語を書くのが苦手です　　1、　2、　3、　4、

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セクション II:

1. ここでの生活は自分の国での　　　1.　2.　3.　4.
生活より刺激的です.

2. アメリカと自分の国とは私が思ってい　1.　2.　3.　4
たよりも似ているところが多い.

3. 時々生活が不便と思うこともあ　　1.　2.　3.　4.
るが全般的にはまあまあだと思う.

4. 私はここでの生活を知ったので　　1.　2.　3.　4.
アメリカ人の生活スタイルには驚かない

5. 私はここでの社会生活にとても　　1.　2.　3.　4.
とけこんでいると思う.

6. 私は自分の国の人たちといる方が
アメリカ人といるより気楽です

7. 私はまわりの人と違っている　　1.　2.　3.　4
のはいやなので.アメリカ人のよう
にふるまっています.

8. 私はここでは私のふるまいをよく　1.　2.　3.　4.
気にしてしまう.

9. 一般的にアメリカ人は親切で友好　1.　2.　3.　4.
的だと思う.

10. 私はここに来てからアメリカ人の　1.　2.　3.　4.
社会生活態度にとてもがっかり
しています

11. 私はアメリカ人から不平等な   1.   2.   3.   4.
扱いをうけていると思う.

12. 私はアメリカ人が私の国の文化   1.   2.   3.   4.
価値を認めているとは思わない.

13. 私は, アメリカ人と私の感情について   1.   2.   3.   4.
話すのはためらってしまう.

14. 私は気軽に外出するし, たいていの   1.   2.   3.   4.
ことなら自分で解決することがで
きます

セクション Ⅲ:

1. 私は自分の国にいた時よりよくお   1.   2.   3.   4.
ちこみます

2. 私はよくホームシックにかかり   1.   2.   3.   4.
ます.

3. 私は自分の国にいた時よりよく   1.   2.   3.   4.
病気にかかります.

4. 私はアメリカの食事が好きでは   1.   2.   3.   4.
ありません.

5. アメリカに来たために私は自分   1.   2.   3.   4.
の国にいた時よりよくぼんやり
します.

6. 私は自分の国にいた時より不安   1.   2.   3.   4.
です.

7. 私は騙されるのではないかと心　　1.　　2.　　3.　　4.
配です.

8. 私はここでは自分の国にいるよ　　1.　　2.　　3.　　4.
りさみしいと感じます.

9. ここではあまり思い出がないので　1.　　2.　　3.　　4.
私は簡単に忘れてしまうと思う

10. 私はここでは疲れやすいので.　　1.　　2.　　3.　　4.
自分の国にいた時よりよく眠り
ます.

11. 私はここではささいなことにで　　1.　　2.　　3.　　4.
も腹をたててしまいます.

カルチャーショックについて
（パートⅢ）

次の質問にお答下さい

1. あなたがアメリカで一番難しいと思われた出来事や物事、経験等について書いて下さい.

2. あなたはアメリカの生活やアメリカ人の何が一番気に入っていますか

3、あなたはアメリカの生活やアメリカ人の何が
 あまり好きではありませんか

4. あなたの典型的なアメリカでの過ごし方を書いて
 下さい

5. あなたはアメリカ社会をどう思いますか。

6. あなたにとって何が難しいですか。
英語の文法, 話すこと, 聞くこと, 読むこと, それ
とも書くことですか。

APPENDIX F: CULTURE SHOCK INVENTORY

(KOREAN TRANSLATION)

문화 충돌 조사서

제 1 장

작성요령: 가장 적절한 난에 " ∨ " 표시를 하거나, 직접 해당난에 답해 주시기 바랍니다.

1. 나이 : _____
   (a) 19세 미만 _____
   (b) 19세 이상 25세 미만 _____
   (c) 25세 이상 35세 미만 _____
   (d) 35세 이상 _____

2. 성별 :
   (a) 남성 _____
   (b) 여성 _____

3. 결혼 여부 :
   (a) 기혼 _____ ,
       그렇다면, 당신의 배우자는 영어 회화를 하실수 있읍니까? _____
   (b) 미혼 _____

4. 태어난 곳 (나라) ? _____

5. 모국 언어 ? _____

6. 앞으로 어떤 학위를 얻기 위해 지금 영어공부를 하고 있읍니까? _____
   (a) 아직 계획이 없다. _____
   (b) 학사 학위 _____
   (c) 석사 학위 _____
   (d) 박사 학위 _____

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7. 얼마동안 미국에 더 머무를 예정입니까? _____
   (a) 1년 미만 _____   (b) 1년 - 2년 _____   (c) 2년 - 3년 _____
   (d) 3년 - 4년 _____   (e) 4년 - 5년 _____   (f) 5년이상 _____

8. 처음 영어를 배우기 시작한 때는 몇살 때 였읍니까? _____

9. 미국에 오기전에, 정식으로 영어를 배운것은 얼마간 됩니까? _____
   (a) 1년 미만 _____   (b) 1년 - 2년 _____   (c) 2년 - 3년 _____
   (d) 3년 - 4년 _____   (e) 4년 - 5년 _____   (f) 5년 이상 _____

10. 얼마동안 미국에서 살았읍니까? _____
   (a) 1년 미만 _____   (b) 1년 - 2년 _____   (c) 2년 - 3년 _____
   (d) 3년 - 4년 _____   (e) 4년 - 5년 _____   (f) 5년 이상 _____

11. 미국과 본국을 제외하고, 지금까지 방문한 나라는 몇나라가 됩니까?
   (a) 없다. _____
   (b) 한 나라 _____
   (c) 두 나라 _____
   (d) 세 나라 _____
   (e) 네 나라 _____
   (f) 다섯 나라 이상 _____

12. 미국 친구는 모두 몇명 입니까? _____
   (a) 없다 _____
   (b) 한 명 _____
   (c) 두 명 _____
   (d) 세 명 _____
   (e) 네 명 _____
   (f) 다섯명 이상 _____

문화 충돌 조사서

제 2 장

작성요령 : 주어진 문장들은 본인이 생각하고 있거나 느끼고 있는것
과는 일치하지 않을수도 있읍니다.
다음 문장들을 읽고 일반적인 느낌이 와 닿는 번호에
"0" 표시를 하시요.

1. 강하게 동의한다 .   2 동의 한다.
3. 동의하지 않는다   4 강하게 동의 하지 않는다 .

I. 정 :
1. 영어로 대화를 나눌때 긴장이 된다 .   1   2   3   4

2. 낮은 성적 결과를 언어문제로 빚어진 결과   1   2   3   4
라고 변명하는 것은 잘못된 생각이다.

3. E L I (knoxville, Tennessee 대학)   1   2   3   4
에서 모국어를 사용할 기회를 더 많이 가졌음
원한다 .

4. 모국어 사용은 같은 나라 사람끼리 대화 할때만   1   2   3   4
사용한다.

5. 매주, 많은 시간을 미국 T·V 나 영화를   1   2   3   4
보는 데 사용한다.

6 매주, 많은 시간을 미국 라듸오 를 듣는데   1   2   3   4
사용한다.

7. 매주, 많은 시간을 미국 신문 이나, 잡지 , 일반책   1   2   3   4
들을 읽으며 보낸다.

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8. 영어 회화를 유창하게는 하지 못하지만,   1   2   3   4
영어로 식당에서 주문을 하거나, 호텔방을
예약하거나, 필요한 물건을 사는 일에는
충분한 실력이 된다.

9. 만약, 미국사람들이 천천히 그리고   1   2   3   4
반복해서 말을 해준다면 간단한 문장들과
질문들을 이해할수 있다.

10. 영어문법 능력에 한계성을 가지고 있다.   1   2   3   4
만약 실수를 할경우, 무엇이 잘못되었다는 것은
알지만 스스로 그 문장을 바르게 고치지는
잘 못한다. 그러나, 간단한 문장들은
만들수 있다.

11. 영어 이해력에 한계성을 가지고 있다.   1   2   3   4
익숙한 주제에 대해서는 스스로 문장을
만들고, 간단한 질문을 할 줄 알고, 간단한
질문에 대답할수있다.

12. 영어의 말하기 부분이 가장 힘들다.   1   2   3   4

13. 영어의 듣기부분이 가장 힘들다.   1   2   3   4

14. 영어의 읽기 부분이 가장 힘들다.   1   2   3   4

15. 영어의 쓰기 부분이 가장 힘들다.   1   2   3   4

Ⅱ 절 :

1. 미국 생활이 고국에 있을때 보다 더   1   2   3   4
재미있다.

2. 기대했던것 보다 미국이 여러면에서 고국라—

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비슷한 부분이 많다. 　1　2　3　4

3. 가끔 이곳생활이 늦편하지만, 일반적으로 　1　2　3　4
만족한다.

4. 미국생활이 어떨것이라 이미 알고 있었기 　1　2　3　4
때문에 이곳 생활방식에 당황하지 않는다.

5. 미국 사회 생활에 깊이 소속되고 있음을 　1　2　3　4
느낀다.

6. 미국 사람들과 있을 때 보다 같은 민족 끼리 　1　2　3　4
있을때가 더 편안하다.

7. 미국사회에서 다른 사람으로 분류되어지는 것이 　1　2　3　4
싫어서 미국사람 처럼 되고자 노력한다.

8. 가끔 나의 사회행동이 미국 사람들 속에서 　1　2　3　4
어떻게 받아들여질지에 대해 걱정한다.

9. 일반적으로, 미국사람들은 예의 바르고 친절하다. 　1　2　3　4

10. 미국에 있으면서 부터. 나는 미국사람들의 　1　2　3　4
사회적 행동에 대해 매우 실망하고 있다.

11. 미국 사람들로 부터 차별대우를 받고 있음을 　1　2　3　4
느낀다.

12. 미국 사람들은 우리의 문화 가치를 인정하지 　1　2　3　4
않음을 느낀다.

13. 나의 감정을 미국 사람들 에게 표현 해야 할때 　1　2　3　4
망설여진다.

14. 이곳 생활에 익숙해서 일상으로 일어나는   1   2   3   4
    상황에 당황하지 않고 쉽게 해결할수
    있다.

Ⅲ 절 :

1. 고국에 있었을 때 보다 이곳에서 더 자주   1   2   3   4
   우울해진다.

2. 가끔 향수병에 걸린다.   1   2   3   4

3. 고국에 있었을 때 보다 이곳에서 육체적으로   1   2   3   4
   더 자주 아프다.

4. 미국 음식을 싫어한다.   1   2   3   4

5. 미국에 왔을때 부터, 더 자주 건망증에   1   2   3   4
   걸린다.

6. 고국에 있었을 때 보다 이곳에서 더 자주   1   2   3   4
   걱정을 한다.

7. 이곳에서 사기당할것에 대해 염려한다.   1   2   3   4

8. 고국에 있었을 때 보다 더 자주 이곳에서   1   2   3   4
   외로움을 느낀다.

9. 기억력이 자꾸 감퇴되어지고, 뭐든지 쉽게   1   2   3   4
   잊어버린다.

10. 고국에 있었을때 보다 더 자주 피곤해져서   1   2   3   4
    더 많이 잠을 잔다.

11. 작은 일에 더 자주 성질을 낸다.   1   2   3   4

문화 충돌 조사서

제 3 장

작성요령 : 다음 질문에 정성껏 답해 주시기 바랍니다.

1. 미국에서 가장 어려웠던 일이나 사건, 경험 들을 묘사 하여
주십시요.

2. 미국의 생활 방식 과 미국 사람들에 대해서 가장 마음에 드는
부분을 적어주십시요.

3. 미국의 생활 방식과 미국사람들에 대해서 가장 싫은 부분은 무엇입니까?

4. 미국에서의 개인의 일상 생활을 묘사해 주십시요.

5. 미국 사회의 첫인상은 어떠했읍니까? 그리고 지금은 어떻읍니까?

6. 영어의 말하기, 듣기, 읽기, 쓰기 에서 본인의 문제점은 무엇입니까?

APPENDIX G: CULTURE SHOCK INVENTORY

(SPENISH TRANSLATION)

Choque Cultural

Parte I

Instrucciones: Por favor marque ------------la mejor respuesta para cada pregunta o escriba su propia respuesta.. Asegurese de contestar cada pregunta.

1. Cual es su edad?
   - (a) 18 anos o menos_____
   - (b) 19-25_____
   - (c) 26-35_____
   - (d) 36 anos o mas_____

2. Es Ud. (a) hombre_____   (b) mujer_____

3. Es Ud. (a) casado   (b) soltero_____
   Si lo es, habla su esposo Ingles? Si_____   No_____

4. En que pais nacio?_____

5. Cual es su lengua natal?_____

6. Que grado/titulo piensa sacar?_____
   - (a) no plan_____
   - (b) Bachelor_____
   - (c) Maestria_____
   - (c) Doctorado PH.D_____

7. Cuanto tiempo piensa quedarse en los Estados Unidos?
   - (a) 0-1 ano_____
   - (b) 1-2 anos_____
   - (c) 2-3 anos _____
   - (d) 3-4 anos _____
   - (e) 4-5 anos _____
   - (f) 5 anos y mas_____

8. Cuantos anos tenia Ud. cuando recien empezo hablar Ingles?_____

9. Cuantos anos de estudio formal de Ingles tenia antes de venir a los Estados Unidos.?
   - (a) 0-1 ano_____
   - (b) 1-2 anos_____   (f) mas de 5 anos_____
   - (c) 2-3 anos_____
   - (d) 3-4 anos_____
   - (e) 4-5 anos_____

10. Hace cuanto tiempo que vive Ud. en los Estados Unidos?

        (a) menos de 1 ano_____

        (b) 1-2 anos_____

        (c) 2-3 anos_____

        (d) 3-4 anos_____

        (e) 4-5 anos_____

        (f) mas de 5 anos_____

11. Cuantos otros paises ha visitado ademas de los Estados Unidos y de su propio pais.?

        (a) Ninguno_____

        (b) 1 pais_____

        (c) 2 paises_____

        (d) 3 paises_____

        (e) 4 paises_____

        (f) 5 paises o mas_____

12. Cuantos amigos Americanos tiene Ud.?

        (a) ninguno_____

        (b) 1 amigo_____

        (c) 2 amigos_____

        (d) 3 amigos _____

        (e) 4 amigos_____

        (f) 5 amigos o mas_____

Choque cultural

Parte II

Instruccion: Las afirmaciones siguientes pueden expresar o no sus pensamientos y sentimientos. Por favor haga un circulo sobre el numero que representa mas cerca sus sentimientos sobre cada afirmacion.

1. Concuerda fuertemente   2. Concuerda   3. Desacuerda   4. Desacuerda fuertemente

Seccion I:

1. Me siento nervioso cuando me comunico en Ingles.   1   2   3   4

2. Es malo usar el problema con el idioma como excusa   1   2   3   4
   para hacer un trabajo deficiente.

3. Quisiera poder hablar mi propia lengua mas, aqui en   1   2   3   4
   el ELI de la Universidad de Tennessee, Knoxville.

4. Solo uso mi lengua natal cuando hablo con mis   1   2   3   4
   compatriotas.

5. Paso mucho tiempo cada semana mirando peliculas y   1   2   3   4
   television Americana.

6. P aso mucho tiempo cada semana escuchando
   la radio Amercana.   1   2   3   4

7. Paso mucho tiempo cada semana leyendo periodicos   1   2   3   4
   revistas y libros Americanos.

8. Mi habilidad oral en Ingles es limitada, pero puedo   1   2   3   4
   hablar lo suficiente para ordenar comidas en un
   restaurante, obtener un cuarto en un hotel y
   comprar lo que necesite.

9. Puedo entender preguntas sencillas o afirmaciones   1   2   3   4
   si los Americanos hablan lentamente y repiten
   lo que dicen.

10. Mi habilidad gramatical en Ingles es limitada, hago   1   2   3   4
    errores, los reconozco, pero no puedo corregirlos
    bien. Puedo hacer oraciones sencillas.

11. Mi habilidad para comprender el Ingles es limitada   1   2   3   4
    puedo preguntar y contestar preguntas sencillas
    de temas familiares y me las puedo arreglar en
    situaciones sencillas.

12. Me molesta hablar Ingles.   1   2   3   4

13. Me molesta escuchar Ingles   1   2   3   4

14. Me molesta leer en Ingles   1   2   3   4

15. Me molesta escribir en Ingles   1   2   3   4

Seccion II.

1. La vida es mas emocionante aqui que en mi pais   1   2   3   4

2. Los E.E.U.U. es mas similar a mi pais en mas formas de   1   2   3   4
   lo que yo esperaba.

3. La vida aqui es inconveniente algunas veces, pero   1   2   3   4
   generalmente esta bien.

4. Sabia que esperar de la vida en los E.E.U.U. y no estoy   1   2   3   4
   sorprendida de la manera que viven los Americanos.

5. Siento que estoy bien metida en la vida social aqui.   1   2   3   4

6. Me siento mas comoda con gente de mi pais que con   1   2   3   4
   los Americanos.

7. No me gusta ser diferente qui, por lo tanto trato de ser   1   2   3   4
   como los americanos.

8. Me preocupo a menudo de mi comportamiento social aqui.   1   2   3   4

9. En general los Americanos son educados y amigables.   1   2   3   4

10. Desde que estoy en los E.E.U.U. me he sentido muy   1   2   3   4
    Desilucionada del comportamiento social Americano.

11. Siento que recibo un tratamiento desigual de los Americanos   1   2   3   4

12. No creo que los Americanos aprecian mis valores culturales   1   2   3   4

13. Vacilo a hablar de mis sentimientos a los Americanos   1   2   3   4

14. Puedo ir a la calle facilmente y arreglarmelas con   1   2   3   4
       cualquier situacion que se presente.

Seccion III:

1. Me deprimo mas aqui que en mi pais.   1   2   3   4

2. Me siento a menudo nostalgica por mi pais.   1   2   3   4

3. Me enfermo mas a menudo aqui que en mi pais.   1   2   3   4

4. No me gust la comida Americana.   1   2   3   4

5. Desde que vine aqui estoy mas distraida que en mi pais.   1   2   3   4

6. Me preocupo mas aqui que en mi pais.   1   2   3   4

7. Me inquieta que me estafen aqui.   1   2   3   4

8. Me siento mas sola aqui que en mi pais.   1   2   3   4

9. No tengo buena memoria aqui, me olvido de cosas   1   2   3   4
       facilmente.

10. A menudo me siento cansado aqui, duermo mas que lo   1   2   3   4
       Que solia dormir en mi pais.

11. Pierdo la paciencia sobre cosas sin importancia.   1   2   3   4

Choque Cultural

Parte III

Instrucciones: Por favor conteste las siguientes preguntas

1. Describa un hecho, una cosa o una experiencia que Ud. encuentra muy dificil en los Estados Unidos

2. Que es lo que le gusta mas acerca de la vida y la gente en los Estados Unidos.?

3. Que es lo que le gusta menos acerca de la vida y la gente en los Estados Unidos?

4. Describa un dia tipico de su vida en los Estados Unidos.

5. Cual es su impresion de la sociedad Americana?

6. Cuales son sus problemas con el Ingles, al hablar, escuchar, escribir y leer?

VITA

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