INTERNATIONAL RESEARCH
and REVIEW
Journal of Phi Beta Delta
Honor Society for International Scholars

SCIENTIA MUTUA MUNDI

International Research and Review:
Journal of Phi Beta Delta
Honor Society For International Scholars

Editor

Dr. Michael Smithee, Syracuse University

Editorial Board

International Research and Review
Journal of Phi Beta Delta, Honor Society for International Scholars
Volume 4   Number 2   Spring 2015

Journal Description

International Research and Review is the official journal of the Phi Beta Delta Honor Society for International Scholars. It is a multidisciplinary journal whose primary objectives are to: (1) recognize, disseminate and share the scholarship of our members with the global academic community; (2) provide a forum for the advancement of academic inquiry and dialogue among all members and stakeholders; and (3) cultivate support for international education among campus leadership by working with university administrators to expand the support for international education among campus leaders.

IRR is a peer-reviewed electronic journal providing a forum for scholars and educators to engage in a multi-disciplinary exchange of ideas, to address topics of mutual concern, and to advocate for policies that enhance the international dimension of higher education. Articles should focus on studies and systematic analyses that employ qualitative, quantitative, a mixture of both methods, and theoretical methodologies from an international scope. Both pedagogical and andragogical perspectives in teaching and learning are welcome.

The Journal reaches out to an audience involved in matters touching all areas of international education, including theoretical, empirical, and normative concerns and concepts as well as practices. It includes stakeholders, practitioners, advocates, as well as faculty, independent researchers, staff, and administrators of programs and institutions engaged in the field. The editors welcome manuscripts that address the following concerns:

> *International studies and perspectives*
> *Review of current literature pertaining to international studies*
> *Initiatives and impacts in international education exchange*
> *International program development at American colleges and universities*
> *Internationalizing of curricula: policies, programs, practices, and impacts*
> *International business education*
> *Comparative international education issues*
> *Curriculum development in area studies*
> *Legal issues in the development of international programming*
> *Other related topics*

Peer – Review Process
All manuscripts will be forwarded to the Editor for initial review of its relevance of theme, significance, and over-all quality. Manuscripts which fit the aim and scope of the Journal, and are of sufficient quality, will then be forwarded to two anonymous reviewers. At the end of the review process, authors will be notified of any comments that the reviewers have made. They will also make a recommendation regarding whether to accept, revise and resubmit, or reject the paper.

Publication Frequency
The IRR is intended to be published once per year, but will be published more often as additional articles are received. The Proceedings of Phi Beta Delta will be a separate publication of Phi Beta Delta. It will include conference papers, speeches, commentary, and other information particular to the society.

Open Access Policy
This journal provides immediate open access to its content on the principle that making research freely available to the public supports a greater global exchange of knowledge. The journal will be published solely on-line.

Indexing
Articles published in the IRR will be disseminated by the EBSCOHost Databases to libraries and other of the clients.

Author Guidelines

International Research and Review is the official journal of the Phi Beta Delta Honor Society for International Scholars. It is a multidisciplinary journal that (1) welcomes submission of manuscripts reflecting research representing *all areas of study* that promote the international and global dimensions of institutions programs (including both policy, practice, and debates) and individual experience of engaging in international education; (2) welcomes articles on current issues of the day regarding international education: the practice, curriculum, institutional issues, faculty and administration management, and cultural aspects and; (3) welcomes book reviews, and reviews or critiques of current literature.

The increasing interest in international opportunities and promotion of scholarship in this shrinking world create new challenges. This purpose of such a publication is to contribute and engage in the conversation related to the broad frames of international education, internationalization, and international scholars. It is hoped that the Phi Beta Delta annual conference and will provide an environment where students, staff, faculty and interested groups can highlight their scholarship in these areas. The conference also serves as a forum for acquiring new ideas, conceptualizations, best practices, as well as discussion on these and other issues of international education.

Research articles may employ qualitative, quantitative, plural (mixed-methods), and theoretical methodologies from an international scope. Both pedagogical and andragogical perspectives on the international experience of teaching, learning, and cross-cultural interchange are welcome. It is recommended that manuscripts be submitted with less than 10,000 words. Articles should use the bibliographic and formatting standards found in the **APA 6th edition (Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, 6th edition).**

Authors whose articles are accepted for publication are required to ensure that their data are fully accessible. Authors of quantitative empirical articles must make their data available for replication purposes. A statement of how that is done must appear in the first footnote of the article. Required material would include all data, specialized computer programs, program recodes, and an explanatory file describing what is included and how to reproduce the published results. The IRR is published four times a year on-line by Phi Beta Delta, Honor Society of International Scholars.

Please send your submissions to the Director of Publications at:

IRR@phibetadelta.org

Submission Preparation Checklist

As part of the submission process, authors are required to check off their submission's compliance with all of the following items, and submissions may be returned to authors that do not adhere to these requirements.
1. The submission has not been previously published, nor is it before another journal for consideration.
2. The submission file is in Microsoft Word or WordPerfect document file format.
3. All URL addresses in the text are activated and ready to click.
4. The text is double-spaced; uses a 12-point font; *employs italics*, rather than underlining (except with URL addresses); and all illustrations, figures, and tables are placed within the text at the appropriate points, rather than at the end.
5. The text adheres to the stylistic and bibliographic requirements of the APA, 6th edition. **(Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, 6th edition).**

Your submission should contain the following:
- Name, institute affiliation, mailing address, and email address for all authors
- Paper title
- Abstract
- Keywords
- Introduction
- Body of paper
- Tables, figures, etc. (if applicable)
- Conclusion
- Acknowledgements
- Brief bio of each author (one paragraph, no more than 100 words)

- References

Nota bene: Below are some particular issues authors should attend to:
1. Use quotation " " marks for all direct citations of material from your sources.
2. Citations in text from a book should include the page number as (author, date, p. #).
3. Citations from an on-line source must cite the paragraph: (author, date, para. #).
4. Use *italics* when you want to emphasize concepts or words.
5. Use the *automatic* hyphenation function to keep the character and word spacing at a minimum. In Microsoft Word, users can automatically hyphenate documents by altering the options within the program. The location of the automatic hyphenation option varies depending on the version of Word you are using. In Microsoft Word versions 2007 and 2010, it is found by clicking on Page Layout, Page Setup box, hyphenation. In Microsoft Word 2003, it is located in the "Tools" menu under "Language."

Automatic hyphenation is also available in earlier versions of Microsoft Word and Word Perfect. Reference the Help menu in the program you're using if you need help with either automatic or manual hyphenation.

Editor's Remarks

This issue includes a variety of approaches to international education.   The theme of this issue could be success and failure. That is, in any international education endeavour there are opportunities and desire for success, just as much as there is the desire to avoid failure. This all too human condition is viewed through a prism of articles that span the spectrum of international education.

The first article by Baker, Matherly, and Leite reminds us that establishing scholarly exchange partnerships between institutions comes with responsibilities. How institutions adhere to those responsibilities can be the difference between success and failure. Sensible advice is given in the context of cultural norms. Understanding these norms are competencies promoted by cross-cultural and exchange organizations. Smoothing the interactions between hosts and exchange scholars, dealing with expectations, and monitoring the progress of the exchange are processes that must be adopted by both partners.

The second article by Streets, Nicolas, and Wolford forces us to consider what happens all too much when a calamity occurs. In most cases volunteers rush in to "help," which is the right thing to do. This help is useful when it actually...helps. However, there are reasons to *pause*. Among other things, in many cases the help comes from organizations with differing motivations. This is where the cross-section of success and failure occurs. How success and failure are viewed depends on one's viewpoint. Here, communicating involves understanding the desires of those in the crisis as well as the role and views of the local leaders and people.

In the next article by Winslade et al., is unique in that it was conceived and written by nine people. Each had a role in developing the how the article would be designed and written. It's focus was on the reactions of a group of Master's in Counselor Education students conducting their internship in New Zealand high schools. The interns all being from California made the comparisons insightful. Success or failure in this case comes from the challenge of cultural immersion where deeply personal communication is between people of different cultures.

Those who travel abroad for their higher education are faced with many quandaries. Interpreting the behavioral requirements of the U.S. classroom is one faced by many students from abroad. Success and failure in the classroom of often thought of as getting top grades. Khoshlessan and El-Houbi explain that anxiety about getting such grades is often tied to one's performance during class sessions. Identifying who is at risk is an important task for faculty because it is here that some international students face severe problems.

For many international students the challenges of success and failure begin a home when one attempts to learn a foreign language; in this case English. It is well known that learning a language and using the language in both written and interpersonal communication are very different processes.   Yang and Dixon provide a clear rationale for the utilization of games in the English as a Second Language classroom.

Michael B. Smithee

Successful U.S.-Brazilian Research Collaborations Require
Key U.S. Institutional Competencies[1]

Adria L. Baker, Ed.D., Rice University, USA
Cheryl Matherly, Ed.D., University of Tulsa, USA
Vitor B. P. Leite, Ph.D., Universidade Estadual Paulista, Brazil

Abstract

Through the years, many governments around the globe have invested in sending postsecondary students abroad through providing scholarships for university-level study – at both the undergraduate and graduate levels. Filling their country's immediate and future demands for professional and academic development through offering grants, and then maximizing on the students' educational experiences once they return home, is the major overarching objective of this activity.

What motivates a government to invest in a study abroad exchange program on a large scale? Darla K. Deardorff (2014) explored "the why" for global educational mobility. She found that when research partnerships are established between foreign universities, positive impacts on key global societal problems are created and enhanced. Therefore, these investments not only have a positive impact in meeting the needs of a country, but can have a constructive global influence, as well.

Keywords: Research collaborations; Academic exchange; Brazil-U.S. collaborations; Institutional competencies

In the last four to five years, Brazil has stepped into the international limelight of higher education mobility through its far-reaching Brazil Scientific Mobility Program (BSMP). The program's aim, which is long-term in nature for the country, is in part to (a) address any areas of delay in global education exchange and scientific/technical development, (b) stimulate economic growth in Brazil, and (c) create academic and entrepreneurial partnerships. The program utilizes support from the government, along with private sector incentives, which can lead to partnerships for funding education abroad. Scholarship students are sent to the top universities in the world to study and train in specified fields, primarily in engineering, science and technology in an effort to equip and inspire them to increase entrepreneurship, innovation, research, academic scholarship and competitiveness throughout Brazil. The program encourages study and research for students at all levels of higher education, including undergraduates, professional master's students, doctoral students, and postdoctoral researchers. Graduate Brazilian students

---

[1] *(This article was adapted from the session presentation at NAFSA: Association of International Educators Annual Conference in San Diego, May 2014. Panelists were Adria Baker of Rice University, Christine Herdon of LASPAU, Cheryl Matherly of the University of Tulsa, and Vitor Leite, Universidade Estadual Paulista).*

conducting research abroad are commonly called "sandwich" students by Brazilian higher education and government agencies. Simultaneously, bringing international students and research scholars to Brazil for collaborative work is an important aspect of the plan, but not yet a big part.

Brazil represents an important market for U.S. colleges and universities because of its large population and strong, growing economy. The Brazilian government, under current (and re-elected) president Dilma Rousseff, has initiated an unprecedented commitment to higher education through its Scientific Mobility Program (and related offshoots) in which qualified Brazilian undergraduate students receive a year's study at a foreign institution (*Economist*, 2012; Institute for International Education, 2014). The 100,000 Strong in the Americas initiative, which has a goal to reach 100,000 student exchanges annually between the U.S. and the other countries of the Americas, has further focused attention on partnerships with Brazil (100,000 Strong in the Americas, 2014). Brazil has historically focused on relationships with European universities, specifically those in France, Spain and Portugal, so for many U.S. institutions, there are many untapped opportunities to develop creative collaboration in Brazil.

One critical goal for Brazil's investment in international education exchange is to encourage strong research collaborations with top universities and faculty abroad. For research institutions in the United States, this is good news. Applications for funding opportunities to bring researchers to Brazil and for Brazilians to meet with partners abroad are available on a competitive basis. Funding sources for two-way partnerships and mobility can include resources from, (a) the Brazilian federal government through CAPES (Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior – under the Ministry of Education) and CNPq (Conselho Nacional de Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico – under the Ministry of Science & Technology), (b) state funding agencies, such as FAPESP (Fundação de Amparo à Pesquisa do Estado de São Paulo) in the State of Sao Paulo, and (c) individual university and institutional program grants.

In addition, Brazilian private industries are encouraged to support education, rendering further funding possibilities through the commercial sector. Without a doubt, providing match or reciprocal funding is key for successful partnership with Brazil's higher education sector.
In the last four years of the program, the Brazil Scientific Mobility Program (BSMP) students tend to be well-received in U.S. universities because of their keen academic preparation and work, as well as bringing in an overall positive cultural impact to the campus. Faculty members in U.S. research universities have found that their Brazilian counterparts, like their research scholars and students, are highly talented collaborators. This is not surprising, given the high level of accountability to which teaching and research institutions of higher education in Brazil must adhere. The Brazilian federal universities, for example, are well-known for their top research programs, which are strongly supported through the federal government (Institute of International Education, IAPP, 2014).

While U.S. universities and colleges welcome the opportunity to participate in Brazil's quest for accelerated professional and academic enhancement, there is a need for critical

infrastructure; close collaborations with any institution abroad require special care and critical competencies, in order to develop a sustainable relationship.

An Example of Institutional Commitment and Infrastructure Development

Just prior to the Brazilian government's expansive step into the global arena through their higher education scholarship programs, Rice University had begun to forge meaningful relationships with key Brazilian academic partners. Rice University is a private, Tier 1, highly-selective, comprehensive research university in the museum district of Houston, Texas (the fourth largest city in the USA). It is located near, and a member of, the Texas Medical Center (largest medical center in the world). Founded in 1912, Rice has an undergraduate residential college-system, and a strong collaboratively rich research environment for graduate and all students.

Attracting new, and supporting current, elite faculty members who already enjoy partnerships and emerging academic collaborations in Brazil is part of Rice's strategy and development with Brazil. The vision for a long-term relationship with Brazilian higher education partners came from the top Administration - the President's and Provost's Offices. However, simultaneously and fortuitously, Rice-Brazilian academic partnerships were already budding organically across campus. Creating opportunities to actively explore possible collaborative partnerships has proven to be fruitful for Rice's faculty and academic programs.

Without strong faculty members supporting the areas of importance for a university, academic priorities are difficult to achieve. A strategic infrastructure framework for Rice-Brazilian partnerships has been to recruit and hire faculty members who are top in their academic fields, yet have some Brazilian background. This included either being originally from Brazil or having strong academic involvement and / or research ties with Brazil. As the faculty members build their research networks, contacts with top Brazilian faculty in their fields have grown. Further, the faculty's enthusiasm and collaboration across disciplines has helped Rice multiply partnerships with top researchers in Brazil. Currently, Rice enjoys well over 50 faculty members, across all disciplines, who are actively engaged in Rice-Brazilian collaborations.

Another aspect of Rice University's strategy for furthering stronger academic relationships with top institutions in Brazil included creating the Office of Brasil@Rice. Its purpose is to maximize natural synergies through Rice's strengths, alongside the assets of the city of Houston, whereby leading Brazilian universities would be offered academic professional training and research collaborations in energy, engineering, and science. When successfully matched with Brazil's growing needs in these expanding industries, all of the groups are automatically benefited. Brasil@Rice's efforts maintain a forefront priority of creating long-term, meaningful academic and research collaborations with top universities and institutions in Brazil. Expectations for engaging with Brazil for Rice departments and faculty require the goal of embarking on collaborations that provide two-way beneficially equal partnerships. This critical motivation has been articulated multiple ways, and at all levels of the campus.

The Brasil@Rice Office has an Advisory Board to help develop strategic priorities and make key decisions on how to best utilize funding. Brazilian visiting students and scholars' needs are also discussed and supported through the office and its Board. Members of the Brazil@Rice Board include the Vice Provost for Academic Affairs, the Vice Provost for Research, the Dean of Graduate & Postdoctoral Studies, top faculty members with strong Brazilian ties, and Administration from the Office of the President and Office of the Provost. Input from other Deans and faculty members is frequently sought, in order to gain insight from multiple disciplines and echelons of the university, including departmental, school, and university levels.

In an effort to insure that Rice-Brazilian efforts support two-way advancement, the Brasil@Rice Office provides a) specialized assistance for the incoming Brazilian faculty, researchers, and students, b) incentive travel grants to send Rice faculty to Brazil to meet with research collaborators, and invites Brazilian counterparts to Rice to expand bilateral collaborations, c) networking opportunities among Rice faculty to create internal synergies for expanding research collaboration and possible interdisciplinary activities with Brazil, and d) encouraging opportunities for Rice students to go to Brazil.

Without careful and personal attention, as well as joint efforts between individuals of U.S. and Brazilian student and research exchanges, US-Brazilian higher education partnerships tend to stagnate at a superficial level. The Brasil@Rice Office creates a "go to" area for the government-sponsored visiting and degree-seeking students, junior and senior researchers, higher education delegations from Brazilian universities and colleges, as well as academic partners from Brazil. Special support services the office provides specifically for the Brazilian students and scholars who are on-campus include: a) specialized communication networks, b) office hours to respond to academic, logistical and visa issues, c) English and Portuguese language and friendship exchange programs, and d) social gatherings to build a sense of community.

Building trust is a critical component for Brazilian visitors, just as it is with all international relationships. However it is an especially evident factor of the Brazilian culture. Providing available staff members (and a faculty member as needed) to answer inquiries and navigate the campus protocols, has been extremely beneficial in developing confident personal relationships. While it has been helpful for the communication with Brazilian students and scholars to be in Portuguese, it is not required. What is most important is communicating genuine concern for the individual. When the visitor returns to Brazil, it is anticipated the personal-touch will surely be communicated back to one's university and faculty members in Brazil, as well as to potential future students and researchers.

The Brasil@Rice Office is aware that dedicated office alone cannot accomplish trust with the Brazilian international students and scholars. This must be accomplished, also, at the broader institutional level, with a commitment to supporting the Brazilian internationals at all levels through positive departmental, academic, campus life, and personal interactions.

In order to begin building consensus for Rice-Brazilian cooperation at a broad level, communication efforts included instituting a series of "Brazil Briefs," meetings at which faculty and staff were informed about: a) Rice's vision for bi-lateral collaborations, b) existing academic relationships, c) funding opportunities, d) opportunities to support invited Brazilian students, research scholars, visiting faculty and other Brazilian visitors, and e) logistical infrastructure to insure activities were efficiently realized. The briefings encompassed an array of topics including high-level research successes, possible academic opportunities, and even humorous cultural tips.

Rice routinely publicizes the accomplishments of extraordinary international partnerships. Such was the case when Rice University signed the University of Sao Paulo (USP) as their first partner to utilize and co-administrate the use of the IBM Blue Gene supercomputer. Rice also widely communicated its first dual degree program, which happened to be with another partner university, Universidade Estadual de Campinas (UNICAMP), in Campinas, Brazil. As other academic departments and research labs learn about ground-breaking accomplishments within the Rice university community, and beyond, they tend to become more inspired to replicate, adapt and further their own innovation and meaningful collaboration. Rice routinely enacts a cycle of accomplishment, recognition, and inspiration concerning our Brazilian endeavors.

An important building-block for outbound student mobility to Brazil is Portuguese language teaching. Without it, sought for two-way student mobility is greatly hindered. Rice offers its students Portuguese classes, as well as outside-the-classroom opportunities for practicing Portuguese. On a weekly basis, one of the faculty members creates a social hour when students and staff, who are studying or practicing Portuguese, can meet as a group with Brazilian students and scholars either over lunch or for a coffee hour just to practice language skills. The group has become very popular on campus and is a helpful tool to build U.S.-Brazilian connections on a personal, yet informal level. A more formalized language exchange partnership program has also been implemented between U.S. and Brazilian students, who have specific goals they seek to accomplish in the weekly hour when they meet.

As the Rice-Brazilian collaborations grow, bi-national partnerships to other areas of the campus have begun to develop. Rice has begun to enjoy opportunities for staff exchange, where Rice staff members have the opportunity to participate in the Institute of International Education's (IIE) International Academic Partnership Program (IIE, 2014). The program creates delegation meetings to learn about various programs in Brazilian higher education, as well as opportunities to tour and meet with leaders of various kinds of universities, colleges, and institutes in Brazil. Opportunities to meet leaders in Brazilian higher education oversight bodies, such as the Ministry of Education and CAPES, were also a highlight. Rice has received visits from higher education delegations from Brazil, during which key faculty and administration members dialogued with the delegation members to share academic and administrative expertise, as well as to initiate conversations about continued partnerships.

Happily, Rice University was honored to be a recipient of the 2015 Paul Simon Campus Internationalization Spotlight Award for our work in Rice-Brazilian initiatives.

Case Study from a U.S. Institution:
Leveraging Research Partnerships for Institutional Collaboration

In this section, the University of Tulsa (TU), a small, private, Research I university, presents a case for how they have developed a strategy to leverage research collaborations for establishing partnerships with Brazilian universities. TU describes the context for its Brazilian initiatives, strategies to prepare the university for collaborating, and useful lessons for other institutions.

For TU, Brazil represents a key region of geographic interest. When TU adopted its Strategic Plan for Comprehensive Internationalization in 2011, it identified the Americas in general, and Brazil in particular, as a region in which we would leverage existing academic and research programs to support our goals for campus internationalization, such as diversification of student recruitment and expansion of international partnerships. TU has offered classes in the Portuguese language since 2006, and were keen to expand this academic program to include robust study abroad opportunities. Perhaps more importantly, TU recognized how relationships with Brazilian institutions were related to another area in our strategic plan, to advance international activities that support TU's leadership with interdisciplinary initiatives, specifically energy. TU's School of Petroleum Engineering has had relationships with collaborators in Brazil for more than 20 years; and Petrobras, the national oil company of Brazil, has supported graduate students and departmental research. Moreover, both the Collins College of Business and the College of Law were eager to tie their programs to collaborations focused on energy and natural resources in Brazil. The faculty directors of both the International Business and Language, and the Energy Management programs, in particular, saw Brazil, with the second-largest oil reserves in South America after Venezuela, as an obvious focus for both undergraduate curricular and research collaborations.

Despite this history, the depth and breadth of knowledge among TU staff and faculty in how to go about building research collaborations in Brazil was not deep. TU decided to apply to the Institute for International Academic Partnerships Program (IAPP) - Brazil, a program designed to help U.S. institutions navigate the Brazilian higher education system, think critically about a strategic partnership plan, and access the tools and resources necessary to make decisions about collaborative activities. The IIE staff, through the IAPP, assisted with developing guidelines for assessing on-campus international partnership capacity and developing practical strategic plans for partnership activities in Brazil; provided a series of training webinars, focused on topics such as implementing strategic partnerships, faculty engagement, developing a consolidated partnership strategy, and higher education in Brazil; made available information resources about the higher education system in Brazil and IIE publications and policy research reports related to higher education, student mobility, and international partnership-building; and organized a study tour to Brazil that included visits to select higher education institutions and other educational exchange organizations. TU created a cross-campus Brazil Working Group, with faculty from key areas in each of the four colleges who participated in the webinars and assisted with developing a specific TU plan.

The emerging strategy attempted to do two things: leverage the extensive research collaborations cultivated by the faculty in petroleum engineering, and broaden the base of knowledge and engagement with faculty in energy-related programs in other colleges. The Working Group recommended several initiatives that would prepare us for engaging in productive partnerships:

- Support reciprocal faculty visits: To build familiarity among faculty with the scholarship at Brazilian institutions, short-term faculty exchanges were recommended, beginning with the institutions in Rio de Janeiro and in Sao Paulo that have historically collaborated with the petroleum engineering faculty.

- Sustain contact with TU alumni in Brazil: Because of our long history with the Brazilian petroleum engineering industry, we have many alumni living in the Rio de Janeiro area, most of whom work for Petrobras or affiliated companies. Since many of these alumni completed graduate degrees at TU, they maintain a positive relationship with their departments and advisors, making it possible to affirm connections. TU recognized that this group may be influential with student recruitment and other partnership strategies in Brazil.

- Strengthen existing relations with Brazilian students: TU already has a presence among two groups of highly desirable Brazilian students who come to the university because of the energy programs: a) Brazilian Scientific Mobility students who spend a year here, including an internship, and return to their home universities and cities with a good impression of their experiences, and b) Brazilian Youth Ambassadors/Jovens Embaixadores, competitively selected high school students from all over Brazil, who are hosted in Tulsa and TU for two weeks every January. In both cases, TU capitalized on the students' familiarity with the university and their favorable experience by attracting them to the next level (from high school to college, from college to graduate school). Such an initiative, however, would need scholarship funding in order to compete with the best Brazilian universities, which are free.

- Develop an International Business and Portuguese program: TU's already successful International Business/Language (IBL) program has the potential to be expanded to include a Portuguese track, with the idea that TU students would complete beginning and intermediate Portuguese at TU before participating in a program component at a Brazilian partner university. The component in Brazil could last for one semester, or perhaps for three or four if it were to be a dual degree program. Such a program would capitalize on current interest in Brazilian economic growth and cultural presence, as well as Brazil's large impact in the energy market.

- Continue the Brazil Working Group: This group of TU faculty and staff with interest and experience in Brazil has been effective at bringing together the expertise to advance these initiatives.

The TU experience, while still a work-in-progress, is instructive as a case study for the many U.S. institutions starting to build collaborations in Brazil. As a first step, it is important for institutions seeking to work with Brazil to assess their readiness to build partnerships. Readiness can be defined in many ways: depth of campus interest in Brazil; breadth of faculty engagement with Brazil; previous experience with research collaborations; availability of necessary personnel and financial resources; or campus leadership. In short, readiness refers to an institution's preparedness to develop and execute a plan for engaging with Brazilian institutions.

As a second step, it is valuable to inventory and audit existing partnerships, especially to leverage grassroots partnerships. It is not uncommon for research faculty to have collaborations that exist around a specific project, such as drilling technology, that have not risen to the level of requiring institutional agreements. These collaborations are often deep and rooted in fundamental areas for institutional collaborations, such as the exchange of graduate students. These existing projects can be key for cultivating new or broader relationships with Brazilian partners, and with identifying new leaders on-campus to expand collaborations.

Third, for institutions new to working in Brazil, it is important to cultivate in key faculty and staff a deep knowledge about issues in higher education in the region. This is will help the institution set appropriate campus expectations for institutional collaborations, such as timelines or necessary resources, and prepare institutional leadership for evaluating potential partner institutions. At TU, the faculty and staff expertise came from diverse areas, so drawing on the experience of the faculty who had been involved with establishing the Portuguese language program and with the petroleum engineering research activities was natural. But, it also relied heavily on resources from IIE to prepare additional campus experts who would play a role in the proposed initiatives.

Finally, TU is cognizant of the importance of remaining flexible. The strategy was based on expanding opportunities in the Brazilian energy sector. This expansion has not met expectations. Despite setbacks to the government's estimates for oil production, TU is convinced that Brazil continues to be strategically important to the United States. Brazil has attracted businesses such as the U.S. drilling giants Halliburton and Baker Hughes, has gained partnerships with oil companies from India and China, and has drawn investment dollars from American pension funds in Florida, South Carolina, and California (Sreeharsha, 2014). The opportunities for partnerships remain extensive, but TU recognizes that, as with most partnerships, there must be preparations for a long-term investment in maintaining networks of collaborators.

The Brazilian Faculty Point of View:
A Reality Check for Successful International Collaborations

While colleges and universities in the U.S. develop their strategies and build frameworks to cultivate relationships with Brazilian institutions, their development can become one-sided, with potentially detrimental blind spots from the U.S. perspective. Without the mutual cooperation of Brazilian and U.S. partners, such an effort may be short-lived. This section provides insight on how to achieve the greatest success in the midst of binational research collaborative interactions, as well as identify some motivational factors that can affect it - positively or negatively - from a Brazilian faculty member's perspective. Dr. Vitor Leite, faculty member from Universidade Estadual Paulista (UNESP), has had substantial experience with working with U.S. and Brazilian research groups, both in the USA and in Brazil. His experiences include leading and partnering bi-national research groups.

According to Dr. Leite, a critical aspect for successful collaborations is the willingness to learn from one another. Not only does the open attitude refer to technical and practical aspects of the research being shared and performed, but also with the relationships of the foreign partners. The learning process requires forging personal, cultural, and institutional connections, that must be respectful for all parties to enjoy equally-invested learning opportunities. If all participants in partner research groups maintain those key points, success will be a natural outcome. These ideas should be applicable not only to the specific U.S.-Brazilian research collaboration, but for collaborative academic partnerships between all countries.

However, this process is not easy. When one goes to live abroad for a while, there are so many unknowns, that sojourners are most likely to be intimidated by the situations in which they may find themselves. It is such a challenging situation, in fact, that if a person does not first live abroad at relatively young age, it is unlikely that, later, he or she will do it at all. As people get older, they tend to become more conservative and wary of the risks involved in new experiences such as living abroad.

Those who have been abroad before have already experienced numerous valuable lessons, be they pleasant or not. Their need for assistance is generally much less than first-timers, who often find time spent abroad risky and full of challenging new experiences. Therefore, it is important to keep in mind that the students and scholars who are coming to the U.S.A. from abroad to conduct research are under a great amount of stress. Assisting them with the sometimes precarious transitions to a new culture's lifestyle is a key ingredient for a successful collaboration between research groups. As the foreign visitor takes more risks in accepting these experiences, visiting students and scholars are also more likely than their native collaborators to get into trouble, due to an intrinsic lack of understanding the protocols and unspoken expectations. It is the responsibility of both the hosting research group and foreign sending collaborators, under the direction of partner supervisors, to proactively work together to identify potential issues, and seek solutions, as situations arise.

Those who have experience foreign study or research situations will be able to identify with this depiction of challenges. Everything looks so different to a newcomer to a land and culture. Social and behavior standards vary and can be interpreted in many different ways. Even routine activities, like shopping or interacting with people, may require intense evaluation and observation. There are always novelties and opportunities to learn in international research collaborations, but the cross-cultural nature of this kind of endeavor creates unique and challenging situations. Both psychologically and practically, there is a type of "magnification effect", whereby everyday experiences are intensified. Individuals who are working in the host institution have to be keenly aware of cultural differences. Even the most subtle cultural values, patterns and behaviors can seem very confusing to the visiting international collaborator. That said, the intrinsic development of cross-cultural understanding and awareness motivates the transnational partners to expand beyond their comfort zone, and in turn, expand their two-way learning base – academically, culturally and relationally.

However, even a partner with a very positive and open attitude may struggle in coping with new problems when they arise. Willingness alone is not sufficient to guarantee that one will have a successful experience. Hard work on all practical aspects of living and working in a new culture is assured, so the results maintain on a positive trajectory.

While surprises are probable it is important to avoid or minimize problems intrinsic to aspects of the U.S.-Brazilian research collaboration experience. Many problems can be prevented in a well-planned project. The main players involve, and their important tasks include:

1) **Institutions** play a key role in legal, health, and financial issues. The institutions through their supervisor/principal investigators (PIs) can make the theoretical, practical and cultural adjustment process easier and with minimal stress. For example, not all students can count on financial support from their families, and financial instability leads to an immense insecurity, which can be prevented by advanced planning with the home and host institutions. As they arrive in a new country, students will not know the local systems well or have friends to help, so support from the research groups, and local host friendship families can make a huge difference.

2) **Home group**, or the research group that is the "champion" or leader of a particular program or project, is keenly important in planning and arranging the right connections for a strong framework under which the groups will work. Contacts and research are essential, as well as an explicit and well-defined project, with clear goals and objectives. In fact, if the collaborations are to last shorter than one year, it is even more important that the scope is well-defined, and time is not wasted on exploratory problem discovery, but on achieving results.

3) The **host group** and **students** are directly involved in collaborations and are major players in the initiative, as well as in successful results. Examples of their engagement is critical, and they include:
   - If the host lab behaves with indifference, the effects are devastating for results. Material conditions alone are not enough for a successful collaboration.

- Empathy between the home group and visiting student or scholar involved is *the most* important aspect in collaboration. Technical competence is not enough. If a partner in collaboration has a serious character flaw, there is nothing that will make the experience work out. When working with a congenial person, it does not matter what the topic is: it is going to be fun, the partners will like it, and eventually it will turn out to be a great piece of work. *Note:* This is why the initial contacts made by the home group are so crucial.
- Sometimes a visiting student or researcher can be lost, wandering around without goals, and yet can be mistakenly interpreted as being too independent. The host PI/ supervisor and the scholar's home supervisor need to be in close communication and keenly aware of individual student motivations, in order to understand what the visitor is capable of, and assign his or her project accordingly. Clear prioritization and coordination between the projects PIs also are essential for providing the best guidance for the visiting student/scholar. However, awareness of what is considered productive can be affected by cultural and individual bias of the host supervisor.
- Arrival and proper on-boarding, orientation, and articulating clear expectations can set the tone for the entire experience.

Collaborations are expected to unfold naturally. An appropriate analogy is getting married. It is not usual to meet a person and get married blindly or immediately. One can do so, but it quite likely will not work out well. Instead, a couple should first get to know each other, date for a while, get engaged, and finally get married. Likewise, if partner collaborators get to know each other, explore their common ground, make a commitment to a project, and then engage in the project together, there is a good chance that the collaboration will be a success. Through such measures, a working relationship will be strengthened, sustained, grown, and tend to lead to positive results that might even reach far beyond the initial expectations. This is what happened in the interaction between Rice University and the University of Sao Paulo (Symposium on Current Topics in Molecular Biophysics, 2014). In this case, preeminent researchers that have known and conducted research together for a long time are today able to envision more ambitious plans than they would ever have thought possible when the collaboration began.

Overall, both the hosting institution and the partnering collaborator should not expect to embark on this endeavor and expect it to work the same as if they were working with someone from their home country, culture, and educational system. There will be many differences, and this is a positive thing that all participating parties can learn from.

In sum, Dr. Leite's advice - a Brazilian faculty member's perspective to U.S. higher education leaders who are embarking on collaborative research partnerships with Brazilian universities and colleges – echoes the advice that a great sage gave to his disciple when commenting the large contrasts between eastern and western cultures: "Everything on earth is of mixed character, like a mingling of sand and sugar. Be like the wise ant which seizes only the sugar, and leaves the sand untouched" (Yogananda, 1946).

Conclusions

What is necessary to create successful U.S.-Brazilian collaborative research partnership? The first step in a successful partnership is developing an institutional strategy statement that obligates the U.S. university to seek out and commit to long-term relationships with partner institutions in Brazil. Commitment is actualized through: a) strategic faculty hires, b) supporting and expanding current Brazilian collaborations, c) creating effective avenues of communication among active and potential faculty for cross-disciplinary work, d) insuring that a priority of creating mutually beneficial bi-national relationships is adhered to, e) maintaining continuous communication with Brazilian partners, f) insuring that the U.S. collaborative partners - faculty and students/scholars – travel to Brazil, as well as inviting collaborators to one's own institution on a regular basis, g) exercising flexibility in using different prototypes of partnerships beyond traditional models, and h) most importantly, insuring that trust and shared purpose of goals benefits all partner.

References

100,000 Strong in the Americas. (2014). *100,000 Strong in the Americas*. Retrieved August 30, 2014, from 100,000 Strong in the Americas: *http://www.100kstrongamericas.org/*.

Baker, Adria L., Cristina Herdon, Cheryl Matherly, & Vitor Leite. (2014). Key U.S. institutional competencies required for successful U.S.-Brazilian research collaborations. NAFSA: Association of International Educators Annual Conference 2014.

Deardorff, Darla K. (2014). Why engage in mobility? Key issues within global mobility. *Internationalization of Higher Education and Global Mobility*. Edited by Bernhard Streitwieser, 35-42.

Goodman, Alan E. (2014). Interview with Aloizio Mercadante, Minister of Education, Government of Brazil, 'The Brazil scientific mobility program: Advancing innovation, competitiveness, and business leadership.' *Latin America's new knowledge economy: Higher education, government, and international collaboration*. Edited by Jorge Balan. 133-138.

Horch, Dan. (2014). As demand for education rises in Brazil, for-profit colleges fill the gap. Retrieved 6/21/2014 from *New York Times*. http://dealbook.nytimes.com/2014/06/19/as-demand-for-education-rises-in-brazil-for-profit-colleges-fill-the-gap/.

Institute for International Education. (2014). *Brazil scientific mobility program*. Retrieved August 30, 2014, from Institute for International Education: http://www.iie.org/Programs/Brazil-Scientific-Mobility.

Institute of International Education. (2013, 2014). International academic partnership program (IAPP)-Brazil.

Monks, Edward, Gabriella Turrisi. (2014). Institute of International Education, Inc., *Brazil scientific mobility program*, brochure.

NAFSA: Association of International Educators. (2015). Senator Paul Simon award for campus internationalization. Retrieved 3/30/2015 from NAFSA website. http://www.nafsa.org/Explore_International_Education/Impact/ Awards/Senator_ Paul_Simon_Award/Senator_Paul_Simon_Award_for_Campus_ Internationalization/.

Rice University. (2014). Rice University, IBM partner to bring first Blue Gene supercomputer to Texas. Retrieved 6/21/2014 from *Rice News*. http://news.rice.edu/2012/03/30/rice-university-ibm-partner-to-bring-first-blue-gene-supercomputer-to-texas-2/.

Rice University. (2015). Rice honored with NAFSA award for international education. Retrieved 3/30/2015 from *Rice News*. http://news.rice.edu/2015/02/24/rice-honored-with-nafsa-award-for-international-education-2/.

Rice University. (2014). Dual-degree doctoral program in history is among Rice's initiatives with Brazil. Retrieved 6/21/2014 from *Rice News*. http://news.rice.edu/2012/11/16/dual-degree-doctoral-program-in-history-is-among-rices-initiatives-with-brazil/.

Sreeharsha, V. (2014, June 14). Brazil finds bumpy path on way to becoming world oil power. Retrieved August 30, 2014, from McClatchy DC: http://www.mcclatchydc.com/2014/06/05/229499_brazil-finds-bumpy-path-on-way.html?rh=1.

Studying the world: A huge scholarship programme could boost economic growth. (2012, March 17). *The Economist*.

Symposium on Current Topics in Molecular Biophysics. (2014). Retrieved 9/21/2014 from http://biophysics-saopaulo.org/ and http://biophysics-saopaulo.org/program/.

Yogananda, Paramahansa. (1946). *Autobiography of a Yogi*, Los Angeles, CA.: Self-Realization Fellowship, Chapter 36.

About the Authors

Adria L. Baker, Ed.D ([abaker@rice.edu]abaker@rice.edu) is Associate Vice Provost for International Education and Executive Director of the Office of International Students & Scholars at Rice University. She also directs the Brasil@Rice Office, which opened in 2012. She led the nomination that awarded Rice University the 2015 Senator Paul Simon Campus Internationalization Spotlight Award for Rice-Brazilian academic collaborations and research initiatives. She has supported international education exchange in leadership, multiple presentations and publications. Her focus has been public policy, professional development and regulatory practice. She participated in the US–Korea Fulbright IEA program in 2013.

Cheryl Matherly, Ed.D (cheryl-matherly@utulsa.edu) is Vice Provost for Global Education at The University of Tulsa. She provides strategic leadership for the university's international education initiatives and teaches in the graduate program in Educational Studies. Her research has focused on the impact of education abroad on the development of students' global competencies. She has received three National Science Foundation grants to examine the impact of international experiences on learning outcomes for students in STEM fields. She is the recipient of two Fulbright IEA grants (Germany and Japan.) She has an Ed.D. in Education Leadership and Culture Studies from the University of Houston.

Vitor B. P. Leite, Ph.D. ([vleite@sjrp.unesp.br]vleite@sjrp.unesp.br), is Associate Professor at São Paulo State University (UNESP), Brazil. Leite received his PhD in Physics/Biophysics at UC San Diego (1995). His research interests are in theoretical molecular biophysics, with special attention to protein folding, and its application to bioethanol production. He has been involved in many international collaboration efforts.

Pause…Before Rushing In: Examining Motivations to Help In Trauma Impacted Communities Internationally

Barbara Faye Streets, Ph.D., *SUNY Oswego*
Guerda Nicolas, Ph.D., *University of Miami*
Karen Wolford, Ph.D., *SUNY Oswego*

Abstract

International service learning courses, cultural immersion projects, and international disaster response teams have provided valuable aid, services, supplies and programs to trauma-impacted communities across the globe. Many colleges and universities support global learning and the creation of global citizens, and this ethic is reflected in many educational mission statements. To avoid a tepid humanitarian response to a disaster, it is important for human services providers to critically examine their motivations for assisting so that the result reflects justice, integrity, and cultural competence. This article offers a set of reflective questions for human services providers, cultural immersion curriculum developers, and independent agents to ponder prior to responding to international disasters. We used a qualitative social justice framework to inform and design applied practice recovery efforts. This framework promotes meaningful dialogue for ensuring mutually reciprocal recovery efforts, a goal that will be ultimately more empowering in the long run.

Keywords: *Disasters; Cultural Competence; Trauma, Haiti; College Immersion Trips*

When natural disasters such as earthquakes, floods, hurricanes, landslides, volcanic eruptions, blizzards, avalanches, tornadoes or tsunamis hit, there is an almost immediate and urgent reaction to assist in an effort to save lives, limit destruction and reduce suffering. For example, in 2010 a 7.0 magnitude earthquake devastated the infrastructure of Port-au-Prince, Haiti and nearby communities, and resulted in over 200,000 deaths, over 300,000 injuries and displacement of over one million (McShane, 2011; Pan American Health Organization, 2011). Many international agencies rushed to aid or provide rehabilitative support (Landry, O'Connell, Tardif & Burns, 2010) and humanitarian aid (Raviola, Severe, Therosme, Oswald, Belkin & Eustache, 2013), and many nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), schools and organizations also wanted to offer some aid. In this vein, our College, SUNY Oswego (located in a semi-rural area in the Northeastern United States) also wished to provide assistance. However, we were definitive in the need to have community collaborators and partners with expertise in Haitian history, language, culture, worldview, and Haitian mental health, as we wished to avoid taxing the current infrastructure and resources, were cautious about undermining the formal and informal support networks, and feared committing unintentional racism. Furthermore, we lacked

native proficiency in Haitian Creole. Although we understood that disaster response in the first 24-48 hours, which may entail basic living and emergency aid such as food, water, medical assistance, search and recovery efforts, was vital, we understood that the most effective relief providers were those who had culturally competent connections in Haiti prior to the earthquake disaster (Edmonson, 2010; Holguín-Veras, Jaller & Wachtendorf, 2012).

This paper aims to contribute to the cultural competency and disaster response literature by sharing a set of questions for cultural immersion curriculum developers to consider prior to entry into disaster-impacted communities. Many of these questions we considered prior to, during and in discussion of our course and/or immersion experience. As our course completes its fourth offering, we share the summation of questions compiled thus far. Additionally, this article is for religious organizations, educational institutions, community groups, companies, foreign NGOs, private individuals, shelter and site planners, education experts, aid workers and those without prior substantial linkages to a disaster impacted foreign country or region, but nonetheless, who feel a humanitarian urge to help.

Reasons to Pause

Our international cultural immersion protocol was created out of a desire to provide assistance in the 2010 earthquake in Haiti. Four professors (two from the Psychology Department and two from the Department of Counseling and Psychological Services), at a semi-rural Northeastern university with a predominately White student population, met to consider how assistance could be offered, a request, which initially came from university administration. Our college's student Caribbean Student Association had members interested in helping as well. At the time, the Psychology Department along with the Counseling and Psychological Services Department was initiating an Interdisciplinary Trauma Studies Graduate Certificate program. Our philosophy to 'do no harm', coupled with the redesigning of a pre-existing course in trauma, guided our efforts and encouraged us to pause. Thoughtful, culturally sensitive and immediate intervention is effective; however, rushing in may lead to the following issues and problems.

> **Example 1**. "At the Cuban relief center on the Dominican – Haitian border, I met a college student from New York state… she said she had come down on her own to volunteer. But she was there looking for food" (cited in Edmonson, 2010, p. 45).

> **Example 2**. According to Nicolas, Jean-Jacques, and Wheatley (2012): "more than 300 graduate students in social work and psychology (who studied outside Haiti) were employed to provide services. However, many of these students received little guidance and supervision. In the rare cases in which such training was provided to students, it was often led by psychologists and psychiatrists from other countries" (p. 514).

> **Example 3**. According to Maryse Desgrottes, in an interview with Harvard Educational Review editor Raygine (2011), an important Haitian value is reciprocity. Thus, when

NGOs pass out aid (such as bags of rice) without a countermeasure allowing for an opportunity to offer something in return, it rubs against this important Haitian value, possibly decreasing esteem or pride. Desgrottes also shared that there should be a limit on the amount of time NGOs remain in Haiti after they have helped (see interview "There is a Lot That I Want to Do: Reflections on the Relief Efforts in Haiti, 2011, by Harvard Educational Review).

Example 4. The Mount Sinai Medical Center (based in New York), the New England Brace Company Foundation (NEBCO, based in the US) and Handicap International (an NGO created in 1982 and present in Haiti prior to the earthquake) are all foreign entities that had a stake in caring for Fabienne Jean, a professional dancer for Haiti's National Theater, who lost part of her right leg in the earthquake. Her story, as covered by various media outlets (Sontag, 2010; Kushner, 2013) chronicle the complexity of a trauma survivor being caught between well-meaning camps with conflicting policies and agendas. Ms. Jean's doctor suggested she travel to the USA for additional medical care and the NGO (that provided her prosthetic leg) wanted her to remain in Haiti (Pierre-Louis, 2011).

Example 5. Haiti is not alone in being subjected to human service workers or external helpers rushing in to provide assistance after a disaster. Wessells and van Ommeren (2008) share several examples of good intentions gone bad when mental health and psychosocial support workers intervened in the Sri Lanka tsunami in 2004, and in Tirana following the Serb paramilitaries attacks on Kosovar Albanians.

These examples indicate that good intentions are not enough when providing a humanitarian response to trauma-impacted communities. In fact, Shah (2012) states, "factors that increase the chance of harm include inadequate training for workers that 'parachute' in during disasters motivated by the feeling, "I just had to come and help" (p. 444). Approximately ten years prior to the quake, the Association of Black Psychologists (2003) noted and made recommendations and guidelines for the treatment of ethnic minority populations by mental health providers seeking to support or establish mental health services. Additionally, the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC, 2007) created guidelines on mental health and psychosocial support in trauma impacted communities to help reduce the possibility of well-intentioned efforts causing "unintentional harm" (p. 10), and following its publication, academic discourse about the IASC guidelines (Baingana, 2008; Rivera, Pérez-Sales, Aparcana, Bazán, Gianella & Lozano, 2008; van Ommeren & Wessells, 2008; Wessells & van Ommeren, 2008) ensued.

In 2010, shortly after the earthquake, AHPsy (L'Association Haitienne de Psychologie) was created to be a leader in defining and implementing a mental health plan for Haitian Nationals (Nicolas et al., 2012). Noted also was the need to train the new/next generation of Haitian mental health counselors who can work with country nationals in a culturally competent

manner. In March, 2011, the Disasters Emergency Committee published a 44-page report entitled, 'Urban Disasters –Lessons from Haiti: Study of member agencies' responses to the earthquake in Port au Prince, Haiti.' The report provided examples of good practices as well as recommendations in response to the earthquake. With the abundance of published material available (prior, during and after the quake) to help humanitarian workers prevent unintentional harm, why is it that faux pas (well-intentioned efforts that transform into unintended mistakes) as those noted above still occur?

According to Pierre-Louis (2011), "instead of using the earthquake to rethink their aid policy in Haiti, the donor countries continue to support the same failed approach" (p. 199). Klarreich & Polman (2012) add, "from the very beginning, NGOs followed their own agendas and set their own priorities, largely excluding the Haitian government and civil society" (p. 12). As summarized in the short clip entitled, An Unlikely Problem: Too Much Disaster Relief (2013) by Bloomberg Businessweek, "relief organizations that rush in immediately after a tragedy aren't necessarily able to undertake the years of rebuilding that follow" (p. 29), a problem which undermines long-term recovery.

Overview of Promising Practices in Psychosocial Response to International Disaster

Current best practices, guidelines and standards for the delivery of Mental Health and Psychosocial Support (MHPSS) include the Inter-Agency Standing Committee guidelines (IASC) (2007), the "Humanitarian Charter and Minimum Standards in Disaster Response" detailed in the handbook of the Sphere Project (2011) and according to Shah (2012), the following four goals: "regarding community as valuable partners, avoiding harm, alleviating suffering and facilitating fruitful change, and ensuring sustainability" (p. 441). Tol, Bastin, Jordans, Minas, Souza, Weissbecker and van Ommeren (2014) also identify IASC (2007) and Sphere Project (2011) as embodying best practices for the field of MHPSS. Additionally, the Psychological First Aid Field Operations Guide (PFA), developed by the National Child Traumatic Stress Network in collaboration with the National Center for Posttraumatic Stress Disorder, provides evidenced based guidelines for assisting individuals in "reducing the initial distress caused by catastrophic events and in fostering short and long-term adaptive functioning" (Brymer, Jacobs, Layne, Pynoos, Ruzek, Steinberg, Vernberg & Watson, 2006, p. 5). A published overview of the PFA (Vernberg, Steinberg, Jacobs, Brymer, Watson, Osofsky & Ruzek, 2008) provides a summary of the nearly two-hundred-page document. The Psychosocial Working Group (PWG) (2004) also provides standards and guidelines for planning psychosocial programs for disaster survivors. As in many disasters, mental health and psychosocial support involves the recovery and identification of human remains so that burial rituals and healing can commence: Sweet (2010) summarizes best practices in this domain.

Critical Reflection

The IASC (2007) defines mental health and psychosocial support as "a type of local or outside support that aims to protect or promote psychosocial well-being and/or prevent or treat

mental disorder" (p. 17). If two words could summarize emerging consensus on best practices in psychosocial response to an international disaster, they would be *critical reflection*. Creating space for critical reflection, asking difficult questions, welcoming the feedback, and managing the anxiety that some of these questions might bring is part of ethical, culturally relevant and effective MHPSS. Researchers who drive the discourse on critical reflection and promising practices in MHPSS urge human services providers to be mindful of the possibility of reproducing inequities and critically examining power and privilege relationships when engaging in work outside their home countries (Beech, 2006; Shah, 2007; Shah 2012; Wehbi, 2009).

For example, Shah (2007) states that neocolonial processes dim the use of culturally embedded practices that enhance healing after a disaster. Shah (2007) defines neocolonial as "the present-day asymmetrical influence of the West over the non-West. Neocolonialism is an indirect form of control through which the West perpetuates its influence over underdeveloped nations through marketing, development work, relief aid, cultural exchange, and education" (p. 52). Shah provides eight guidelines to counteract the often invisible influence of neocolonial transference dynamics. Such guidelines include paying close attention to how, whether and why culturally embedded treatments are (or are not) utilized (p. 60), examining cultural power, using an ethnomedical consultant, developing integrated services, and critiquing subjectification-victimization practices (p. 60-61). Shah (2007) maintains that ethnomedical competence includes the ability to be aware of neocolonial practices, as well as, to actively advocate for and employ culturally embedded practices, treatments and alternative practices that promote healing. Shah (2012) states that culturally informed MHPSS is best informed when pushback (a process of eagerly seeking feedback, unpacking community resistance to an intervention and seeking redirection to a proposed intervention based on culturally relevant needs) is employed (p. 444). However, pushback is counter to USA academic norms of autonomy and 'expertness', i.e., being recognized as the best in an area or having a superior record of achievement in a field.

Urging social work students to examine the underlying reasons why they seek international placements, Wehbi (2009) suggests that components of pre-departure programs for students should encourage students to reflect on their own cultural backgrounds; examine historical relations between the student's home country and the destination country; and explore beliefs about one's personal agency. The questions provided in this manuscript support this perspective.

While critical reflection is vital, examining successes in the response to recent international disasters is also useful. In a review of lessons learned from six disasters in five countries, Reifels et al. (2013) stressed the importance of "(1) tailoring the disaster response to the disaster; (2) targeting at-risk populations; (3) addressing barriers in access to care; (4) providing multidimensional care; (5) recognizing existing support networks; (6) extending roles for mental health providers; and (7) maintaining efficient coordination and consistency of services" (pages 6-7).

Differential Adherence to Best Practices

Although interventions such as community and family support programs, and structured social activities are among the most frequently reported MHSPP programs (Tol, Bastin, Jordans, Minas, Souza, Weissbecker, & van Ommeren, 2014), little information exists as to what works (Kaul & Welzant, 2005) and why it works when providing transnational humanitarian assistance in critical needs areas and "there is as much disagreement as agreement over what constitutes good practices" (Beech, 2006, p. 94). For example, in an 8 month period immediately following the Haiti earthquake, the MHPSS included the following: individual psychological support, group psychological support/ counseling; psychotropic medications; psychotherapy; case management; child friendly spaces; self-help; vocational training; advocacy, and other social support (Raviola, Severe, Therosme, Oswald, Belkin & Eustache, 2013).

However, despite the employment of MHPSS best practices known at the time of the Haiti earthquake "challenges have been documented broadly in the functioning of humanitarian mechanisms, including: introduction of the UN cluster process in an exclusive, top-down manner in disregard of local context and existing coordination structures, potentially undermining local ownership and coordination of humanitarian, reconstruction, and development initiatives with Haitian civil society groups" (Raviola, Severe, Therosme, Oswald, Belkin & Eustache, 2013, p. 445). Thus, even when best practices are outlined, adherence to (or success with) published best practices may be disappointing. Haiti is not alone in this. For example, McIntyre and Nelson (2012) examined adherence to 59 published disaster mental health best practices in three states that experienced federally-declared disasters. Adherence to compliance with published best practices was 71%, 42% and 12%.

There are many reasons why adherence to best practices in MHPSS is less than optimal. Ager (2006) outlines four contested themes in MHPSS programming: the cultural appropriateness of what MHPSS providers offer; how pathology, trauma and suffering is conceptualized; the supremacy of mental health in complex emergencies; and the approaches used to deliver MHPSS interventions to large groups (p. 35). Until it is clear what works with whom, under which conditions, human services providers are vulnerable to possibly making mistakes with good intentions (Reyes, 2006). For example, a former widespread and accepted psychosocial support practice, which is now discouraged by the World Health Organization, includes Critical Incident Stress Debriefing (CISD) (IASC, 2010; van Emmerik, Kamphuis, Hulsbosch, & Emmelkamp, 2002; WHO, 2005).

In summary, reoccurring themes in the MHPSS literature of best practices include the notion of critical reflection which includes: do no harm; good intentions are not enough; and the importance of employing culturally competent processes. This article contributes to the process of critical reflection by providing a list of questions to ask prior to providing mental health/ psychosocial assistance. What makes our work different is that many of these questions were asked (and are now integrated) in a semester-long course, prior to engagement with a trauma impacted community (Haiti). This structured use of time and reflection allows students to

examine harm/ beneficence, personal motivations and intentions, and to examine and engage in culturally competent practices.

Examining Motivations

As cited in Lowe et al. (2008), "Immersing students into another country's culture is an effective method of promoting cross-cultural literacy and maximizing their learning" (p. 745). Cultural immersion is a strategic and useful method of enhancing cross-cultural awareness (Lewis & Niesenbaum, 2005), global-mindedness (Hadis, 2005), elucidating biases and unconscious beliefs (Wood & Atkins, 2006) and increasing cultural competency (Dupre & Goodgold, 2007). Assessment of the personal, professional and institutional motivations for either a study abroad, international exchange, service learning or immersion experience is important in order to prevent unintentional harm to another agency, country or its peoples. In consultation with students, consultants and faculty over various semesters, and significant reflection before, during and since the completion of our own immersion experience, we created the following list of questions to serve as a screen to examine intentional and unintentional values, assumptions and motives prior to engaging in international work in trauma impacted communities.

In the questions that follow, insert your name, organization, agency, department, collective, or entity where appropriate. The statements below reflect many of the questions we reviewed as we examined not only our motives, but also how we would structure our Ethnocultural Aspects of Trauma course, and the student-faculty cultural immersion experience in Haiti. When considering how to offer assistance, these questions allowed us to examine blind spots and areas for caution. Thus, screening questions prior to individual, agency or institutional immersion into target culture or country include:

A. *Delineate personal motivations*
   a. Why am I helping?
   b. Am I the right person to assist?
   c. Why are we helping?
   d. Are we the right people to help?

B. *Obtain basic information*
   a. Who is asking for the proposed program, intervention, aid?
   b. What exactly is being asked for?
   c. Does what I bring or what my agency brings match with what is being asked for or what is needed?
   d. Does what I bring or my agency brings in any way undermine the economic capital, local businesses or resources of the community or nation state?

C. *Examine the urge in the rush to help from multiple perspectives*
   a. Have I considered how my internalized racism, sexism, classism, ageism, heterosexism, ableism, privilege, and religious biases may impact my motives,

values, assumptions and beliefs about this target group/country (Haiti) and its people?

b. In what way do I view these country nationals as 'different' from me and what meaning do I ascribe to that difference?

c. Are there any conflicts of interests that impact or influence my desire to assist?

d. Are there Haitian run/operated Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) that have similar goals as the ones I have? Have I sought partnership with them?

e. How will monetary resources be prioritized?

f. How will I, my team, or my agency negotiate disparities in power?

g. After I (my team, agency) have left, will what I (we) have done to move the country nationals forward based on their best interests, not mine (or my agency)?

D. *Assess cultural competency*

a. Is what I have or what my agency has to offer culturally relevant, culturally sensitive, and appropriate without the imposition of my individual/agency/ institutions' values or beliefs?

b. Do I or my agency possess the prerequisite knowledge, skills and awareness to assist?

E. *Explore history*

a. What is the target country's legacy of contact with foreign national and other outsiders, including those from my country, my institution and my background?

b. What current or past history (cultural, social, political, environment, spiritual, etc.) frames the work being done and the people doing it?

c. What is the country's history of heterogeneous groups, treatment toward those groups and how the work proposed impacts those groups?

d. How have the forces of colonialism, white supremacy, ethnocentrism and externally imposed 'manifest destiny' practices impacted the state, the people, and the agency that I (we) plan to partner with?

F. *Identify partnerships & parameters of involvement*

a. Who are ALL the stakeholders and are they sitting at the table?

b. What are the needs of the community?

c. Do we have the appropriate liaisons or community connections?

d. What are the parameters of involvement (brief, lifetime, seasonal, intermittent or based on funding)?

e. What are the consequences of such involvement (positive and negative)?

f. Who has the most to gain by such involvement?

g. What happens if the project is incomplete, suspended, terminated or interrupted?

G. *Examine the type of training needed before, during and after implementation of the project?*

H. *Discuss how knowledge is shared between and among community members and consultants.* Will there be an opportunity to 'train the trainers'? In other words, due to the strength of social network ties, what is the likelihood that what I have to offer will be formally and informally shared among other country nationals, community leaders/members and stakeholders?

I. *Examine issues specific to your specialty area:* With mental health as the umbrella specialty for our project, the following issues and questions were also considered:

   a. How has Mental Health Counseling been practiced in this country and community?

   b. What is the recent past historical context of trauma as it is understood in this culture?

   c. How is mental health, mental illness and counseling viewed and understood from this culture's perspective?

   d. In what language will the work be completed?

   e. What is the community's assessment of its mental, emotional and psychological needs?

   f. What is the role of family, religion in the counseling and emotional healing process?

   g. How do country nationals view 'help' culturally?

   h. Are we seeking help or knowledge from indigenous practitioners?

   i. For this work, who are the KEY community contacts?

   j. How are the goals of the proposed project in line with the goals of the national body which defines the mental health plan in the country? The organization that has taken a lead in defining the national mental health plan for Haiti is *L'Association Haitienne de Psychologie (AHPsy)* (Nicolas et al., 2012).

J. *Assess the sustainability/ legacy/ and evolution of Project*

   a. As the project evolves, are there other community liaisons that should be included?

   b. Is this project 'culturally sustainable', meaning will this project improve the welfare, protect and affirm the values of the community without compromising future generations?

   c. Have we sufficiently examined this project from an ecological perspective?

   d. Is the 'exit strategy' as well-crafted and considered as the 'entrance plan'?

K. *Plan for post-crisis crisis management*

   a. In the event of a war between the host and home country, what is the likelihood that those country nationals that collaborated with foreign groups, agencies, organizations (or with me) will be the target of persecution? And if

so, is there a plan to assist them should those collaborators need to flee their home country?

b. In the event my agency or I am involved in an activity that (no matter what the circumstances) causes or results in the harm, death, injury or damage to the community or nation state, what is the plan for restoration? (See Center for Economic and Policy Research, October 23, 2014; Democracy Now, November 8, 2011).

L. *Consider equity and diversity issues*

a. In consideration of groups who differ in relation to ethnicity, age, social class, religion, disability or sexual orientation, will they be negatively or differentially affected by the intervention proposed? For example, if my aid-relief distributor is a church of a specific denomination, does this affiliation exclude those in need who may not share the same religious beliefs? In other words, am I offering assistance without unconscious discrimination?

b. Furthermore, recognizing the impact and intersection of multiple identities, is there a space created for discussion if or when our well-meaning intentions bump into unforeseen issues?

Implications and Recommendations

As these questions suggest, addressing issues of power, privilege, oppression, and values are important prior to, during, and following cultural immersion encounters (Carrilio & Mathiesen, 2006; Katz, 2013; Razack, 2002). According to Shah (2012), having pre-emptive discussions about social location and lingering oppression may help unlock entrenched systems and asymmetric power structures. For example, Jonathan Katz author of *The Big Truck That Went By: How the World Came to Save Haiti and Left Behind a Disaster, stated in a Democracy Now interview,* "you really have to be careful. It's so easy to come in Haiti and step on toes and be a bull in a china shop" (Democracy Now, January 11, 2013). He referred to the well-intentioned efforts of some celebrities who make inadvertent mistakes in the pursuit of service delivery. In fact, "celebrities do not bring structural solutions or long-term engagement to the table," according to Driessens, Joye and Biltereyst (2012), but celebrities do provide 'glamour' to trauma-impacted areas and make the suffering of 'others' relevant to 'us.' Celebrities, and the complicated role they play, overshadow the work of NGOs in post-earthquake Haiti.

The work that culturally informed, collaborative and cautious transnational human service providers offer in trauma impacted communities is neither exotic, glamorous or simply a good growth opportunity for our college students, and for these reasons, ethical standards are needed (Shah, 2012) along with the willingness to reflect on uncomfortable questions about motivations to respond to disasters globally. Current films and documentaries (Bergan, Schuller, Danticat, Tèt Ansanm Productions, et al., 2009; Peck & Velvet Film GmbH, 2013), that critically analyze the role of foreign NGOs and their impact, echo a similar sentiment of the importance of checking external motivations prior to intervening in trauma impacted communities. These films

simultaneously highlight the stark reality, cheerless attention and somber work provided by human service agencies. Schuller (2012), as documentarian, author and anthropologist, provides policy suggestions to grassroots groups, NGOs, donors and the Haitian government for leveling the field and improving aid assistance and implementation.

Given our experiences, we offer the following recommendations to those who are interested in providing mental health, psychosocial support or humanitarian aid. While there are complicated and diverse factors one must consider in doing this work, the following major areas must not be overlooked:

1. ***Become thoroughly informed about the specific country of interest***-Be sure to orient yourself to the history, politics, language, and culture of the country that you plan to visit. We recommend a trip to your local and / or university library for the attainment of accurate, peer-reviewed and primary source materials. This crucial step, prior to the development of the course or the trip, will allow you to integrate readings, facts and themes not only into your course, trip, or pre-departure itinerary, but will also allow one to evaluate how complementary the proposed intervention is with the current needs and cultural history of the country. Equally importantly, intervention leaders will serve as role-models for their students and companions, highlighting the importance of being informed, aware and culturally relevant.

2. ***Secure a cultural consultant***. Although it would be ideal to obtain a mental health professional from the country of interest, it is very important that you work with a cultural consultant who can ensure that you are meeting your own expectations with regard to cultural competencies and who can serve as a go-to expert for you and your students as questions arise.

3. ***Connect with a host country (in country) partner***. If your consultant has not established partnerships in the country, it is crucial that you connect with a host country partner. Having a partner on the ground will serve as a cultural broker for you and your group, enhance your education and training of the country and town, and ensure that you are responding to the direct needs of the community rather than delivering a 'helicopter intervention.'

4. ***Plan cultural immersion prior to the trip***. As part of the course or training, be sure to expose your students to the culture through special guest speakers, attending local or national events, conferences, or participating in activities that are directly related to the country and culture of interest. Interview citizens from the country of interest who are in different stages of acculturation. Visit the country with a cultural consultant prior to taking students. These activities will ensure that all agents have foundational understanding of the people, of the culture and of the country prior to entry for execution of the intervention.

5. ***Ask and answer the questions posed in this manuscript.*** Write down the responses and discuss them with your cultural consultant and host (in country) partner. Force

yourself to examine layers of motivation, resistance and weaknesses in cultural competency.

Conclusions

Critical examination of faux pas reveals how unstated values (such as ownership, acquisition, need for power and individualism) become apparent in disagreements, conflicts and misunderstandings; and reveals underlying needs, dreams, worldviews and latent motivations of visiting and foreign country nationals. Culturally competent service delivery requires a willingness to check for and confront implicitly biased notions to prevent indiscernible harm. The questions noted above do not assume that simply because United States born and educated human service providers (counselors, psychologists, therapists, aid workers) are trained to work with people in distress, that they, by default, are the best ones to do so. Adhering to best practices as they relate to the disaster area, employing culturally competent practices, seeking pushback from the impacted community, engaging in critical reflection and examining personal motivations are activities which take time but retain the dignity of all parties involved. Finally, we cannot underestimate the importance of seeking collaborative efforts with Haitian nationals to ensure a culturally relevant impact for programs dealing with psychosocial support.

The following refrain, shared by our primary Haitian National consultant, both summarized the core objectives of our work, as well as, planted a common consciousness that guided our behavior: *it's not about us, it's about them*. To this refrain we add, *pause… before rushing in*.

References

Ager, A. (2006). Toward a consensus protocol for psychosocial response in complex emergencies. In G. Reyes, G. A. Jacobs, G. Reyes, G. A. Jacobs (Eds.), *Handbook of international disaster psychology: Fundamentals and overview (Vol. 1)* (pp. 35-49). Westport, CT, US: Praeger Publishers/Greenwood Publishing Group.

An Unlikely Problem: Too Much Disaster Relief. (2013). *Bloomberg Businessweek*, (4356), 29.

Association of Black Psychologists. (2003). *Psychological Treatment of Ethnic Minority Populations* (ABPsi publication). Retrieved from http://www.apa.org/pi/oema/resources/brochures/treatment-minority.pdf.

Baingana, F. (2008). A public mental health perspective: the IASC Guidelines on Mental Health and Psychosocial Support in Emergency Settings. *Intervention (15718883), 6*(3/4), 236-238.

Beech, D. R. (2006). Peace-building, culturally responsive means, and ethical practices in humanitarian psychosocial interventions. In G. Reyes, G. A. Jacobs, G. Reyes, G. A. Jacobs (Eds.), *Handbook of international disaster psychology: Fundamentals and overview (Vol. 1)* (pp. 93-111). Westport, CT, US: Praeger Publishers/Greenwood Publishing Group.

Bergan, R., Schuller, M., Danticat, E., Tèt Ansanm Productions, Renegade Films, University of

California, Santa Barbara., & Documentary Educational Resources (Firm). (2009). *Poto mitan: Haitian women, pillars of the global economy*. Watertown, MA: Documentary Educational Resources.

Brymer M., Jacobs A., Layne C., Pynoos R., Ruzek J., Steinberg A., Vernberg E., & Watson P. (2006). *Psychological first aid field operations guide* (2nd ed.). Los Angeles: National Child Traumatic Stress Network and National Center for PTSD. Available on: www.nctsn.org and www.ncptsd.va.gov.

Carrilio, T., & Mathiesen, S. (2006). Developing a cross border, multidisciplinary educational collaboration. *Social Work Education, 25(6)*, 633-644. doi:10.1080/02615470600833584.

Center for Economic and Policy Research. (2014, October 23). *Haiti cholera victims get first hearing in court*. Retrieved from http://www.cepr.net/index.php/blogs/relief-and-reconstruction-watch/haiti-cholera-victims-get-first-hearing-in-court.

Democracy Now. (2011). Goodman, A. (Interviewer) & Concannon, B. (Interviewee). *Exclusive: 5,000 Haitian Cholera Victims Sue U.N. After Deadly Epidemic Kills 6,000, Sickens 450,000* [Interview transcript]. Retrieved from Democracy Now! Website: http://www.democracynow.org/2011/11/8/exclusive_5_000_haitian_cholera_victims.

Disasters Emergency Committee (March, 2011). Urban disasters –Lessons from Haiti: Study of member agencies' responses to the earthquake in Port au Prince, Haiti, January 2010. Report for the Disasters Emergency Committee. Clermont, C., Sanderson, D., Sharma, A., & Spraos, H. Retrieved from http://www.dec.org.uk/haiti-earthquake-appeal-evaluations.

Driessens, O., Joye, S., & Biltereyst, D. (2012). The X-factor of charity: a critical analysis of celebrities' involvement in the 2010 Flemish and Dutch Haiti relief shows. *Media, Culture & Society, 34*(6), 709-725.

Dupre, A., & Goodgold, S. (2007). Development of physical therapy student cultural competency through international community service. *Journal of Cultural Diversity, 14*(3), 126-134.

Edmonson, R. G. (2010). Learning from disaster. *Journal of Commerce (15307557), 11*(7), 40-45.

Gray, A. (2010). Staff support in Haiti. *Intervention 8*(3), 255-262. doi: 10.1097/WTF.0b013e3283412680.

Hadis, B. F. (2005). Why are they better students when they come back? Determinants of academic focusing gains in the study abroad experience. *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad*. 57-70.

Holguín-Veras, J., Jaller, M., & Wachtendorf, T. (2012). Comparative performance of alternative humanitarian logistic structures after the Port-au-Prince earthquake: ACEs, PIEs, and CANs. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy & Practice, 46*(10), 1623-1640. doi:10.1016/j.tra.2012.08.002.

Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC). (2007). IASC Guidelines on Mental Health and Psychosocial Support in Emergency Settings. Geneva: IASC.

Inter-Agency Standing Committee- (IASC). (2010). Guidance note for mental health and
        psychosocial support: Haiti earthquake emergency response, January 2010. Retrieved
        from:
        http://www.who.int/mental_health/emergencies/guidance_note_mhpss_haiti.pdf?ua=1.

Katz, J. (2013, January 11). Johathan Katz on how the world came to save Haiti after quake
        and left behind a disaster (Amy Goodman, Interviewer) [Audio file]. Retrieved from
        http://www.democracynow.org/blog/2013/1/11/part_2_jonathan_katz_on_how_the_worl
        d_came_to_save_haiti_after_quake_and_left_behind_a_disaster.

Kaul, R. E., & Welzant, V. (2005). Disaster mental health: A discussion of best practices as
        applied after the Pentagon attack. In A. R. Roberts, A. R. Roberts (Eds.), *Crisis
        intervention handbook: Assessment, treatment, and research*, *3rd ed*. (pp. 200-220). New
        York, NY, US: Oxford University Press.

Klarreich, K., & Polman, L. (2012). The NGO Republic of Haiti. *Nation*, *295*(21), 11-17.

Kushner, J. (2013, January 8). After the earthquake: A Haitian dancer's highs and lows as she
        recovers from amputation. Retrieved from http://wlrn.org/post/after-earthquake-haitian-
        dancers-highs-and-lows-she-recovers-amputation.

Landry, M. D., O'Connell, C., Tardif, G., & Burns, A. (2010). Post-earthquake Haiti: The critical
        role for rehabilitation services following a humanitarian crisis. *Disability &
        Rehabilitation*, *32*(19), 1616-1618. doi:10.3109/09638288.2010.500345.

Lewis, T.L. & Niesenbaum, R.A. (June, 2005). The benefits of short-term study abroad. *The
        Chronicle of Higher Education*, *51*(39), B20.

Lowe, T. B., Dozier, C. D., Hunt-Hurst, P., & Smith, B. P. (2008). Study abroad in West Africa:
        An interdisciplinary program of international education. *College Student Journal*, *42*(3),
        738-747.

McIntyre, J., & Nelson Goff, B. (2012). Federal disaster mental health response and
        compliance with best practices. *Community Mental Health Journal*, *48*(6), 723-728.
        doi:10.1007/s10597-011-9421-x.

McShane, K. (2011). Mental health in Haiti: a resident's perspective. *Academic Psychiatry*,
        35(1), 8-10. doi:10.1176/appi.ap.35.1.8.

Nicolas, G., Jean-Jacques, R., & Wheatley, A. (2012). Mental health counseling in Haiti:
        Historical overview, current status, and plans for the future. *Journal of Black Psychology*,
        38(4), 509-519. doi:10.1177/0095798412443162.

Pan American Health Organization (PAHO). 2011. Earthquake in Haiti: One year later.
        PAHO/WHO Report on the Health Situation Update: Accessed October 20, 2013.
        http://www.who.int/hac/crises/hti/haiti_paho_jan2011_eng.pdf.

Peck, R., & Velvet Film GmbH. (2013). *Assistance mortelle = Fatal assistance*.

Pierre-Louis, F. (2011). Earthquakes, Nongovernmental Organizations, and Governance in Haiti.
        Journal of Black Studies, *42*(2), 186-202. doi:10.1177/0021934710395389.

Psychosocial Working Group (PWG). (2004). Considerations in planning psychosocial

programs. Retrieved April 11, 2015, from
http://www.forcedmigration.org/psychosocial/papers/PWGpapers.htm/pg_cippp_03.pdf.

Raviola, G., Severe, J., Therosme, T., Oswald, C., Belkin, G., & Eustache, F. E. (2013). The
2010 Haiti earthquake response. *Psychiatric Clinics of North America*, *36*(3), 431-450.
doi:10.1016/j.psc.2013.05.006.

Razack, N. (2002). A critical examination of international student exchanges. *International
Social Work*, *45*(2), 251-266.

Reifels, L. l., Pietrantoni, L., Prati, G., Yoshiharu, K., Kilpatrick, D. G., Dyb, G., &
O'Donnell, M. (2013). Lessons learned about psychosocial responses to disaster and
mass trauma: an international perspective. *European Journal of Psychotraumatology*, *4*1-
49.

Reyes, G. (2006). International disaster psychology: Purposes, principles, and practices. In G.
Reyes, G. A. Jacobs, G. Reyes, G. A. Jacobs (Eds.), *Handbook of international disaster
psychology: Fundamentals and overview (Vol. 1)* (pp. 1-13). Westport, CT, US: Praeger
Publishers/Greenwood Publishing Group.

Rivera, M., Pérez-Sales, P., Aparcana, J. L., Bazán, M., Gianella, C., & Lozano, A. (2008).
Community mobilization after an earthquake: Case study of the use of the IASC
Guidelines on Mental Health and Psychosocial Support in Emergency Settings on mental
health and psychosocial support in Peru. *Intervention: International Journal of Mental
Health, Psychosocial Work & Counselling In Areas of Armed Conflict*, *6*(3-4), 275-283.
doi:10.1097/WTF.0b013e32831fb0ac.

Schuller, Mark. (2012). Killing with Kindness : Haiti, International Aid, and NGOs. Piscataway,
NJ, USA: Rutgers University Press. ProQuest ebrary. Web. 10 June 2015.

Shah, S. A. (2007). Ethnomedical best practices for international psychosocial efforts in disaster
and trauma. In J. P. Wilson, C. S. Tang, J. P. Wilson, C. S. Tang (Eds.), *Cross-cultural
assessment of psychological trauma and PTSD* (pp. 51-64). New York, NY, US: Springer
Science + Business Media. doi:10.1007/978-0-387-70990-1_3.

Shah, S. A. (2012). Ethical standards for transnational Mental Health and Psychosocial Support
(MHPSS): Do no harm, preventing cross-cultural errors and inviting pushback. *Clinical
Social Work Journal*, *40*(4), 438-449. doi:10.1007/s10615-011-0348-z

Sphere. (2011). The Sphere Project: Humanitarian charter and minimum standards in
humanitarian response. Accessed April 5, 2015.
http://www.sphereproject.org/resources/?keywords=&language=0&type=&aid=&mid=&
category=22&subcat-22=23&search=1&page=5.

Sontag, D. (2010, April 12). Leg lost, dancer is caught between caregivers. *New York
Times*. Retrieved from
http://www.nytimes.com/2010/04/13/world/americas/13amputee.html?pagewanted=all

Sweet, D. (2010). INTERPOL DVI best-practice standards--An overview. *Forensic Science
International*, *201*(1-3), 18-21. doi:10.1016/j.forsciint.2010.02.031.

Tol, W. A., Bastin, P., Jordans, M. D., Minas, H., Souza, R., Weissbecker, I., & van Ommeren,

M. (2014). Mental health and psychosocial support in humanitarian settings. In V. Patel, H. Minas, A. Cohen, M. J. Prince, V. Patel, H. Minas, ... M. J. Prince (Eds.), *Global mental health: Principles and practice* (pp. 384-400). New York, NY, US: Oxford University Press.

van Emmerik, A. P., Kamphuis, J. H., Hulsbosch, A. M., & Emmelkamp, P. G. (2002). Single session debriefing after psychological trauma: a meta-analysis. *Lancet*, *360*(9335), 766.

van Ommeren, M., & Wessells, M. (2008). What is minimum response: Reflections on diverse opinions regarding the IASC Guidelines on Mental Health and Psychosocial Support in Emergency Settings. *Intervention (15718883)*, *6*(3/4), 265-269.

Vernberg, E. M., Steinberg, A. M., Jacobs, A. K., Brymer, M. J., Watson, P. J., Osofsky, J. D., Layne, C. M., Pynoos, R. S., & Ruzek, J. I. (2008). Innovations in disaster mental health: Psychological first aid. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice*, *39*(4), 381-388. doi:10.1037/a0012663.

Wehbi, S. (2009). Deconstructing motivations: Challenging international social work placements. *International Social Work*, *52*(1), 48-59. doi:10.1177/0020872808097750.

Wessells, M., & van Ommeren, M. (2008). Developing inter-agency guidelines on mental health and psychosocial support in emergency settings. *Intervention (15718883)*, *6*(3/4), 199-218.

Wood, M. J., & Atkins, M. (2006). Immersion in another culture: One strategy for increasing cultural competency. *Journal of Cultural Diversity*, *13*(1). 50-54.

World Health Organization (WHO), 2005. Single-session psychological debriefing: Not recommended. Retrieved April 11, 2015, from http://www.who.int/hac/techguidance/pht/13643.pdf.

About the Authors

Dr. Barbara Faye Streets, a New York state licensed psychologist, earned her PhD in counseling psychology from the University of Kansas. She has been a faculty member in the Department of Counseling and Psychological Services at SUNY Oswego since 2007.

Dr. Guerda Nicolas, is a licensed clinical psychologist with an earned PhD from Boston University and an Associate Professor in the Department of Educational and Psychological Studies at the University of Miami. She is the author of many articles and books. Her recent book is entitled *Social Networks and the Mental Health of Haitian Immigrants*.

Dr. Karen Wolford earned her PhD in clinical psychology from Oklahoma State University. She has been a faculty member in the Psychology Department at SUNY Oswego since 1988. Since 2012, she is the Coordinator of the Interdisciplinary Graduate Certificate in Trauma Studies Program.

California Student Counselors Reflect on a Study Abroad Experience in New Zealand

John Winslade, PhD; Lorraine Hedtke, PhD;
Amy Douglass, Korina Echeverria, Joanna Garcia, Krystal Howard,
Dorry Lillard, Samantha Stephens, Stefany Zacarias,
Third Year Master's Students
California State University, San Bernardino

Abstract

Seven counseling and guidance students from California participated in a study abroad program in which they were placed in a high school in Auckland, New Zealand, for one month. Their comments on the experience in response to researchers' questions form the basis of this paper. They suggest that the participants benefited from being immersed in a culturally different context where they had to consider differences in school organization, counseling priorities, and students' cultural mores. This immersion required them to think about their own professional values and to engage in high level learning, appropriate to masters level field experience work. They commented especially on different approaches to cultural and racial issues in New Zealand and California and on experiencing a counseling profession that is more focused on addressing social issues than on college readiness.

Key words: school counseling; study abroad; New Zealand; California

In July and August 2014, a group of seven students from a California masters degree program in counseling and guidance spent four weeks completing one of their field experience requirements in high schools in Auckland, New Zealand. The group all stayed together in a house in central Auckland and traveled by public transport each day to separate schools, where they were supervised by local school counselors. Two of their professors from California accompanied them on the trip, held supervision meetings twice weekly in the evenings to guide them in processing their experiences, and visited them twice in their placement school to observe the work they were doing and to consult with their placement supervisors.

This paper focuses on the reflections of the students on their experience. These reflections were written at the end of the month-long trip in response to specified questions. They are offered here for the value they yield toward a comparative understanding of school counseling in two different countries. Such a comparative study can be of value in both participating countries, as well as to counseling in other countries. It illuminates questions of value, of the influence of different cultural contextual forces, and of divergent historical lines of professional development.

Literature Review

The Comparative Literature

There is not a large literature comparing school counseling in New Zealand and the United States, let alone California. While school counseling in California is similar in many ways to other states in the United States, it is less well-funded and caseloads for counselors are recognized as comparatively high. What exists by way of comparison between the two countries mostly makes distinctions about emphases in counseling in New Zealand against a background represented by the United States. Some articles make comparisons between New Zealand and the United States with regard to specific areas of concern or practice, such as career counseling (Furbish, 2007), health risk behaviors among alternative education students (Denny, Clark & Watson, 2003), or suicide prevention (Clifford, Doran, & Tsey, 2013). There are also explanations of historical distinctions between the two countries, and distinctions between the pathways for professional development in both countries. More widely represented, however, is a New Zealand focus on cultural partnership with the indigenous Maori population that is not replicated in the American counseling profession, which maintains a focus on multiculturalism that attends more to racial difference than it does to cultural difference.

Judi Miller (2012) notes a strong theme in counseling and guidance in New Zealand "about the influence of Maori values and theories of wellness on current counselling practice and counselor education" (p. 188). Several writers (Miller; Crocket, 2012; Rodgers, 2012) have commented on how the responsibility of the partnership with Maori built into the Treaty of Waitangi as a constitutional document in New Zealand has led to a different emphasis in counseling in New Zealand. As Crocket notes, it has opened up a suspicion of conventional Western counseling knowledge as a tool of ongoing colonization. This suspicion led many Maori to be slow to embrace the value of counseling, which became easier when indigenous voices began to be heard in the counseling field and when a vision of partnership began to take hold:

> If Pakeha [*white*] practitioners are to step away from colonial positions of
> assuming the superiority of western systems of knowledge, then being able to
> recognise barriers to safe conversation becomes critically important (p.216).

Crocket advocates a consideration of cultural safety in counseling which is similar to an American concern about 'white privilege' (McIntosh, 1990), but framed more locally and also more clearly indicative of a pathway for change.

Perhaps as a result, counseling in New Zealand has been more wary of what Rodgers (2012) calls, "modernist notions of a single, static, homogenous and unified epistemology" (p. 192) and more receptive, as Miller (2012) suggests, to the "frequent use of postmodern language" (p. 188). This is clearly a difference from the United States context and accounts, in part, for the strength of narrative counseling in New Zealand, which was encountered by the study abroad students in this project. Results have included the fact that the New Zealand counseling profession has "resisted [counselor] registration because it may undermine the

advances the New Zealand Association of Counsellors has made to incorporate Māori ways of working into its policies" (Miller, 2013, p. 106), and Furbish (2007) noticed a New Zealand reluctance to embrace "trait-factor approaches to career counseling, although popular [in the United States]" (p. 118), suggesting that the reluctance stems from these approaches being "particularly problematic in New Zealand" (ibid.) because they are not applicable to Maori. (Trait-factor approaches concentrate on matching individual traits with careers that utilize them, but are built on assumptions about such traits being stable and enduring.).

These different approaches to issues of culture sit against the background of a different historical context. As Miller (2013) remarks:

> The development of counselling in New Zealand was similar to that in the UK
> and US, where its origins were mainly in vocational guidance. An important
> difference, however, has been the way that the NZ government has supported
> counselling's development by providing funding to educational institutions to
> address social issues (p. 104).

As Rodgers (2012) states, guidance counselling was only introduced into New Zealand secondary schools in 1966. It began much earlier in the United States. At first at least, the university curricula developed to train New Zealand counselors was "greatly influenced by models of training from the UK and the USA" (Miller, 2012, p. 188). The purpose of school counseling certainly overlapped with its counterpart in the United States, but there were important points of difference. The strong emphasis in the United States on academic counseling and preparing students for college was never as strong in New Zealand. By contrast, counseling in New Zealand schools was established to address social problems, such as juvenile delinquency (Rodgers, 2012; Besley, 2002).

Study Abroad Literature

The study abroad literature does not appear to contain studies explicitly referring to exchanges between USA and New Zealand, although Neriko Doerr (2013) does comment as an anthropologist on staying with a host family in New Zealand for two years. She argues that study abroad helps students formulate "judgment[s] of what is 'different' and what is 'same' " and that forming such judgments is "a performative act that results in the diverging understanding of the situation" (p. 76). This comment supports the purpose of asking the questions below about such judgments and it is clear that the responses indicate the performance of learning through making distinctions about what is similar or different. A study by Tarrant, Rubin and Stoner (2014) of study abroad classes found that international education objectives (such as nurturing a global citizenry) were "optimized when students receive deliberate instruction in those objectives in the context of field-based, experiential study abroad" (p.153). The program reported on here meets such criteria. Study abroad experiences are noted by Hannah Covert (2014) to enhance students' intercultural competence and their sense of agency, although she was referring to undergraduate students rather than to graduate students pursuing a professional degree. A closer equivalent for this study lies in Elizabeth Landerholm and Jacob

Chacko's (2013) survey of teacher trainees studying abroad in two countries and finding that the experience "develop[ed] students' ability to adopt multiple viewpoints" (p. 8). Natalie Graham and Pat Crawford reviewed studies of study abroad programs and found a general theme of transformative experience resulting from them, especially when the program was instructor-led and involving local engagement. Again, both of these criteria were met in this program. Finally, James Shivelly and Thomas Misco (2012) found that school administrators' hiring decisions were positively affected by student teachers' study abroad experience.

Methodology

The written reflections documented here were collected in response to a group of questions inviting participants to reflect on their comparative thoughts about schools, students, and school counseling in New Zealand and California. They were also asked to reflect on what they had learned from the experience. The participants are all co-authors of this paper. They participated in the design of the research process through being pre-exposed to the questions they would write about and being given the chance to comment on and suggest changes to these questions. As well as being designed for the purposes of this paper, the questions were also designed to maximize the participants' learning from the study abroad experience through the addition of an added layer of reflection onto the experience itself.

The data below are qualitative in nature from a small sample (seven) of students and a small number of New Zealand high schools (again seven). Qualitative data does not allow for the measurement of matters of degree, but does yield information about issues of kind (Deleuze, 1991). It is, therefore, suggested that the following data be read as informative about the kinds of comparative difference in context, rather than on how substantial such differences might be. The questions asked of the participants were as follows.

1. How does life in a New Zealand high school compare with life in a California high school?
2. How does the role of a school counselor in a New Zealand high school compare with the role in a California high school?
3. How have you seen diversity expressed in New Zealand high schools? Is this similar to or different from a California high school?
4. What have you learned about in New Zealand that will affect how you will be as a counselor in California?
5. What has been the value of the study abroad trip for you?

The aim of these questions was to sample the comparative features they observed of school and community cultural context, of the specific role of counselors in schools, and of the personal value participants gained from the experience. In a sense, the comparative data is not complete since the obverse experience is not included. That would require New Zealand counseling students to spend a month in a California high school and to respond to similar questions at the end of this time. This dimension is beyond the scope of this paper and is a built-in delimitation of the data collection approach. The California school context, therefore,

operates as a backgrounded comparison. All of the students had experienced one fieldwork assignment in a California high school before they traveled to New Zealand and all but one had been to high school themselves in California. California, therefore, serves as the backdrop against which comments are made by participants. This is not unusual, however, for the study of cultural issues. There is always a cultural backdrop against which meaning is made. Sometimes it is left unspoken. Here it is intentionally included.

One aspect that deserves comment, though, is that the background context is specified as California, and not the United States. This choice was made for the following reasons: a) California is culturally different from some other parts of the United States; b) one important difference is that Southern California (where all the participants live) is strongly Hispanic (for many also Spanish-speaking); c) California stands out as a state with almost the lowest per student funding ratio in the United States and this affects the availability of counseling services in schools.

Findings

Now it is time to turn to the reflections on the similarities and differences between high schools in New Zealand and California, beginning with a general question about "life" in the two contexts. This first question addresses general school climate.

1. How does life in a NZ high school compare with life in a CA high school?

First, participants noted a number of similarities. The first comment refers to the general function of schooling.

Generally, there is not a lot of difference; the basic functions are the same. In both locations, adolescent students have specific tracks to follow and benchmarks to meet in order to achieve their post high school goals.

Further comment on similarity in the experience of growing up and meeting life challenges that were brought to the attention of school counselors was represented by this statement:

In terms of counseling, many of the same problems exist in both settings. Young people are still vulnerable to the same pressures and the same exposure to stressful events.

Another participant also commented on how students responded amongst their peers to these challenges:

… there are lots of parallels in the way students interact in NZ and CA. In both, CA and NZ, there is a propensity of students to form small cliques among those with similar interests and usually within the same ethnic group.

General comments about similarities were, however, outweighed by more specific comments on the differences between life in New Zealand and California high schools. The salience of graduation as a goal of high school life in California was noticed as different in New Zealand:

> *High schools in the US really emphasize graduation as a major milestone. For*
> *New Zealand students, it seems to be just another step; there is no fanfare.*

In the New Zealand education system, there are multiple levels of NCEA (National Certificate of Educational Achievement) qualifications and thus multiple possible exit points from high school, rather than the singular goal of graduation. This comment notes that the systemic difference leads to differences in how students think about their goals.

The emphasis on college entry as a major marker of "educational success" was also found to occupy a different place in the thinking of New Zealand students. Such differences were noted in these three comments:

> *In the US, the goal seems to be that all students go to college. This does seem to*
> *be changing as schools tend towards more job readiness, but the overall focus is*
> *still on higher education. In NZ, university is a goal for many students, but there*
> *are other options and there doesn't seem to be as much of a stigma attached to*
> *attending a polytechnic or tertiary institution to learn job skills as there is in the*
> *US. As a result, there seem to be many more options for vocational skill*
> *development in high school.*

> *Students could choose to complete credits to achieve different levels that allowed*
> *them to attend a trade school or a university. The levels could also be completed*
> *with a higher degree of recognition depending on how well the students*
> *performed.*

Again, the multiple exit points from high school make for a less singular consciousness of personal goals. They also perhaps allow for multiple definitions of what is meant by "success." In New Zealand, post-secondary education is influenced strongly by a vocational emphasis and promotes less the idea of general education or the liberal arts degree at the university level and/or through polytechnics. This difference appears to exert an influence back into students' and teachers' attitudes at the secondary level.

A further area of difference noted by participants lay in the degree of emphasis in high schools on individuals or on community. For the California students, the emphasis in New Zealand high schools on collective or community identity was noticeable. This was sometimes attributable to school size, but was also attributed to intentional school emphasis on relational support. These two comments illustrate such trends.

> *The school I was placed at in NZ was small - roughly 700 students and*
> *approximately forty staff members. This small size created a real sense of*
> *community at the school where teachers really knew their students and created*
> *systems of support for them. This smaller size also created community and*
> *closeness amongst staff members as well.*

> *The biggest difference I noticed was the unity that is formed in NZ schools. The*
> *relationships that are formed among teachers, staff, and students are unified by*

the communication and support they give one another. They have what they call houses, which are mentors for each grade level and each student belongs or is assigned to the same house their whole high school years or time at the college. Mentors are the ones that have a direct communication with the students and collaborate with teachers to ensure that student is succeeding and receiving the support they need. Also, these houses allow students to build a relationship with their mentor and other students that offer them the opportunity to build security and awareness of who they can go to ask for help. I also noticed the level of spirituality it brings to the school. Each house has their own name, logo, and chant that allow students to represent their house and with pride.

Differences in relation to sense of community were also related by some participants to meeting schedules and the institution of morning tea breaks, which do not happen in California schools.

Thrice weekly whole staff briefings and strongly encouraged whole staff morning tea and lunch hours also supported the sense of family. At my school [in California], *we have an hour-long whole staff meeting about every six weeks. We do have weekly meetings in smaller learning communities (English department, freshman teachers, etc.) but I have never felt the same level of connection as the XXX staff seems to experience.*

The morning tea was the first really big difference that I noticed. The students and staff have a half hour recess between periods two and three and then have lunch later in the day. I find this far superior to the 11:30 am "lunch hour" (forty-six minutes) that my school [in California] *employs.*

One California student was placed in a school that operated on an experimental open plan format and noticed the impact of this format on the work of counselors.

The school I was placed in has an open floor plan in which up to three classes occur simultaneously in one space. The school was built with acoustics in mind so this is not distracting to students. This floor plan in itself is extremely helpful to counselors. As a trainee, I could go into classes without opening a door. This avoided the typical reaction of everyone looking when a door opens and avoided putting focus on the student I wanted to pull out of class for counseling. Judgment is completely avoided in this way. In a CA high school, students get offended if they are taken out of class for counseling or told they should seek counseling. Students often are immediately placed on the defensive since the disruption in the class might be confused for a disciplinary action.

One participant noted a more relaxed climate in New Zealand schools with regard to sex education.

*In New Zealand, sex education was more easily discussed. The counselor I
worked with told me that she had condoms and had an object that she used to
show students how to use the condoms if she felt it was necessary. In CA high
schools, this would probably not be done and there would be a lot more barriers
to cross for a counselor or teacher to speak to students in this way.*

Another participant noted, "… How the teachers, counselors, and school nurse work
together so well" and went on:

*Sometimes I had a client that I felt needed medical attention, so I could send them
to the nurse. Other times the nurse would have a student battling a mental issue
or tough time in their life and she could refer the student to me. I received most
of my clients in this way.*

Another participant commented on the different emphasis on schools producing useful
citizens, rather than primarily on academic mastery.

*… there is profound difference in the way teachers and staff care about the
education and the lives of their students. There is an incredible emphasis in
fostering values and virtues that will create good citizens. Students are not a
number to bring money into the school, but a person that is learning to become a
useful citizen of the country.*

There were also comments on the "strong push for restorative conversations" in New
Zealand schools:

*Counseling in New Zealand also includes a major effort toward restorative
justice, unlike in California, where many schools rely on punitive measures where
counselors can often get pulled in to discipline.*

**2. How does the role of a school counselor in a New Zealand high school compare with such
a role in a California high school?**

With regard to the role of school counselors in New Zealand schools, California students
noticed a consistent difference in the extent to which New Zealand counselors were focused on
personal and social counseling, more than academic and career counseling.

*California school counselors are tasked not just with the emotional well being of
students, but also with providing academic and post-high school guidance. They
also arrange testing, schedules, awards, scholarships, and other "administrative"
type elements of students' lives. Grade-level deans in NZ handle these issues. As
a result, the NZ counselors can focus much more on emotional counseling and
spend more time on it. A counselor in NZ often spends an hour or more with
students and students view the counselor as a regular part of their lives, not just
the person to whom they turn when they are in distress. Because of the presence
of the career counselors and deans, there are fewer guidance counselors in NZ
schools, but again, they have one main focus instead of three, like their
Californian counterparts.*

The mention of three points of focus for American school counselors is a reference to the American School Counseling Association's (2008) National Model of School Counseling in the United States. It specifies that the role of school counselors is to provide students with personal-social, academic, and career counseling. By contrast, in New Zealand:

> *The focus of a NZ counselor is to help students with emotional or psychological challenges or troubles that interfere with their learning and school.*

Another participant noted that the personal-social counseling extended also to teachers:

> *… To my surprise, staff members would even seek her* [the counselor] *out.*

Another participant made much the same point:

> *In California, the counselor's role includes a major push toward College and career readiness. Most counseling is academic, including what the student needs to do in order to graduate, and what their options are for after graduation. Much of the counselor's duties include administrative tasks, paperwork, and extra projects. In terms of emotional counseling, the counselor has limited time to offer students. Most often they may provide a referral for outside counseling. In New Zealand, the counselor's only role is the social/ emotional development of the students. There is a major cultural push toward pastoral care.*

The use of careers advisors in New Zealand schools also removed much of the emphasis on career counseling away from school counselors.

> *At the school I was placed, a career advisor deals with most of the class choices, class scheduling, and university eligibility, which frees up the counselor to do more therapeutic counseling. In a CA high school, counselors spend most of their times doing these things and spend little time providing therapeutic counseling.*

Participants noted that the role of careers advisors in New Zealand was to:

> *… Provide students with information in career choice, universities, and different options for career paths. They prepare them in areas like job searching and navigating all the requirements to assure employment. Furthermore, they take care of credits and graduation requirements, which freed the counselors to focus on emotional support.*

> This different role focus led to a different regard by students for the work that counselors

do in New Zealand.

> *… In New Zealand the "stigma" … associated with counseling in CA is nonexistent. Counseling is a commonplace experience and is a typical resource that students use.*

> *The school counselor is viewed as a trustworthy individual … that is not meant to get you in trouble, but to help you through the challenges.*

People don't feel offended when offered counseling and seem to have an
understanding of what a counselor is there to do, which does not include judging
or offering advice on what they need to do.

Counseling in New Zealand is … well appreciated by students…

The next section of this comparative account concerns diversity. Its conclusions are no
doubt preliminary and limited by the fact that the California students were in New Zealand for
just one month, but first impressions are nevertheless important and are sometimes when
differences stand out most sharply. Schools where the California students were placed ranged
from decile one to decile ten in terms of socioeconomic status (indexed to the New Zealand
census) and there was considerable difference in the ethnic mix in each school as a result.
Participants were asked to respond to the following questions.

3. How have you seen diversity expressed in New Zealand high schools? Is this similar to or
different from a California high school?

The first comment was that school uniforms in New Zealand schools masked some of the
diversity from immediate observation.

Because the students in my NZ school wore uniforms, I didn't see much diversity
… Clothing is the easiest way to express one's personality and that option is not
available for NZ students.

By contrast, another participant noted the diversity in New Zealand schools immediately.

The first thing I noticed when I walked in a NZ school was the diversity among the
students and staff members. The accents and physical traits vary among all
students and individuals, which allows others to become curious to learn about
other cultures and practices.

Perhaps this difference in response might be explained by differences between schools
but it might also reflect a different emphasis in New Zealand on culture, rather than race, which
is a more common focus in American society. As one participant noted:

The word race is uncommon in NZ, as opposed to CA high schools, where race is
used to distinguish your ethnic group.

Further comments noted the differences in school responses to Maori and Pasifika (Polynesian)
students.

There is a marae on campus as well as a Maori language class and support, but
there wasn't anything similar for the many other Pasifika students.

The special constitutional place granted for Maori as "tangata whenua" (people of the place or of
the land) was noticed in the way schools structured the experience of Maori students. The
following statement developed this point.

Every school I have encountered in the States has had a school policy on diversity
and acceptance of difference. But American culture in general is not very
accepting, even in the most liberal states. In New Zealand, there is a very visible

*and active effort to uplift the cultural diversity of its people. At my school, there
was a whanau program, which celebrates the cultural traditions of the Maori
people, although not exclusively Maori. The whanau program provides a Maori
pathway for students and their whanau* (extended family). *It provides students
with an opportunity to be in an environment that embraces all aspects of tikanga*
(Maori custom) *and te reo Maori* (Maori language). *Celebrating and maintaining
identity as Maori enhances students' development, confidence, connection to
community, and education.*

In another school, the question about diversity produced a comment about international students
or immigrants from other countries. It was an implicit acknowledgement of the effects of
globalization on school communities.

*The school I went to hosted many international students. I am from America and
another trainee was from China. I met students from Japan and Korea. There
were many students and teachers that had re-located from England and South
Africa in search for a better life.*

Another participant commented appreciatively on how one school worked toward
hospitality for each ethnic culture in the school.

*In my school they have one week a term dedicated completely to the celebration
and embracing of each ethnic group in the school. Regardless of the number of
students ... of each particular ethnicity, all groups are given the same level of
attention and respect. However, the focus of the celebration is not only to learn
about their culture but also to share with others. It fosters curiosity about each
other and a better understanding of similarities and differences that might exist.
This is different from the way it is done in California through groups like Mecha,
Asian Club or the African-American pride group, for instance, that attempt to
foster the cultural pride, but it might sometimes encourage division by
emphasizing the differences and the shortcoming of the other groups almost in a
competitive way.*

For another participant what stood out was the expression of cultural differences through
art.

*Students in CA schools look very different, but most of the students have similar
cultural backgrounds. Schools in both NZ and CA seem to have the potential for
diversity, but CA schools seem to emphasize a cookie cutter experience that does
not emphasize the value in the students' cultural experiences. The creativity of
students was also accentuated in this way. Students were extremely talented and
were encouraged to put their emotions into art. I took advantage of this as a
counselor and asked students to explain what their art meant to them and ask
curious questions about the values they hold dear or the strengths they used to
get past tough times.*

This last comment is particularly important for counselors to focus on. It applies particularly to visiting students but might also stand as a principle of practice for all counselors.

With regard to diversity of sexual orientation, on the other hand, one participant noticed the lack of official school support.

> *I was aware that there was a lesbian student who wanted to start a group on campus similar to the Gay Straight Alliance clubs you see in most American high schools. She was told that the principal "did not want that rubbish on campus." I would say that diversity clearly existed on campus, but was not expressed freely.*

The final question participants responded to invited them to reflect on the value of the whole study abroad experience. The question asked was:

What has been the value of the study abroad trip for you?

The first noteworthy response has to do with how the intensity of working full-time in a school for a month simulated working full-time as a counselor. By comparison, part-time placements over a longer period afforded a less realistic impression of the job.

> *The opportunity to spend whole days at a time as a counselor was invaluable. In earlier fieldwork, I was working as a counselor in small chunks of time and usually only with groups. Having this chance to see what it means to be a counselor for six hours a day and to be immersed in that mindset was so eye-opening and really helped me to see what I need to work on personally to be a better counselor.*

> *During our recreational time, one of the interns referred to this experience as "Counselor Boot Camp." This is because I was able to concentrate on counseling fieldwork as my only job. I was more immersed in counseling than I have ever been and received more attention from my professors on a level that I never have and probably never will again. For example, when does your professor come over to your house to discuss your work in a typical university setting? When do they have time to individually counsel you about an issue you are struggling with as a counselor? In New Zealand, I received supervision that is crucial to my counseling career and has given me more confidence in my work. I got to practice many different things such as a "remembering conversation" and dealing with a student who was thinking about suicide.*

The professional development also involved, among other things, particular cultural learning.

> *In a professional aspect, I learned new skills as a counselor such as cultural awareness, finding meanings, building relationships, and organizational skills. In a personal aspect, I became more aware of what I like, such as using arts and crafts and how cultures are so interesting and by traveling you can get to learn more about other cultures. I learned and I am aware that personally I don't feel*

so confident in myself, so working towards that and growing from it builds more on my awareness.

The exposure to diversity is unlike anything I could have experienced in the States, and incredibly important in the development of my multicultural awareness. I learned to be more culturally aware and curious of others' practices. For example, I always thought that making eye contact with others was respectful and meant you paid close attention. However, in the Maori culture, not making eye contact is respectful. At first it was difficult to understand until I noticed and asked about the eye contact and for me it was new concept. It opened a door of curiosity and new conversations of, "Tell me about your culture and customs," always held in a respectful manner. It was fascinating learning about new cultures. I understand how crucial it is to be culturally aware as a counselor, but when you are exposed to new cultures, I believe cultural awareness begins to develop. Also, it then becomes projected, because the importance of becoming culturally aware becomes meaningful.

There is a better way to do school counseling than what we have in the States.

Participants also used the experience of studying abroad to think about their particular career preferences. For example:

I am looking forward to being an American high school counselor, where my job duties include emotional care, but also helping kids get to college, finding the right academic path for them, and celebrating their accomplishments at school. I think that, for now, that is a better fit for me and, after some more time and practice, I will be ready to move into an arena more focused on emotional care.

There were comments on the personal growth involved in the whole experience as well.

On a personal note, this trip was more than invaluable. There are really no words. I learned HEAPS about myself as a counselor, as a professional, and as a person. These were things I needed to learn now and was ready to learn. The trip started with Matariki (Maori New Year), *a time of looking ahead and making plans, and ended with my 35th birthday, a usual time for reflection and goal setting. I really like the person I found in NZ and the counselor and friend that she is. I am excited about her plans and goals for the future.*

The value I found in studying abroad was the value of becoming aware. Awareness is built upon knowledge, growth, and experiencing new things and this trip made me aware of what kind of counselor and person I want to be or become.

One participant had developed enhanced feeling for people who immigrate into the United States and appreciation of what they go through.

The value that I found was relating to people who are from other countries and trying to immerse themselves in a different culture. I knew that it must be hard but, after this, I have the upmost respect and empathy for them. I went to a country that speaks my language and holds many of my values, yet I found myself lost at times. I can only imagine how someone who can't read signs or speak to people fluently must feel.

International experience was also connected with enhanced professional understanding for some participants.

I also found tremendous value in the opportunity to work with professionals from around the world. The local staff and other interns at the high school gave me the chance to learn and explore in a supportive and professional environment.

The study abroad experience has been vastly important to me. It has cemented that counseling is the path for me. It has cemented the fact that narrative therapy is the model that fits best with who I am as a counselor. It has helped me define my counseling style, and become more confident in my counseling abilities. It has shown me how narrative therapy can work in a school setting. It has helped me make connections and form long-lasting relationships with my supervisors. It has helped me build stronger therapeutic allegiances.

This experience also solidified that I am doing the right thing with my life.

The participants in the whole study abroad experience shared some experiences with each other in ways that impacted greatly on them personally and relationally.

It was also valuable for me to hear about the experiences that the American classmates I came with experienced. We were able to relate to each other and contribute valuable feedback to one another. We also created a special bond with one another that I will never forget.

It was stressful, and difficult, but I would not change a thing about the experience. I loved my placement, my supervisors, my students, and my time in Auckland.

Discussion

These data suggest that the study abroad experience achieved its transformative purpose. Participants were immersed in a culturally different context and were forced to consider new possibilities for making sense of school organization and climate, counseling priorities, students' concerns, and cultural differences. This immersion required them to do some thinking about their own professional values and commitments as well as about those that might be embraced

by a school. In other words, high-level learning was taking place in an integrative way that is the intention of field experience work. At the same time, the differences between New Zealand and California schools were not so vast that the students were not able to function effectively.

The differences that the participants identified in a relatively short timeframe can be seen to reflect significant national differences and were consistent with the different emphases in school counseling in the two contexts. The comments included above pick out a number of salient distinctions that are consistent with what the (modest) literature claims. Most important among these distinctions is the different approaches to cultural and racial issues in New Zealand and California and in the differences of a counseling profession that is more focused on addressing social issues than on college readiness.

The work that students were able to do as counseling trainees was valued by participants for the way it stretched them into new dimensions and consolidated what they had been learning. There was, of course, variability in the supervision that they received in their placements, but for each of them this paper records the learning value they received from the trip. In terms of the value of study abroad in general, these comments support the contention that study abroad multiplies students' perspectives and widens their understanding of the world.

Notes

i. The authors are grateful to the Study Abroad Office at California State University San Bernardino for supporting this project.
ii. The authors are grateful for the generosity of the following high schools in Auckland for hosting the students during the study abroad experience: Albany Senior High School, Birkenhead College, Edgewater College, Epsom Girls Grammar School, Northcote College, Selwyn College, Tangaroa College. They also appreciate the direct personal and professional support offered by the following New Zealand school counselors: Graeme Chambers, Jeannie Grant, Michal Horton, Elahi Khalegian, Nigel Pizzini, Ronwyn Taylor, and Michael Williams.

References

American School Counseling Association (2008). *ASCA National Model*. Downloaded from http://ascanationalmodel.org/ on November 21, 2014.

Besley, A.C. (2002). *Counseling Youth: Foucault, power, and the ethics of subjectivity*. Westport, CT: Praeger.

Covert, H. H. (2014). Stories of personal agency: Undergraduate students' perceptions of developing intercultural competence during a semester abroad in Chile. *Journal of Studies in International Education 18* (2), 162-179. DOI: 10.1177/1028315313497590.

Clifford, A. C., Doran, C. M. & Tsey, K. (2013). A systematic review of suicide prevention interventions targeting indigenous peoples in Australia, United States, Canada and New Zealand. *Bio Med Central Public Health, 11* (1), 1-11. DOI: 10.1186/1471-2458-13-463.

Crocket, A. (2012). Cultural safety: towards postcolonial counselling practice? *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling, 40* (3), 205-220. DOI: 10.1080/03069885.2012.678286.

Deleuze, G. (1991). *Bergsonism* (Hugh Tomlinson & Barbara Habberjam Trans.). New York, NY: Zone Books.

Denny, S.J., Clark, T.C. & Watson, P.D. (2003). Comparison of health-risk behaviours among students in alternative high schools from New Zealand and the USA. *Journal of Paediatrics & Child Health,* 39 (1), 33-39. DOI: 10.1046/j.1440-1754.2003.00068.x.

Doerr, N. M. (2013). Damp Rooms and Saying 'Please': Mimesis and Alterity in the Host Family Space in Study-Abroad Experiences. *Anthropological Forum*, *23* (1), 58-78. DOI: 10.1080/00664677.2012.717873.

Furbish**,** D. S. (2007). Career counseling in New Zealand. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, *85* (1), 115-119.

Graham, N. & Crawford, P. (2012). Instructor-Led Engagement and Immersion Programs: Transformative Experiences of Study Abroad. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*, *16*, (3), 107-9.

Landerholm, E. & Chacko, J. B. (2013). Student Teaching Abroad: An Experience for 21st Century Teachers. ERIC Document Number: ED540609.

McIntosh, P. (1990). White privilege: Unpacking the invisible knapsack. *Independent School*, *49* (2), 31-36.

Miller, J. H. (2012). Counselling and guidance initiatives in Aotearoa/New Zealand. *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling*, 40 (3), 187-190. DOI: 10.1080/03069885.2012.683665.

Miller, J. H . (2014). Professionalism interrupted? Professionalism's challenges to local knowledge in New Zealand counselling. *Current Sociology*, *62*, 100-113. DOI: 10.1177/0011392113513396.

Rodgers, N. (2012). Shifting landscapes of counselling identities in Aotearoa New Zealand. *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling*, 40 (3), 191-204. DOI: 10.1080/03069885.2012.678287.

Shivelly, J. & Misco, T. (2012). "Student Teaching Abroad Will Help You Get a Job": Exploring Administrator Perceptions of International Experiences for Pre-service Teachers. *International Education Journal: Comparative Perspectives*, *11* (1), 52-68.

Tarrant, M. A., Rubin, D. L., Stoner, L. (2014). The Added Value of Study Abroad: Fostering a Global Citizenry. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 18 (2), 141-161. DOI: 10.1177/1028315313497589.

About the Authors

John Winslade (PhD) and **Lorraine Hedtke** (PhD) are counselor educators at California State University San Bernardino. Lorraine Hedtke coordinates the Masters degree in counseling and guidance and John Winslade used to be a school counselor in New Zealand before becoming a counselor educator, first in New Zealand and later in California. **Amy Douglass, Korina Echeverria, Joanna Garcia, Krystal Howard, Dorry Lillard, Samantha Stephens, and Stefany Zacarias** are all students in the third year of the Masters in counseling and guidance at California State University San Bernardino.

An Exploratory Study on
International Students' Study Anxiety

Rezvan Khoshlessan, Ph.D., Lamar University
Ashraf El-Houbi, Ph.D., Lamar University

Abstract

This study examines international students' study anxiety in a mid-sized university in Southeast Texas comparing their existing study anxiety along lines of nationality, gender, age, .major, degree, and stage of education. It focuses on the students' perceptions and the dominant goal of this research was to investigate whether there is a relationship among the study anxiety of international students and all of the listed factors. The participants consisted of a convenience sample of college students (n =85) during the Spring 2013 semester at a public four-year institution in Texas. The researcher collected pertinent demographic data and used a modified version of the Study Anxiety Questionnaire (SAQ) (Vitasari, Abdul Wahab, Othman & Awang, 2010). Statistical methods such as correlation analysis were used to analyze collected data and ascertain if there was a significant relationship between the response variable and set of independent variables listed above. The results demonstrated some differences among international students' study anxiety in US colleges.

Key Words: *study anxiety; international student*

The global setting of higher education is changing and providing more opportunities for students to study internationally (McLachlan & Justice, 2009). McLachlan & Justice (2009) found that access to high quality education in US and the chance of studying with scholarships are two of the several reasons that lead international students to this country. As a result of these opportunities, Fischer (2010) reported that there has been a renewed focus on attracting international students to U.S. colleges. However, there are many challenges that international students experience (Skinner, 2009) once they arrive.

To name a few, Skinner (2009) emphasized that the challenges of international students are: learning the English-language, adapting to differences in education systems, differentiating the philosophy/purpose of education, distinguishing learning styles, and coping with social, religious, and economic values. International students arrive with their own strategies for coping, studying, and socializing, which often do not fit the existing culture and must be modified. Moreover, Trice (2003) claimed that problems with English language proficiency can significantly affect international students' ability to succeed in academics and to communicate effectively with faculty and classmates.

In another study, Wang, Sun, and Liu (2010) reported that when Chinese students were interviewed by American advisors in a US college to find out what these international students' feelings and personal experiences were while speaking and participating in class discussions, the Chinese students stated their anxiety increased in class and was much greater than outside of a classroom setting. They admitted that their problem existed in communicating rather than language proficiency. Culturally, Chinese students learn to remain distant from their instructors. They consider it respectful and so the close contact expected of an American student-teacher relationship provides anxiety for these students.

Researchers provided studies on language anxiety, mathematics anxiety, presentation anxiety, and test anxiety to help students reduce their study anxiety (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Vitasari, Abdul Wahab, Othman, and Awang, 2010). The majority of studies on anxiety have sought to reduce learners' anxiety in certain learning areas (Casado & Dereshiwsky, 2004; Kim, 2009; Marcos-Llinas & Garau, 2009; Sparks & Ganschow, 2007), whereas this study tends to explore the study anxiety of international students and seek for patterns relating this anxiety to the international students' nationality, gender, age, major, degree, and stage of education. There is a lack of empirical studies on these factors of study anxiety, such as these variables, for international students in the United States of America (USA).

Purpose Statement and Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to explore whether there is a relationship between the level of study anxiety an international student experiences and demographic variables such as the student's nationality, gender, age, major, degree, and stage of education. Specific research questions include the following:

1. Do international students experience study anxiety in US colleges?
2. Is there a pattern to the international students' study anxiety when controlling for nationality?
3. Is there a pattern to the international students' study anxiety when controlling for gender?
4. Is there a pattern to the international students' study anxiety when controlling for age?
5. Is there a pattern to international students' study anxiety when controlling for major?
6. Is there a pattern to international students' study anxiety when controlling for degree?
7. Is there a pattern to international students' study anxiety when controlling for stage of education?

Rationale and Significance of the Study

The purpose of this study was to provide a better understanding of how international students' circumstances relate to their study anxiety. The study addressed the differences in the

international students' study anxiety when controlling for variables such as nationality, gender, age, major, degree, and stage of education at a mid-sized regional university located in Southeast Texas.

Previous studies on anxiety have shown the existence of study anxiety among students (Kim, 2009; Marcos-Llinas & Garau, 2009; Sparks & Ganschow, 2007; Vitasari, Abdul Wahab, Othman, & Awang, 2010); other studies on teaching techniques and strategies have suggested the influence of active and collaborative techniques in learning (Bonwell & Eison, 1991; Nelson, 2010; Sutherland & Bonwell, 1996). Thus, this exploratory study aims to follow these previous studies by examining how to help international students confront study anxiety in class. This study seeks to explore how study anxiety impact international students' regarding their nationality, gender, age, major, degree, and stage of education. Then identify ways in which offer instructors help students in this task.

Coping with the new school environment is essential for international students (Jackson, Ray & Bybell, 2013).Researchers have taken interest in how they do so. Jackson, et al. (2013) found that international students from Asia, North America, South America, Central America, and Australia who attempted to cope and adapt individually. He stated that these students tried to imitate the national students and felt depressed and needed more social support. In their study, over 80% of the students' mother tongue was a language other than English. The international students came to the US to study, but when they came, they felt left out and struggled in their relationships. Providing a friendly student-professor relationship in class help international students reduce their stress and feel less depressed.

Literature Review

According to Bell (2008), international students are more concerned about their studies and experience more stress than American students. There have also been reports on the existence of study anxiety among international students and its negative impact on their learning (Vitasari, Abdul Wahab, Othman, & Awang, 2010).

Horwitz (2001) defined anxiety as, "the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system" (p.113). Every single person in life experiences anxiety, but the anxious feeling is caused by different factors and issues (Rosen, 2008). As Rosen (2008) elaborated, anxiety is a "major source of energy" and can be considered a positive factor (p. 33). He admitted that no one could escape anxiety, since people live in an unpredictable society. Living in a community full of everyday changes leads to anxiety. Rosen affirmed people have to learn how to cope and overcome their anxiety levels throughout lifetime. He argued anxiety could be reduced when people changed their perspectives in life. Rosen concluded that "just enough anxiety creates the optimal condition for learning" (p. 36).

Studies show that anxiety is quite frequently seen in classes where students face problems throughout their learning process (Casado & Dereshiwsky, 2004; Chapell, Blanding, Silverstein, Takahashi, Newman, Gubi & McCann, 2005; Kim, 2009; Marcos-Llinas & Garau,

2009; Sparks & Ganschow, 2007; Vitasari, Abdul Wahab, Othman, & Awang, 2010). Kim (2009) noted that many studies are conducted to find solutions to identify anxiety which might prevent learners from learning, since anxiety among college students is also assumed to be a very important factor in learning. Kim found having awareness of student anxiety was crucial for an instructor and thus, important to react to, so as to lessen the existing anxiety among students. Since every living being experiences anxiety (Rosen, 2008) techniques should applied by instructors to reduce any negative aspect of it during the student learning process (Kim, 2009).

Vitasari, Abdul Wahab, Othman, and Awang (2010) reported the existence of study anxiety among college students. They reported that it can negatively impact students' learning processes. It postpones the learning process and is considered a barrier in students' presentations and while giving tests. The majority of studies on study anxiety have sought to reduce learners' anxiety (Casado & Dereshiwsky, 2004; Kim, 2009; Marcos-Llinas & Garau, 2009; Sparks & Ganschow, 2007).

Viasari, Abdul Wahab, Othman, and Awang (2010) defined "Study anxiety" as the feelings, thoughts, and experiences that create a heightened anxiety level during the study process and negatively affect the students' academic performance. They claimed the higher the anxiety level, the lower the academic performance result would be. Viasari, et al. classified "Study Anxiety" into seven sources: Exam Anxiety (anxiety caused when taking an exam), Language Anxiety (anxiety caused by lack of language proficiency), Mathematics Anxiety (anxiety caused by mathematical problem-solving), Social Anxiety (anxiety caused by social life issues), Family Anxiety (anxiety caused by family factors), Presentation Anxiety (anxiety caused when giving a presentation or communicating with a group), and finally, Library Anxiety (anxiety related to library use).

According to Vitasari, Abdul Wahab, Othman, and Awang (2010), study anxiety impacts students' learning. Having awareness of student anxiety is crucial for an instructor and thus, it is important to react to and try to and lessen the existing study anxiety among students. Sizoo, Jozkowskia, Malhotra, and Shapero (2008) claimed that anxiety affects students' performances and makes them fall behind in class. For students, study anxiety becomes a real phenomenon; the sources that cause anxiety should be explored and once found these anxiety sources should be controlled (Vitasari, Abdul Wahab, Othman, Herawan, & Sinnadurai, 2010).

Ghafarian (1987) found that Iranian students accepted into U.S. colleges, once admitted, confronted problems such as acculturation and mental health issues such as anxiety. Iranian males accepted the American values and behaviors more than females. She found that Iranian females confronted more anxiety concerns than males and were more anxious. Ghafarian reported that this circumstance existed because "the men have been accustomed to freedom, self-determination, and exposure to the western world" (p.569). Further, Misra, Crist, and Burant (2003) reported that female international students in general revealed higher reactions to stressors than male international students.

In one U.S. university, Hsieh (2006) conducted a narrative study to investigate how seven female Chinese international students negotiate their identities. In the interviews they

claimed to prefer to be silent in class. In another similar study on international students, Abeysekera (2008) compared international students with American students and studied their preference in listening to lectures in a traditional format rather than participating in group case study exercises. He found that the international students in his study who were mainly Asian and Middle-eastern preferred the professor's lectures and listened silently. This behavior appears to be a reflection of Asian and Middle-eastern culture where silence of students in class is a sign of respect especially when a professor is teaching and it is valued. Therefore, when students are in a classroom environment in which the professor allowed the "silent" behavior the student preferred to be silent in class.

A study on anxiety levels of graduate and undergraduate students showed that graduate students experience greater levels of anxiety than undergraduate students (Poyrazli & Kavanaugh, 2006). Chapell, et al. (2005) compared undergraduate and graduate students' test anxiety and gender and found that among the four groups of undergraduate females, undergraduate males, graduate females, and graduate males, female undergraduates had significantly higher test anxiety and higher GPAs than male undergraduates; while there was no significance among graduate students regarding test anxiety and gender.

Methodology

Research Design

This was a nonexperimental study that utilized correlational methods to investigate the relationships between the level of study anxiety and variables such as nationality, gender, age, major, degree, and stage of education among international students. Correlational studies are used to investigate the strength of linear relationships between variables (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010).

Participants

This study was conducted at a mid-sized (10,000 - 20,000 students; see Texas Higher Education Coordinating Board, 2012) Texas public four-year institution, with a diverse student population of over 14,000 students, 589 from countries other than the United States. Initially, a power analysis was conducted a priori using a free power analysis tool, G*Power (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009), to determine the needed sample size. McHugh (2008) stated:

> "Statistical power is a measure of the likelihood that a researcher will find statistical significance in a sample if the effect exists in the full population. Power is a function of three primary factors and one secondary factor: sample size, effect size, significance level, and the power of the statistic used" (p. 263).

Based upon the power analysis for a one-tailed small effect (.03) with a significance level of .05, a minimum sample of n=67 was needed. To account for possible attrition, it was determined that a sample size of 85 international students would be selected to participate in the study. All participants were international college students (undergraduate and graduate) during the Spring 2013 semester. This study was a convenience sample. Table 1 shows the demographics of the

international student population at the university, as well as of the sample in the current study. About 87% of the students who took the survey were from Asia.

Table 1.

Population and Sample Comparisons of International Student Characteristics

Characteristics	Population (N = 589)	Sample (n = 85)
Education Status		
Freshman	62 (10.5)	4 (04.7)
Sophomore	18 (03.1)	5 (05.9)
Junior	28 (04.8)	2 (02.4)
Senior	46 (07.8)	2 (02.4)
Master	373 (63.3)	60 (70.6)
Doctoral	62 (10.5)	12 (14.1)
Gender		
Male	416 (70.6)	33 (38.8)
Female	173 (29.4)	52 (61.2)
Continent		
Africa	14 (2.4)	2 (02.4)
Americas	34 (5.8)	3 (03.5)
Asia	486 (82.3)	74 (87.1)
Australia	5 (0.8)	1 (01.2)
Europe	50 (0.8)	5 (05.9)
College/School of Study		
Arts & Sciences	190 (32.3)	24 (28.2)
Business	72 (12.2)	20 (23.5)
Education & Human Development	41 (7.0)	15 (17.6)
Engineering	274 (46.5)	24 (28.2)
Fine Arts & Communication	12 (02.0)	2 (02.4)

As can be seen from the Table 1, the sample modeled the population relatively well regarding the educational status. About 71% of the survey respondents were working on their master's degree while 14% of the students were working on their doctorate degree.

Regarding other characteristics, 61% of the respondents were females and 39% males. As will be elaborated in the Data Collection Procedures below, the survey was disseminated through the International Student Office to all international students. The population was the entire international student body registered at the university for the Fall semester. Respondents self chose to complete the survey. Moreover, reminders were sent out once a week. As soon as the required number of participants needed for this study was attained (the fourth week), email reminders ceased.

Instrumentation

In addition to creating several questions about pertinent sample characteristics, the instrument was administered to the sample via an internet survey host site, OrgSync.com™. The instrument used was the Study Anxiety Questionnaire (SAQ) (Vitasari, Abdul Wahab, Othman, & Awang, 2010). The researcher was granted permission by the developers of the instrument to use and make minor modifications to meet the needs of the study.

Student demographics. Several student level characteristics were measured by demographic questions created by the researcher and included at the beginning of the electronic survey used for this study. The students answered multiple-choice questions regarding gender (male/female) and the students' education status (Freshman, Sophomore, Junior, Senior, Masters, or Doctorate). The question related to the country of origin was open-ended because the international students who participated in this study were from 20 different countries. This mid-sized university consists of six colleges: College of Arts and Sciences, College of Business, College of Education and Human Development, College of Engineering, and College of Fine Arts and Communication. The participants were enrolled in 22 different majors, and their ages ranged from 18 to 55. The majority of the participants were between 24 to 29 years of age. Regarding the international students' stage in their program, they chose one of the following: "I am taking courses," "I have finished all coursework requirements," "I am preparing for comprehensive exams and other requirements to meet additional requirements before dissertation," or "I passed my written and oral comprehensive exams and am writing my doctoral dissertation." All 6 variables were coded and the data was analyzed.

Study Anxiety Questionnaire. The Study Anxiety Questionnaire (SAQ) (Vitasari, Abdul Wahab, Othman, & Awang, 2010) was used in the current study to measure self-reported student study anxiety. The purpose of the Study Anxiety Questionnaire (SAQ) is to investigate students' study anxiety in courses in colleges or universities. It was originally designed to measure the seven sources of study anxiety among college students based on their feelings, experiences, and thoughts regarding anxiety during their study in college level courses.

The original Study Anxiety Questionnaire (SAQ) included 40 items that measured seven sources of Study Anxiety on a five-point Likert-scale with the response options of *Never* (1), *Almost Never* (2), *Rarely* (3), *Fairly Often* (4), or *Very Often* (5). The scores of the items are for each source, to provide a measure of each source of anxiety, and all scores can be added to provide a composite measure of study anxiety. The lower the score the lower the study anxiety.

In regard to the reliability of the instrument, the original Study Anxiety Questionnaire (SAQ) (Vitasari, Abdul Wahab, Othman, & Awang, 2010) had an overall Cronbach's $\alpha = .93$ an indication of high reliability showing that the developers instrument has excellent internal consistency (Kline, 1999). Vitasari, Abdul Wahab, Herawan, Othman, and Sinnadurai (2011)

used a factor analysis to verify the validity of all items identifying the seven sources of study anxiety of the (SAQ).

        For the current study, the researcher used a modified version of the SAQ; only 29 items from the original Study Anxiety Questionnaire (SAQ) (Vitasari, Abdul Wahab, Othman, & Awang, 2010) were used. Participants' responses to the items were added to provide a composite measure of student study anxiety. The modified instrument had an overall Cronbach's $\alpha = .90$, which was comparable to the original.

Data Collection Procedures

        The first step of the researcher in the data collection procedure was to obtain permission to use the modified SAQ (Vitasari, Abdul Wahab, Othman, & Awang, 2010) for this study and approval from the university's Institutional Review Board (IRB). Next, an electronic copy of the Demographic form was followed by the modified Study Anxiety Questionnaire (SAQ) and both were entered into an internet survey host site, OrgSync.com™. Orgsync provides an online community management system to higher education institutions in the United States and Canada. Finally, via email the researchers requested International Office collaboration in approaching the population needed for the study. Then, the International Office at the participating university sent the international students the request for survey email of the researchers to all international students along with an electronic link to the questionnaire. There was no time limitation for the students to respond to the items. All data were collected by the online survey system and kept confidential.

        After the initial invitation was sent out to the participants, a weekly reminder was sent out to international students until 85 students had responded (four weeks). Participants had to respond to all the questions and submit their responses in order to be counted as a participant.

        The respondents represented approximately a 14% response rate of the total population of the international students. There are three assumptions for this response rate. First, the number of items students had to answer might have been too many, even though there was no time limitation and students could have saved their information and continued at a later time. Second, it might have been because students had to reply to all three sections in order to be able to submit their answers. And third, a barrier might have been that some students did not use their university email. Response rates to online surveys (average rate of 33%) are generally much lower than those obtained when using paper surveys (average rate of 56%) (Nulty, 2008), but recent research suggests that despite the low response rate, findings are typically comparable to surveys with higher response rates (Holbrook, Krosnick, & Pfent, 2007; Keeter, Kennedy, Dimock, Best, & Craighill, 2006). Once the data collection period ended, the data was extracted from OrgSync.com™ and placed into Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 17.0 for analysis.

Findings

This section includes a description of all the statistical procedures. It reviews details about the data analysis. An interpretation of the results is also provided.

Evaluation and Transformation of Data

Prior to analysis, the data were evaluated for missing values and potential violations of assumptions associated with the analyses conducted in this study. There were no missing values for any of the respondents, and the observations for the variables were normally distributed and linear. Moreover, in this study normality was assessed through histograms and measures of skewness and kurtosis. Linearity was assessed with a scatterplot.

Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 17.0 software was used to analyze the data. An alpha level of .05 was used for all statistical inference tests. As we notice from Tables 2 and 3, all questions and variables resulted in a significant effect at the 0.05 level of significance since p-value $= 0 < 0.05$. Confidence intervals for all of the variables have been provided in Tables 2 and 3.

Table 2.
Descriptive statistics for the variables with T-test and Confidence Intervals

Variable	N	Mean	SD	SEM	T-test	p-value	95% CI
Nationality	85	8.965	4.871	0.528	16.97	0.00	(7.914, 10.015)
Gender	85	9.718	4.644	0.504	19.29	0.00	(8.716, 10.719)
Age	85	12.259	7.498	0.813	15.07	0.00	(10.642, 13.876)
Major	85	1.388	0.490	0.053	26.11	0.00	(1.283, 1.494)
C Degree	85	4.706	1.213	0.132	35.76	0.00	(4.444, 4.968)
Stage of Education	85	1.423	0.918	0.099	14.30	0.00	(1.226, 1.622)

Tables 2 and 3 provide descriptive statistics for all questions and variables with *t*-test, confidence intervals, and their *p*-values at the 0.05 level of significance.

Table 3.
Descriptive statistics for the survey questions with T-test and Confidence Intervals

Variable	N	Mean	SD	SEM	T-test	p-value	95% CI
I feel anxiety while attending my classes.	85	2.059	1.169	0.127	1.761(0)	0	(1.807, 2.311)
I feel anxiety when speaking in class.	85	2.682	1.466	0.159	1.829(0)	0	(2.366, 2.998)
I feel nervous when my instructor interrupts to correct my speaking.	85	2.259	1.390	0.151	1.625(0)	0	(1.959, 2.559)
I feel anxious because of lack of confidence in class.	85	2.047	1.174	0.127	1.744(0)	0	(1.746, 2.300)
I feel anxiety when the subject of the class is difficult for me.	85	2.518	1.394	0.151	1.806(0)	0	(2.217, 2.818)

I study hard but am not successful in class.	85	2.682	1.521	0.165	1.763(0)	0	(2.354, 3.011)
I always write down everything during class.	85	2.294	1.495	0.162	1.534(0)	0	(1.972, 2.617)
I feel anxious when I do not understand the class subject.	85	2.882	1.499	0.163	1.922(0)	0	(2.559, 3.206)

This study answered the following research questions:
1. Do international students experience study anxiety in US colleges?
2. Is there a pattern to the international students' study anxiety when controlling for nationality?
3. Is there a pattern to the international students' study anxiety when controlling for gender?
4. Is there a pattern to the international students' study anxiety when controlling for age?
5. Is there a pattern to international students' study anxiety when controlling for major?
6. Is there a pattern to international students' study anxiety when controlling for degree?
7. Is there a pattern to international students' study anxiety when controlling for stage of education?

Findings for Research Question 1

In research question one, the researcher explored whether international students experienced study anxiety in US colleges using the Pearson Product-Moment correlation. Total scores from the modified SAQ were the variables used in the analysis. The study confirms that international students experienced study anxiety (p-value= 0.00 < 0.05).

Findings for Research Question 2

Research question two explored the study and found a pattern to the international students' study anxiety when controlling for nationality. The results showed that students from Saudi Arabia were the highest of those who experienced study anxiety compared to students from other nationalities. The results also showed that Australian students had the least study anxiety in class.

Findings for Research Question 3

Research question three explored whether there is a pattern to the international students' study anxiety when controlling for gender. Gender was considered as a potential confounding variable because it was hypothesized that variation in anxiety might exist because of different gender expectations in countries of origin. Results shows gender has significant influence on study anxiety of the international students while attending class (t= - 10.72, p-value= 0.000 <

0.05). The study confirms that there is a statistically significant evidence that males are less nervous compared to females when they are interrupted and corrected by their teacher (t= -3.31 and p-value 0.001 < 0.05).

Findings for Research Question 4

Research question four explored whether there is a pattern to the international students' study anxiety when controlling for age. The finding showed that there is a statistical significant evidence and age effect the international students' anxiety ($t = 38.18$, p-value=0.00 < 0.05). However, older students are less nervous compared to younger students.

Findings for Research Question 5

Research question five explored whether there is a pattern to the international students' study anxiety when controlling for major. The results showed that there is statistically significant evidence between majors and study anxiety (t =-11.44, p-value=0.000). The Electrical Engineering international students reported to be more anxious and have less confidence than the Kinesiology students in class. The reason might lie in the fact that they have more practical applications in their course study which might lead to more confidence.

Findings for Research Question 6

Research question six explored whether there is a pattern to the international students' study anxiety when controlling for degree. The study showed study anxiety has a significant effect when controlling for degree ($t = 7.33$, p-value =0.00).

Findings for Research Question 7

Research question seven explored whether there is a pattern to the international students' study anxiety when controlling for stage of education. There is statistically significant difference between the students stage of education and how they feel anxious when they do not understand the class subject (t=9.21 and p-value=0.00). Students will feel more anxious if they do not have good understanding of the class subject; however, that will gradually decrease as they proceed in their stage of education.

<div align="center">

Conclusions and Discussion

</div>

As shown in Wang, Sun, and Liu (2010) study, the student-professor relationship is very important in reducing the international students' anxiety in class. Professors should find learning techniques that help students in their learning process and, in addition, reduce their anxiety in class. Jackson, et al. (2013) supported the need for a friendly student-instructor relationship in class. International students need to cope with their new environment without pressuring themselves or descending into depression. This study shows evidence that international students experience anxiety. Several variables such as nationality, gender, age, major, degree and stage of education can contribute significantly to the study anxiety. Since, female students were more

anxious when their professor corrected and interrupted them in class presentations (Mahmood and Iqbal, 2010); the importance of student-professor relationship becomes evident and might reduce study anxiety among international student's especially female students.

As previous studies on anxiety have shown the existence of study anxiety among students (Kim, 2009; Marcos-Llinas & Garau, 2009; Sparks & Ganschow, 2007; Vitasari, Abdul Wahab, Othman, & Awang, 2010), the results of this study support a conclusion that the international students' study anxiety was affected especially by major and stage of education.

The findings from this study have theoretical and pedagogical significance. Theoretically, this study adds a component to the existing literature in study anxiety. The practical application is also noticeable. The result of this study suggests that focusing on particular areas can help reduce the international students' study anxiety in their classes. Colleges must try to meet the affective needs of their college students which also cause study anxiety (Vitasari, Abdul Wahab, Othman, & Awang, 2010).

The results of this research indicate that study anxiety of college students should continue to be examined to make sure colleges provide a beneficial way to offer a calm, peaceful, and enjoyable learning environment. This is consistent with the work of Ewald (2007) and Frantzen and Magnan (2005) who argued the need to help students, especially international students, confront and control their existing study anxiety throughout their course of studies in college.

Considerable studies have been seen during the past decade on students' anxiety in college (Casado & Dereshiwsky, 2004; Kim, 2009; Marcos-Llinas & Garau, 2009; Sparks & Ganschow, 2007; Vitasari, Abdul Wahab, Othman, Herawan, & Sinnadurai , 2010). By studying the study anxiety of international students and comparing their variables, this study constitutes a step forward in not only international students but all students to decrease study anxiety.

Overall, the study found a significant correlation analysis leading to the conclusion that a statistically significant relationship exists between study anxiety and variables such as degree and stage of education.

Implications for Educational Practice

The following implications for practice are based on the findings of this exploratory research. These recommendations will be useful in and out of the college environment for education administrators.

One way to reduce international students' study anxiety is to set up social gatherings for the all students of different nationalities including natives. Moreover, encourage new students to mingle with the students who have been studying in college for several years and exchange their experiences about school. These events should be considered investments rather than expenses, because the students would be in a healthier environment and would become stronger and less stressed learners.

Recommendations for Future Research

This study compared the international students' level of study anxiety regarding variables such as: nationality, gender, age, major, degree, and stage of education. Based on the results of this research, the investigators offered the following recommendations for future research:

The researchers first recommend that this study be replicated with a more representative sample. This would help researchers identify trends among subscales including gender, education status, nationality, and field of study (college). Moreover, larger samples from several colleges could be compared with each other.

A more advanced study could be a comparison between the seven anxiety sources among the international and native students. The researchers also recommend a comparison of native students with international students regarding their study anxiety levels when taught in the same class.

Another recommendation for future research is a qualitative examination of this study. Qualitative responses might unveil the problems of the international students within the programs and course services that help reduce international students' study anxiety. Institutions and faculty would have the ability to self-assess their classes and make adjustments as necessary. In a qualitative study, the researchers could employ class observations. A further suggestion is interviewing students in order to get a deeper understanding of the existing problems among international students including asking the students what they think would help reduce their study anxiety in class.

The researchers also suggest that a longitudinal study be conducted to identify trends of experiences or interactions throughout the students' collegiate experiences that directly impact the students' study anxiety. Following students from the freshman year through graduation would be a valuable research approach and might provide interesting, innovative results. Last but not least, the Language Anxiety variables could be compared among native students and international students as well.

The results of the descriptive analysis of this study showed that the field of study of the international students might be a determining factor of student anxiety. Even though the majority of international students were from the engineering department (48.5%) only 28.2% of the international engineering students have participated. A study examining the relationship of study anxiety to field of study might provide a better answer of whether a relationship exists of not. For further study, this study can be replicated with a larger sample size and compare several colleges.

Finally, in addition to the considerations described above, the current study should be replicated not only in larger and more diverse colleges and universities but also in high schools. International students entering high school confront similar problems as college students such as high school dropout rates. Such a study might help lower the percentage of high school dropouts.

References

Abeysekera, Indra. (2008). Preferred learning methods: A comparison between international and domestic accounting students. *Accounting Education: An International Journal*, *17*(2). 187-198. doi: 10.1080/09639280701220236.

Bell, J. A. (2008). Statistics anxiety and business statistics: The international student. *Education 129*(2). 282-286. Retrieved from http://connection.ebscohost.com/c/articles/35732415/statistics-anxiety-business-statistics-international-student.

Bonwell, C., & Eison, J. (1991). Active learning: Creating excitement in the classroom (ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report No. 1). Washington, DC: George Washington University. Abstract online at http://www.ed.gov/databases/ERIC_Digests/ed340272.html

Bonwell, C.C. & Sutherland T.E. (1996). 'The Active Learning Continuum: Choosing Activities to Engage Students in the Classroom'. In Sutherland, T.E. & Bonwell, C.C. (Eds.), *Using Active Learning in College Classes: A Range of Options for Faculty*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. 3–16.

Bowen, J. A. (2012). *Teaching Naked: How moving technology out of your college classroom will improve student learning*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Casado, A., & Dereshiwsky, I. (2004). Effect of educational strategies on anxiety in the second language classroom: An exploratory comparative study between U.S. and Spanish first-semester university students. *College Student Journal*, *38*(1), 23-35. Retrieved from http://www.freepatentsonline.com/article/College-Student-Journal/115034772.html.

Chapell, M. S., Blanding, Z. B., Silverstein, M. E., Takahashi, M, Newman, B., Gubi, A., McCann, N. (2005). Test anxiety and academic performance in undergraduate and graduate students. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 97*(2), 268-274. doi: 10.1037/0022-0663.97.2.268.

Ewald, J. D. (2007). Foreign language learning anxiety in upper-level classes: Involving students as researchers. *Foreign Language Annals*, *40* (1), 122-142. doi: 10.1111/j.1944-9720.2007.tb02857.

Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Buchner, A., & Lang, A.G. (2009). Statistical power analyses using G*Power 3.1: Tests for correlation and regression analyses. *Behavior Research Methods*, *41*, 1149-1160.

Fischer, K. (2010). China props up foreign students' numbers in U.S. (cover study). *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, *57*(13), A1-A25. Retrieved from http://chronicle.com/article/Popularity-of-US-Among/125375/.

Frantzen, D., & Magnan, S. S. (2005). Anxiety and the true beginner-false beginner dynamic in beginning French and Spanish classes. *Foreign Language Annals*, *38*(2), 171-190. Retrieved from http://www.actfl.org/i4a/pages/index.cfm?pageid=3280.

Ghafarian, S. (1987). The acculturation of Iranians in the United States. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 127*(6), 565-571. Retrieved from

http://web.ebscohost.com.libproxy.lamar.edu/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?sid=34020c0c-397f-4938-994e-0600a312ea59%40sessionmgr11&vid=3&hid=8.

Holbrook, A. L., Krosnick, J. A. & Pfent, A. (2007). The causes and consequences of response rates in surveys by the news media and government contractor survey research firms. . In J. M. Lepkowski, C. Tuker, J. M. Brick, E. D. de Leeuw, L. Japec, P. J. Lavrakas, M. W. Link, & R. L. Sangster (Ed.) *Advances in telephone survey methodology* (pp. 499-528). New York: Wiley. doi: 10.1002/9780470173404.ch23.

Horwitz, E. (2001). Language Anxiety and Achievement. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 21*, 112-126. Retrieved from
http://journals.cambridge.org/action/displayAbstract?fromPage=online&aid=168299.

Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B. & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *Modern Language Journal, 70*, 125–132. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/327317. doi: 0026-7902/86/0002/125.

Hsieh, M., H. (2006). Identity negotiation among female Chinese international students in second-language higher education. *College Student Journal, 40*(4), 870-884. Retrieved from http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/search/detailmini.jsp?_nfpb=true&_&ERICExtSearch_SearchValue_0=EJ765389&ERICExtSearch_SearchType_0=no&accno=EJ765389.

Jackson, M., Ray, S., Bybell, D. (2013). International Students in the U.S.: Social and Psychological Adjustment. *Journal of International Students, 3*(1), 17-28, URL: http://jistudents.files.wordpress.com/2012/07/3-social-and-psychological-adjustment.pdf

Keeter, Kennedy, Dimock, Best, & Craighill, 2006

Kim, S. (2009). Questioning the stability of foreign language classroom anxiety and motivation across different classroom contexts. *Foreign Language Annals, 42*(1), 138-157. doi: 10.1111/j.1944-9720.2009.01012.x.

Kline, P. (1999). *The handbook of psychological testing* (2nd ed.). London: Routledge.

MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1994). The subtle effects of language anxiety on cognitive processing in the second language. *Language Learning, 44* (2), 283-305. Retrieved from http://faculty.capebretonu.ca/pmacintyre/research_pages/journals/subtle_anxiety1994.pdf.

Marcos-Llinás, M., & Garau, M. J. (2009). Effects of language anxiety on three proficiency-level courses of Spanish as a foreign language. *Foreign Language Annals, 42*(1), 94-111.

Mahmood, A., & Iqbal, S. (2010). Difference of student anxiety level towards English as a foreign language subject and their academic achievement. *International Journal of Academic Research, 2*(6), 199-203. Retrieved from http://connection.ebscohost.com/c/articles/56681643/difference-student-anxiety-level-towards-english-as-foreign-language-subject-their-academic-achievement.

McHugh, M. L. (2008). Power analysis in research. *Biochemia Medica, 18*(3), 263-74. http://dx.doi.org/10.11613/BM.2008.024.

McLachlan, D. A. & Justice, J. (2009). A grounded theory of international student well-being. *The Journal of Theory Construction & Testing, 13*(1), 27-32. Retrieved from

http://web.ebscohost.com/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?vid=3&sid=38ba8f20-6425-4b58-abd4-f4a193aac708%40sessionmgr15&hid=9.

McMillan, J., & Schumacher, S. (2010). *Research in education: Evidence-based inquiry* (7th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Misra, R., Crist, M., Burant, C. J. (2003). Relationships among life stress, social support, academic stressors, and reactions to stressors of international students in the united states. *International Journal of Stress Management, 10*(2), 137-157. doi: 10.1037/1072-5245.10.2.137.

Msengi, C., Msengi, I., & Harris, S. (2012). In J. Aiken, & C. Gerstes-Pepin (Eds.), *Defining social justice in a global context: The changing face of leadership* (pp. 411-431). Providing a culturally responsive experience for foreign students in USA Higher Education settings. North Carolina: Information Age Publishing.

Nelson, C. E. (2010). Dysfunctional illusions of rigor: Lessons from the scholarship of teaching and learning (pp. 177-192). In L. B. Nilson & J. E. Miller (Eds.), *To improve the academy: Resources for faculty, instructional, and organizational development*, Vol. 28. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Nulty, D.D. (2008). The adequacy of response rates to online and paper survey: What can be done? *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 33*(3), 301-314.doi:10.1080/02602930701293231.

Poyrazli, S., & Kavanaugh, P. R. (2006). Marital status, ethnicity, academic achievement, and adjustment strains: The case of graduate international students. *College Student Journal, 40*(4), 767-780. Retrieved from http://www.highbeam.com/doc/1G1-156364408.html.

Poyrazli, S., & Lopez, M. D. (2007). An exploratory study of perceived discrimination and homesickness: A comparison of international students and American students. *The Journal of Psychology: Interdisciplinary and Applied, 141(3), 263-280*. Retrieved from http://web.ebscohost.com/ehost/detail?sid=697d9f78-4f58-4135-98f9-2aa4f49fbb87%40sessionmgr114&vid=1&hid=128&bdata=JnNpdGU9ZWh vc3QtbGl2ZQ%3d%3d#db=pbh&AN=25127260.

Rosen. R.(2008). Just enough anxiety. *Training Journal*, 33-36. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/202955539?accountid=7043.

Sizoo, S., Jozkowskia, R., Malhotra, N., & Shapero, M. (2008). The effects of anxiety and self-efficacy on finance students. *Journal of Instructional Psychology, 35*(4), 347-356. http://www.projectinnovation.biz/jip_2006.html.

Skinner, K. (2009). International Students: The Global Commerce of Higher Education. Retrieved from: http://education.stateuniversity.com/pages/2129/International-Students.html.

Sparks, R. L., & Ganschow, L. (2007). Is the foreign language classroom anxiety scale measuring anxiety or language skills? *Foreign Language Annals, 40*(2), 260-286. URL: http://www.actfl.org/i4a/pages/index.cfm?pageid=3320.

Trice, A. (2003). Faculty perceptions of graduate international students: The benefits and challenges. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *7*(4), 379-403. doi: 10.1177/1028315303257120.

Vitasari, P., Abdul Wahab, M. N., Othman, A., & Awang, M. G. (2010). A research for identifying study anxiety sources among university students. *International Education Studies 3*(2), 189-196. Retrieved from http://www.ccsenet.org/journal/index.php/ies/article/view/4834/4660.

Vitasari, P., Abdul Wahab, M. N., Othman, A., Herawan, T., & Sinnadurai, S. K. (2010). The relationship between study anxiety and academic performance among engineering students. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences 8*, 490-497. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2010.12.067.

Vitasari, P., Abdul Wahab, M. N., Herawan, T. , Othman, A. , & Sinnadurai, S. K. (2011). Validating the instrument of study anxiety sources using factor analysis. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *15*, 3831-3836. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.04.381.

Wang, S., Sun, X, Liu, C. (2010). Intercultural analysis of communication anxieties encountered by international students in the United States, *Intercultural Communication Studies*, *14*(2), 217–234.

About the Authors

Rezvan Khoshlessan holds a doctorate in Educational Leadership specialized in Higher Education from Lamar University, Beaumont (Texas-USA), a Master of Arts in TEFL from Islamic Azad University, Tehran North Branch (Tehran-Iran), and a Bachelor of Arts in English Literature from Tehran University (Tehran-Iran). Currently, she works for the Texas Intensive English Program (TIEP) at Lamar University as an Instructor where she teaches international students who are studying in different English proficiency levels. In addition, she is a researcher and reviews articles on teaching and learning at the Center for Teaching and Learning Enhancement (CTLE) and works as a part-time Research Director for CTLE. Her research interest includes higher education, active and collaborative techniques, and study anxiety.

Ashraf El-Houbi is an associate Professor at the Information Systems and Analysis Department at Lamar University, Beaumont, Texas. He holds a Ph.D. in Statistics from the University of Wyoming. He teaches an applied statistics courses such as Business statistics and Managerial Decision Making. His research areas of inter tar in Applied statistics, Mixed Models, and Logistic Regression. He presented several papers at national and international meetings and has more than 10 refereed journal publications and proceedings. He is a member of the ASA (American Statistical Association).

Application of Games in College English Teaching in China

Qiaoyan Yang, Professor,
Zhijiang College, Zhejiang University of Technology, China
Virginia L. Dixon, Ed.D.
California State University, Sacramento

Abstract

Games are an activity with rules, goals, and create fun (Hadfield, 2007). Games can stimulate learning and motivation, and students get very absorbed in games, some of which are suitable for college students in studying English as their second language. Appropriate use of games in college English teaching could help students eliminate the psychological pressure of learning a language and create a relaxed atmosphere for learning. The researchers will share their experience of applying games in teaching college English in China. Various games help students in their study of vocabulary, speaking, and texts. However, games should be used in an appropriate way. Instructors have to be clear in their role in game activities in the classroom, be aware of the frequency and time of games used in classroom, and devote themselves to designing games that not only can be carried out easily but also benefit student learning in a long term way.

Key words: Games; Language Teaching and Learning; Social Identity; Methods

The first author, Yang, has been integrating games as a technique to employ when teaching English to Chinese college students at a university in southern China. Dixon has consulted with Yang and co-taught for two months. Stimulating students' performance through the use of games can prompt engagement in learning, in this case learning English. This type of group learning, creates interest in the usefulness of English language learning. Cummins and O'Boyle note that the often sub-conscious aspect of social identity theory has shifted from intergroup relations to a broader view including group processes such as social influence and leadership (Cummins & O' Boyle, 2014).

Currently, Non-English majors in Chinese universities must take College English as a mandatory course in the first two years of University. The purpose of learning English is to go through a two-year study period designed to help students pass the national College English Tests (CET 4 or CET 6), after which they expect to have better opportunities to find desirable employment after graduation. Therefore, in Chinese college English classes, the main purpose is the knowledge accumulation of English without consideration of formal rules (Gao & Li, 2006). In order to pursue their institutions' target CET pass rate, most university foreign language instructors carry out "duck-stuffing" teaching methods, so that students do not experience the joy of learning the language.

Most students find the use of games motivating and find that a more interactive approach helps them reach the skill--listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation--required for

language acquisition. In 2007, the Ministry of Education in China developed a trial set of College English Curriculum Requirements emphasizing that college English teaching model should reflect the practical, informative, and interesting characteristics of English teaching (www.moe.edu.cn, 2007). Interest is not only an indispensable add-on and potential catalyst to improve the informative and practical features of college English teaching, but also one of the effective ways to improve the its overall quality. In order to make the class more interesting, many colleges and universities have attempted various types activities. Based on their own classroom experiences of using games to increase interest, the authors share their ideas about how to design and use games smartly to improve students' English learning in China.

Games and Foreign Language Teaching and Learning

Games are an activity with rules, goals and create fun (Hadfield, 2007). In other words, fun is a necessary element of games. Additionally, games also have teaching value, especially in second language learning and teaching. As everyone knows, language learning is hard and can be tedious. Effort is required at every moment and must be maintained over a long period of time. However, in the process of learning language, games help and encourage many learners to sustain their interest and work. "Games help the teacher to create contexts in which the language is useful and meaningful. The learners want to take part and in order to do so must understand what others are saying or have written, and they must speak or write in order to express their own point of view or give information" (Wright, Betteridge, & Buckby, 2006, p. 1). This makes games useful strategies to promote students' language proficiency when learning a foreign language. Through games, "students are encouraged to communicate and interact, and games are a good way of creating a meaningful context for language use" (Kim, 1995, p. 35). Games can also be a wonderful and welcoming break from the usual routine of the language class, and they provide motivating and challenging language practice in various skills such as speaking, writing, listening, and reading.

Appropriate use of games in college English teaching can help eliminate the psychological pressure on students and create a relaxing learning atmosphere. Most Chinese college students have become, since middle school, used to a learning mode in which teachers lecture while students listen. Students are afraid of losing face when making mistakes in speaking, so they miss out on a lot of opportunities for language practice. As a foreign language teacher, one needs to make an effort to stimulate the motivation of the students and cultivate their positive attitude toward learning. Therefore, teachers can promote student engagement by selecting   games suitable for students by age and interest areas. This will activate the classroom atmosphere, making learning more enjoyable. In this way, students tend to overcome their anxiety of language learning in a more lively atmosphere. Games can create a relaxed and harmonious atmosphere in the classroom, so that students can learn the target language unconsciously, which helps teachers achieve their purposes more easily.

Games can improve students' interest in learning as well as their efficiency. Curiosity is an innate human talent, and interest is the best teacher. In *The Analects,* Confucius said, "People

who know it are no better than those who love it; those who love it are no better than the ones who love to know it" (Zhu, 2001, p. 62). Thus, promoting learning through games offers more interaction with English language. In class, teachers should focus their skills in teaching on enticing the students' love to learn. The most realistic and most active factor in motivation is to recognize and cultivate interest, arousing curiosity. American linguist Noam Chomsky has pointed out that it is extremely important to stimulate learners' interest in learning. In his words, "99 percent of the teaching is to make the students interested in learning material" (Chomsky, 1988, p. 181). In current college English teaching, the most serious problem is that students learn the language passively just to pass examinations. Indeed, students' interest in learning English is mainly a product of the combined influence of environment and teaching. Games in teaching, with their unique appeal and attractiveness, will mobilize students' emotions, stimulate their interest, and promote their mental activity to goad them into participating in class activity enthusiastically, so as to help them grasp knowledge more firmly. In this case, a variety of games can give full play to the imagination of students. At the same time, many games require students to be dedicated and attentive. Innovative games in the classroom produce a sense of anticipation and freshness in students so that they will not feel tired.

By stimulating and developing students' interests, the instructor can spur students' internal motivation and enable them to build self-confidence. Students who play games in class are more positive about learning English, so they take the initiative to practice. As games create a real scene of communication, when students do have difficulties in communication, they will be more likely to come up with strategies to solve the problem. If the problem can be resolved smoothly, students will have a sense of achievement that can be applied to tackle problems they will meet in the future. In this learning process, students regard learning as a kind of reward, and for such rewards, they will plunge themselves into the learning process effectively and consistently without encouragement and supervision from others. In this learning process, students' communicative ability and English proficiency are improved. Finally, students are more willing to learn English due to their internal motivation. The application of games in the teaching process enhances students' motivation to learn and stimulates their interest in learning English, so that they can be actively engaged in learning by themselves. "You want me to learn English" changes into "I want to learn English." They will be engaged in improving their listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Thus, games provide motivation for language learners, relieve their pressure in the learning process and provide them with a real opportunity to exchange ideas. In other words, games prompt motivation so that students affectively learn the language (Amato, 1996).

Methods of Game Application in College English Teaching in China

As indicated above, appropriate use of games in college English teaching will help students learn English as a foreign language in a easy and relaxing way. Here is an approach to setting up an effective array of games in English teaching practice. With the guidance of College

English Curriculum Requirements, the instructor uses several games of vocabulary, text, and speaking in a college English Learning class in China.

According to the College English Curriculum Requirements, students need to master the usage of between 4700 and 7500 key English words. To teach students English vocabulary, the instructor asks them to do a word-guessing game. For some words characterized as "emotion" or "action," the instructor will ask the students to act the word out. When teaching words like "anxious," "cheerful," "depressed," "suspicious," etc, the instructor will ask a group of students to act the word out and ask another group of students to guess what their classmates are acting by their expressions or gestures, then give the correct answer of the word they are learning. For verbs like "vanish," "expel." "calculate," or "split", students are encouraged to act the action in front of the whole class. Some are asked to guess what word is his/her classmate acting. This form of activity allows students to relax, be active, enhance their self-confidence, and reduce their anxiety to learn a foreign language. The classroom takes on a pleasant atmosphere. Ideographic action games flexibly applied in teaching, whether as an introduction or further development activity, will yield positive learning. Teachers can easily make use of the contents of a study unit from a textbook to design these kinds of games.

For some words with distinguishing features in combination, the instructor may ask students to explain in English. For instance, "vis" will be written as the key word, and "visible, invisible, visit, television, supervise, revise, visual and visage" will be added on the blackboard. Two students (A and B) will be asked to stand before the podium, facing other students. Then the teacher writes the words one by one on the blackboard (these words should not be too abstract). At this time, Student A can see the blackboard and Student B can't. Every time the teacher writes a word, Student A will explain in various ways in English without using any body gestures, but they can't directly say that word. Student B should guess the word the teacher wrote based on a series of information Student A has provided, after some questions and answers. After students' explanation of these words, teachers might summarize the laws or rules of the combination of these words and give students a better understanding of the words. This approach can be used to enhance the students' memory of the vocabulary as a way of review, too. Even sometimes purely for relaxation and adjustment of classroom atmosphere, flexible word-guessing games will help students learn words with distinguishing features in the long run (Yang, 2015).

Students learn English with textbooks designed to help them accumulate language knowledge and broaden their view of different cultures, according to the College English Curriculum Requirements. In the process of teaching a text, instructors may use brainstorming to start. The instructor designates a topic, and students are asked to list as many words and concepts related to the topic as possible in a limited time. Students may list many words related to "college life," for example, which is the topic of Unit 1, Book 1 in the College English Text book. Of course, there are thousands of different possible answers, such as dormitory, roommate, facilities, library, challenge, friendship, majors, etc. The instructor asks students to use as many sentence patterns as they can to express their likes and dislikes, too. As they participate in this first class of English in their colleges, students will be encouraged to say

anything that comes to mind. This fast-paced thinking training can help them expand their vocabulary and build their confidence in learning.

To help them learn the text's content, some skits can be designed for students to practice the vocabulary and sentence patterns that they have learned. Performative alternatives might include scenario dialogues, recitations, debates, or speeches. For instance, the content of Unit 6 in Book 2 is "Being Creative." In this unit, the author mentions eight contradictory extremes in the personalities of creative people. Students will be divided into several groups for role play. In the role play scenario, the chapter's author stars in a TV interview. One of the students will play the role of the author and prepare a brief introduction to the research and its findings, using the information given in the text and his or her own imagination. The other student will play the role of the TV host. Under guidance from the instructor, each team of students develops questions for the other team. The high number of correct responses wins the game. The instructor will decide who wins the game and rewards the winning group based on their performance. In doing this analysis and acting, students come to understand authors' idea better, develop their own views, cooperate with their classmates on team work, and build their confidence in learning. Such group activities, in particular, will mobilize the enthusiasm of students and develop their ability to cooperate with a group to a large extent.

After finishing a unit, instructors often encourage students to explore opinions of their own. For instance, after studying the topic of "success," students are encouraged to debate whether happiness leads to success or success leads to happiness. Under guidance from the instructor, students will prepare before class to argue their views and opinions. Involved in the process of debate, students may improve their speaking and thinking abilities by thinking positively and striving to express their ideas effectively.

According to the College English Curriculum Requirements, students need to speak in English as fluently and accurately as they can. In terms of improving students' speaking skills, especially for those whose English is poor, instructors can use a "Gossip Relay" or "telephone" game. First, the instructor tells a phrase, sentence or sentence pattern to a student in each group. The students should pass what was said around the group one by one by whispering the message to the next participant. Those who can finish the task the most accurately and quickly win the game. This game not only alters boring classroom atmosphere, but also adapts to the large-capacity characteristics of the college English class by involving all of the students in the class efficiently into simultaneous activities.

In another effort to enable students to open their mouths to speak English, the course instructors designed "Make Up Stories" games. First of all, the instructor starts telling the story, like this: "On a dark night I was walking in a forest. I walked and walked. Suddenly....." Then, the instructor might throw a ball into the hands of any student to name him or her the speaker who must continue the story. The student might say something like "Suddenly, a big tiger walked towards me, and then ...." With the ball passed to the hands of many students in succession, the story goes on, full of students' imagination. This game reduces students' sense

of oppression about speaking and stimulates their enthusiasm for speaking and acting in the classroom atmosphere, as implemented by the first author, Yang.

To improve students' pronunciation and intonation, instructors often ask students to read aloud. One approach is to use "tongue twisters" to correct student pronunciation, which is not only fun, but is also a way to intensify practice. For example, the sentence "She sells sea shells by the seashore, and the shells she sells are sea shells I am sure" requires students to practice the pronunciations of [s] and [ʃ]. For some engaging passages in the text, or some English poetry and classical texts loved by students, the instructor asks students to read aloud together, or read in different roles. Alternately, the instructor might divide the students into groups to recite some material or hold reading contests, in which those who read closest to the original win the game. In the last class of a semester, a role play competition could be held. Every student would have to stand up on stage and give a performance of a selection from an English drama, play, movie, song, speech, etc, to imitate the pronunciation and intonation of the original native speaker as accurately as they were able. Their performance would receive feedback and scoring as part of their final class evaluation.

Such games and activities create a relaxing atmosphere beneficial for students to learn English effectively, as it helps prevent fatigue and boredom. They are more engaged and enthusiastic during foreign language learning.

 This use of games creates team-building among the students. As students continue their quest to learn English, the presence of a team atmosphere helps them shed some of their tensions about face-saving. Team building also makes it more likely that students will utter words or phrases to help each other, as well as helping their teams overall.

Questionnaire for Students

In order to quantify the teaching effect of games in College English Teaching, I asked my students to help by filling out questionnaires about their satisfaction with English classes before and after the application of games. In addition, students were asked to share comments or suggestions about their English classes.

Students who answered the questionnaires are all from the Economic and Trade Department; 46 of them majored in Marketing, 45 in Accounting, and 44 in Financial Management. Their scores on the National College Entrance Examination, recorded in June of 2014, are all over 110 out of 150. All together, 115 samples were collected as data to show the degree of students' satisfaction with their English classes before and after the application of games. Questionnaires show that 6 students classified themselves as "least" or not at all satisfied, 15 of them were less satisfied with the original curriculum, 61 of them were satisfied, 24 were more satisfied, and 9 of them were the most satisfied possible with their English class before the application of games.

After the application of games in English class, the numbers of students who classified as "least" satisfied dropped to 3, less satisfied to 12 , and satisfied to 49. These data demonstrated an increase in satisfaction from the use of games. Meanwhile, students are getting more satisfied
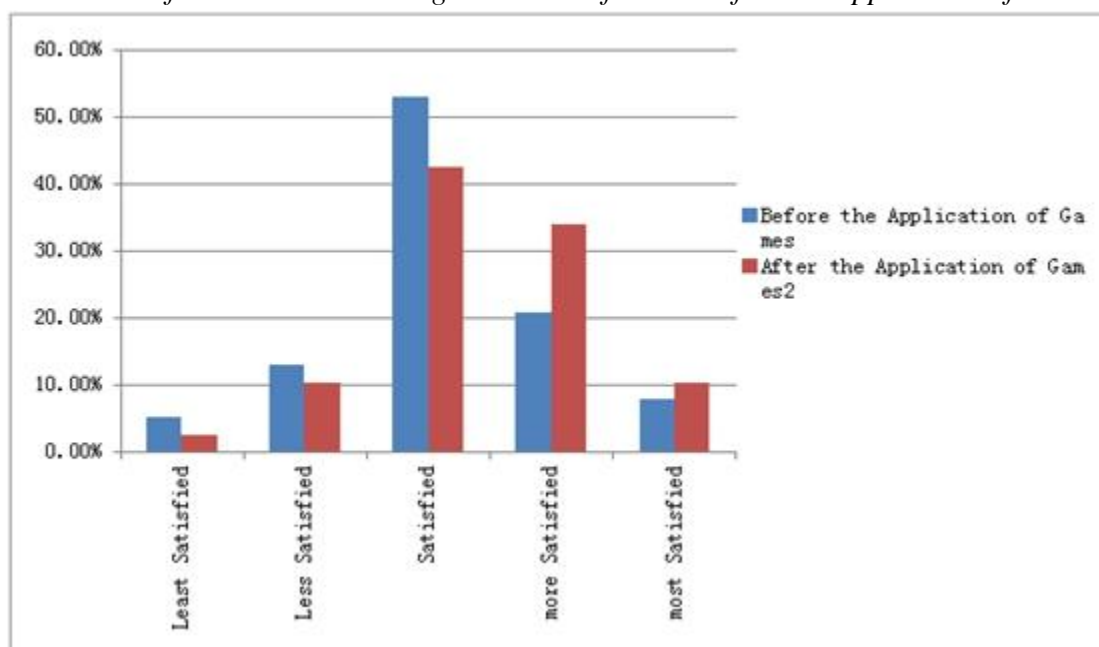
with English class with the application of games. Thirty-nine students rated themselves "more satisfied with English class" compared to the original 24, and 12 students showed the most satisfaction with English classes after the application of games in teaching, rather than 9 before the games. In other words, the percentage of students "more" or "most" satisfied with English classes jumped from 29 to 44 once games were introduced in the classroom; the percentage of students "less" or "least" satisfied dropped from 18 to 13.

Table 1 shows the comparison of students' satisfaction with their English class before and after the application of games.

While asked to comment on or suggest anything to improve the English class before the games were introduced, many students mentioned that they had difficulty listening and speaking English in class. They do not traditionally have much of a chance to speak in English, and they dared not speak in class in front their classmates for fear of losing face. Some students mentioned that they wished to learn more techniques or skills to be able to pass CET 4 or 6. However, after the application of games in English teaching, students' comments and suggestions for the class changed. Some mentioned they found their English classes more interesting; some mentioned that they were now able to speak English a little, and some even suggested more games and having games outside of the classroom. However, there were some students who felt that games distracted their attention in class, and they grew impatient with some of games applied.

Table 1
Student Satisfaction with their English class before and after the Application of Games

Statistics above show that the degree of students' satisfaction with English Class increased overall with application of games. Fewer students were dissatisfied with English class

and more were pleased. One can see that students' interest was stimulated with games implemented in English class. Their confidence in learning English was greatly increased accordingly. Students as a whole are more willing to participate in class activities with games in English teaching, especially in vocabulary, text learning, and speaking. However, the researchers also found that certain games were not well accepted by some students.

Conclusions and Limitations

Gallimore and Goldenberg (2001) defined cultural models as involving a shared environment with interpretations of that environment to be aligned in a pervasive way. Thus, even interpretations of what is valued and what is ideal are part of the landscape. Along with these are interpretations about what should be avoided and what should be acted upon. Even rules of interactions and purposes of interactions are attended to. One can claim that the utility of games in helping students acquire a language creates an explicit "shared environment" wherein students experience the activity of the game and current use of the language.

Just as there are multiple approaches to teaching English as a class to Chinese students at universities in China, the style of participatory learning, using various games, prompts student engagement which will be beneficial to their acquisition of English, particularly in conversation.

Therefore, for college students learning English in China, instructional use of games promotes their oral language output while making the process of learning more interactive (Yang, 2015.) Students seek to comprehend, explain, and make sense out of these frames of reference, all of which support their involvement in learning English.

 Sensemaking as a process is "both cognitive and social.... experiences are made sensible when people place stimuli into some type of cognitive framework..., view an experience as one within a category...encountered previously...or create a new frame of reference for interpreting the experience" (Bess and Dee, 2012, p. 154).

Although it is commonly known that English learning becomes more effective by using games, sometimes games do lead to problems. Therefore, there are certain principles that should guide the use of games.

First, the role of the teacher in an English class game should be clearly set. Students should be the main actors in the class game, while the teacher acts as an organizer, a director, and a referee. When the game is over, teachers can point out the errors students have made in the game in pronunciation, intonation, or grammar. However, they should avoid interrupting students during the game, which will limit the students' enthusiasm, affecting the smooth conduct of the game and its integrity. Teachers should allow students to struggle in the "language ocean" in order to inspire them to use their brains, hands, and tongues and improve their classroom participation, giving full play to the role of practice in foreign language teaching. In addition, teachers should accumulate different games based on students' age, hobbies, and other interests, and should continue to design new games.

Second, games should be designed according to their features and students' language level. Teachers should select games carefully to ensure that they are interesting, applicable, and

communicative. It is documented that positive games, which can reduce the information gap among game participants, can stimulate students' learning of a foreign language. Teachers should focus on setting a real context for language communication in games design. While selecting a game, the first consideration is whether the game meets students' language level. Games teachers choose according to teaching materials and purpose should not be much beyond students' language level, otherwise they will not fully understand the rules of the game and feel stress in playing the game. Therefore, teachers should take into account students' learning needs, the objects of the in-game communication, and the real interpersonal communication environment. Moreover, students' personalities, motivation, learning methods, qualifications, age, and sometimes gender should also be taken into consideration when designing a classroom game. Teachers must also ensure that they have fully mastered the essentials of the game before explaining it to students. In addition, rules of games applied in class should not be too complex, to ensure that the game can proceed smoothly. Teachers can demonstrate the rules of games by running a scenario with several students in advance.

Third, game time and rhythm control in the process of the games is very crucial. In each game, overall time and rhythm should be strictly controlled. Teachers should neither interrupt students frequently nor stand by the side completely. Instead, they should pay close attention to the process of the game. When students need help, their teacher can pause the game to explain, but only if there are common problems which will seriously affect the smooth conduct of the game. If not, teachers can serve as reminders and assistants to make the game go smoothly. In the process of applying games in English class, if teachers find students' activities have achieved the goal of the game, they can stop the game; otherwise continuing would be a waste of valuable class time.

Regarding the limitations of this research. The data the authors used was from a single study. The options for this study as described above are ideas and practical experiences based on primary author's years of experience in the teaching of college English; in addition to the co-teaching experience of the primary and second author. The study is limited in regard to questionnaire responses by students: students' answers may differ by their English level and their learning objectives. For example, students who are outgoing and have less English mastery welcome games more, whereas students who want to pass the CET exams might feel more impatient with some of games applied in English class. On the other hand, more variables should be considered in studying the application of games in College English Teaching and learning. For instance, type of learning environment, socio-economic status of students, and access to English environments outside of the class. In addition, for future study there is a need to study the methodology of games in the classroom as a causative factor in the improvement of English language.

References

Amato, R. (2012). *Making it happen*. New York: Addison-Wesley Publishing Group.

Bess, J., & Dee, J. (2012). *Understanding College and University Organization: Theories for Effective Policy and Practice*(2nd ed.). Sterling, VA.

Chomsky, N. (1988). *Language and Problems of Knowledge*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Cummins, P., & O' Boyle, I. (2014). Leading through Others: Social Identity Theory in the Organizational Setting. *Organization Development Journal*, 27-39.

Gallimore, R., & Goldenberg, C. (2006). Analyzing Cultural Models and Settings to Connect Minority Achievement and School Improvement. Educational Psychologist. 36(1).

Gao, Q., & Li, Y. (2006). Review of the Latest Language Teaching Research. *Foreign Language Teaching*. 27(5), 53-57.

Hadfield, J. (2007). *Elementary Communication Games*. Longman.

Haslam, S., Reicher, S., & Platow, M. (2010). *The New Psychology of Leadership: Identity, Influence and Power* (1st ed.). New York: Psychology Press.

http://www.moe.edu.cn/publicfiles/business/htmlfiles/moe/s3857/201011/xxgk_110825.html

Kim, L. (1995). Creative Games for the Language Class. *Forum*, 33(1), 35-37.

Wright, A., Betteridge, D., & Buckby, M. (2006). *Games for Language Learning* (3rd ed.). Cambridge University Press.

Yang, QY. Interview with Dixon. V, Sacremento, March, 2-3-4, 2015.

Zhu, X. (2001). *The analects of Confucius variorum*. Beijing Library Press.

About the Authors

Qiaoyan Yang is now a visiting scholar at California State University, Sacramento. She has been teaching College English in Zhijiang College of Zhejiang University of Technology, PR, China.

Virginia L. Dixon is a Professor in Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Studies, California State University, Sacramento.

APPENDIX A
Questionnaires on the Use of Games in English Class

Questionnaire before the application of games in English class:

1 How satisfied are you with your current English class?
   Very satisfied   5   4   3   2   1   very dissatisfied

2. How satisfied are you with your vocabulary learning in English class?
   Very satisfied   5   4   3   2   1   very dissatisfied

3 .How satisfied are you with your text learning in English class?
   Very satisfied   5   4   3   2   1   very dissatisfied

4. How satisfied are you with your speaking and listening in English class?
   Very satisfied   5   4   3   2   1   very dissatisfied

5. What suggestions and comments do you have for future English class?

Questionnaire after the application of games in English class:

1. How satisfied are you with your current English class?
   Very satisfied   5   4   3   2   1   very dissatisfied

2. How satisfied are you with your vocabulary learning in English class?
   Very satisfied   5   4   3   2   1   very dissatisfied

3 .How satisfied are you with your text learning in English class?
   Very satisfied   5   4   3   2   1   very dissatisfied

4. How satisfied are you with your speaking and listening in English class?
   Very satisfied   5   4   3   2   1   very dissatisfied

5. Would you like the forms of games applied in English class?

Yes, I definitely   5   4   3   2   1   No, I definitely do not like
like the application   the application of games in
of games in my   my English class
English class

6. What suggestions and comments do you have for future English class?