EXPERIENCES AND IMPRESSIONS OF JAMAICAN
STUDENTS STUDYING AT THE UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA,
1981-1982

BY

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The purpose of this study was to determine the academic, social and cultural needs of the Jamaican students at the University of Florida. Certain hypotheses related to these needs and concerning the students' adaptation and anticipated reentry problems were tested.

The need for the study was determined by the increase in the number of Jamaican students at the University of

Florida. To be able to accomplish what was proposed, two different approaches were employed in collecting the data: experimental and observational. The research methodology selected for gathering the data was that of an interview and questionnaire for which an instrument was developed by the researcher. Content validity and reliability were established with the aid of a panel of experts in the field and refined through the use of a pilot study.

Statistical manipulation of the responses on the questionnaire indicated the following results: The international students' orientation program at the University of Florida does have a positive effect on the students' academic achievement but does not help them in the adaptation to the United States' culture. The education obtained in Jamaica made a significant difference in the students' academic performance.

Another variable investigated was the type of visa held by the students. Although this variable seemed not to have had any significant effect on the students' adaptation, it did have a positive relationship with their academic performance and their anticipated reentry problems. In response to the questions asked in the interview, the researcher concluded that for the most part, the students in the sample were able to acquaint

themselves sufficiently well with their new environment to alleviate the discouraging adjustment situation that could have affected their academic and personal adjustment.

It was recommended that the study be replicated with the same population two years hence to determine any major changes in their perceptions of their problems. In addition, the study should also be replicated involving all the Caribbean students that basically have the same culture, academic, and adaptation problems.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The Caribbean, the oldest colonial sphere of Western European expansion (London, 1978), has taken on renewed world importance and other nations are carefully watching its development.

The United States (U.S.) is finding that traditional policies toward its neighbors to the South no longer fit the changes that have swept through Mexico and Central America and across the Caribbean (Ford Foundation, 1982).

Mexico, for example, has now become a major source of oil and natural gas. Its potential oil reserves rival those of the Persian Gulf, and it is a rising "middle power" in Latin American affairs. Still, the crossing of thousands of Mexicans into the U.S. each year looking for work is a source of continuing friction between the two countries.

Today, parts of Central America are engulfed in violence, with the remaining countries caught in the cross-fire and desperately trying to cope with an influx of

refugees. Throughout the region, endemic economic and social problems persist. As some U.S. observers see it, Central America's troubles are being exploited by the Soviet Union and Cuba, thus threatening U.S. influence in the area (Ford Foundation, 1982).

Most of the Caribbean, once dominated by foreign powers, has become a collection of independent mini-states with limited experience in the international arena and severe economic problems. As these island nations gain independence from European colonialism, the United States becomes the focal point for educational options inasmuch as there is no longer any compelling reason to patronize the educational institutions of the metropolitan Mother Countries (London, 1978).

United States relations with Cuba have been hostile for 20 years. No relations with Puerto Rico are becoming strained, due to increased pressure by Puerto Ricans for a change in the island's commonwealth status. For the U.S., the Caribbean is a strategic area as well as a modest source of raw materials, trade, and investment opportunities. The region is also tied to the U.S. through migration. According to a report published by Ford Foundation (1982), one-fifth of all Caribbean-born people now live in the United States.

Combined with the political turmoil and the economic disadvantages of the island nations of the Caribbean are other factors which will continue to create great pressure for large streams of immigrants to continue flowing to Florida. Among these factors are the established presence of latin culture, similar subtropical climate, economic viability, and the geographical proximity of places like South Florida (McCoy and Gonzales, 1981).

In addition to the geographical proximity, there are other long-standing relationships of socioeconomic and political proportions which tie the Caribbean to the United States (Graham, 1981). Such factors have facilitated the flow of immigrants and account for the large Caribbean presence here. However, despite these relationships, relatively little is known about the Caribbean and still less about the background of the student who carries his own particular needs to the U.S. university campus and grapples with the problems of adjustment and acculturation.

Statement of the Problem

The purposes of this study were six-fold. The first was to explore the experiences and impressions of Jamaicans who are undergraduate students at the University of Florida in order to evaluate the extent to which their stay has

been educationally rewarding and the degree to which they perceived the course of studies they were pursuing as being relevant to the needs of the developing nation of Jamaica. The second was to identify problems confronted by Jamaican students who have matriculated at the University of Florida. The third was to determine the extent to which these students' programs of studies in Jamaica prepared them to pursue their educational goals at the University of Florida. The fourth was to explore the ways in which the Jamaican students have modified their culture in order to get along socially in the United States. The fifth was to identify the problems of adjustment that students expect to experience when they return to Jamaica. The final purpose was to suggest procedures that might be employed at the University of Florida in order to assist students in transferring the knowledge gained in the United States to Jamaica.

Null Hypotheses

One of the main purposes of this study was to test the following null hypotheses:

1. There is no statistically significant difference between the students' level of orientation (orientation, or no orientation) and their achievement as measured by their grade point average.

2. There is no statistically significant difference between the students' level of orientation and their adaptation to the United States.
3. There is no statistically significant difference between the students' level of education (O Levels, A Levels, below O Levels) on arriving in the United States and their academic achievement as measured by their grade point average, after one year at the University of Florida.
4. There is no statistically significant difference between the type of visa (J, F, Resident) held by the students and their adaptation to the United States.
5. There is no statistically significant difference between the type of visa held by the student and their academic achievement.
6. There is no statistically significant interaction between the students' age, their length of stay in the United States, and their adaptation.
7. There is no statistically significant relationship between the adaptation of the students and their length of stay in the United States.
8. There is no statistically significant difference between the adaptation of older students (ages 25-38) to the adaptation of younger students (ages 17-24) at the University of Florida.
9. There is no statistically significant relationship between the students' grade point average and their anticipated reentry problems.
10. There is no statistically significant relationship between the level of adaptation to problems in the United States and the set of independent variables "X" ("X" representing age, length of sojourn in the USA, and type of visa: J, F, R).
11. There is no statistically significant relationship between the degree of problems encountered in the United States and the set of independent variables "X."

12. There is no statistically significant relationship between the degree of problems expected when the student reenters his/her country and the set of independent variables "X."
13. There is no statistically significant relationship between the students' GPA and the set of independent variables "X."

In addition to the statistical analysis, the researcher analyzed descriptively the responses given by the 25 subjects during their interviews, in order to identify some indications with regard to the following questions:

1. How do the Jamaican students feel about their Jamaican identity?
2. What are some of the experiences the students from Jamaica have had at the University of Florida?
3. What are some of the impressions the students from Jamaica have of their course of study and its relevance to their future and to the needs of Jamaica?

Justification

Every facet of society in the State of Florida, and indirectly the other states around the nation, is being affected favorably or adversely by the inflow of English, French, and Spanish immigrants from the Caribbean. Although in this study a general overview of the Caribbean sociocultural, geographical, and immigration problems

will be discussed, it will be dealt with only as far as it may throw light on the background of the study which is based on the Jamican students at the University of Florida.

According to Enarson (1982), international education has been the banner under which educators of many persuasions have marched: the devotees of area and language studies, using foreign languages as a liberating force; the exports in overseas development; the scholarly community enamored with the exchange of senior scholars; and finally, faculty members, deans, and presidents, and the "globally aware" in the community, who believe that it is a very good thing to invite foreign students to partake of the cultural and intellectual resources of the United States' campuses and communities.

Institutions of higher learning in the United States are attracting a tremendous number of foreign students on their campuses. According to Bowles (1962), in 1961, 60,000 foreign students were enrolled in this country in 1,666 institutions in all 50 states and in the District of Columbia. Since then, the foreign student population has expanded greatly. During the seventies for example, the population grew from 135,000 or 1.7 percent of the total enrollment (Joshi, 1981) in 1979, to 286,600 or 2.4 percent in 1980.

Another study conducted by Jacobs (1980-81) in New York reported that there were 311,882 foreign students in 1981 studying in the United States in institutions of higher learning, and Enarson (1982) has predicted that there will be one million foreign students by the end of the decade. Of the number of foreign students reported in 1980-81 in the United States, 11,919 were to be found in the state of Florida with 8,910 of these from the Caribbean Islands. This figure excluded the Spanish-speaking islands of Cuba, Santo Domingo, and Puerto Rico. Of the 8,910 students from the Caribbean, 2,290 were from the Island of Jamaica (Open Door 1980/1981).

This growth of foreign student population has been perceived by many schools as an opportunity during a period of stagnating enrollment by the U.S. students (Open Door 1980/1981). But growth has also presented new issues; foreign students require special services, which necessitate additional investment by institutions in facilities and staff. In addition, institutions face choices in determining optimum levels of enrollment in relation to the services they can afford to provide.

A few schools have relied excessively on student enrollment as a panacea for financial problems, with concomitant recruitment abuses and negative impact on institution and community. These few schools were typically unprepared to provide appropriate special services to such students, with predictable negative results. . . . Particularly large growth in the number of students

from certain countries has occasioned campus debates on the appropriate level and distribution of foreign students required to maintain diversity and balance. (Joshi, 1981, p. 2)

Although overall many American public colleges and universities feel comfortable with their existing policies towards foreign students, and have not modified their policies in the light of recent public attention to foreign student issues (Joshi, 1981), there has been recent interest and concern in the higher education community with regard to changes in institutional policy toward foreign students (Strain, 1962).

The greatest pressure these schools face is in keeping international student services abreast of foreign student enrollment. In the survey taken by the International Institute of Education, 30 percent of the schools reported that foreign student services have not expanded to keep pace with enrollment, or have been reduced (Open Door 1981). The study presently being conducted entitled "Experiences and Impressions of Jamaican Students Studying at the University of Florida 1981-1982" is designed to fill the gap by providing normative baseline data on the Jamaican students in the United States and relevant information with regard to foreign students' need with recommendations on how best to meet them.

Delimitations

This study will be confined to eighty undergraduate students from Jamaica enrolled at the University of Florida during the academic year 1981-82.

Limitations

This study relied on a researcher developed instrument consisting of 56 questions and on an informal taped interview conducted by the researcher. Since events, attitudes, and perceptions constantly change, the perceptions and attitudes that were identified at the end of this study were only reflective of the time period during which this study was conducted.

The extent to which this study can be generalized is limited to a population similar to that from which the sample was drawn.

Assumptions

This study is designed using the following assumptions:

1. The responses to the questionnaire accurately reflected the opinions of the sample.
2. Content and face validity of the questionnaire was sufficient for the purpose of this study.
3. Participants in the study constituted a representative sample of the true population.
4. Because the sample was randomly selected, initial differences would be controlled.

Definitions of Terms

Foreign (International) Student:

(1) "A person who enrolls in a recognized educational institution in a country other than his own and who plans to return to his home country upon completion of his academic objectives" (Putnam, 1971, p. 491-92). (2) A non-immigrant student enrolled in an educational institution in the United States on an "F" or "J" visa.

F-Visa (Student Status):

"An F-1 and an F-1 student status may be granted to an alien who is a bona fide student qualified to pursue a full course of study at an academic institution authorized to admit foreign students. When applying for an F-1 visa, the individual must prove to a U.S. consular official that he wishes to enter the U.S. temporarily and solely for purposes of study and that he has a permanent residence in a foreign country which he has no intention of abandoning" (Advisor's Manual of Federal Regulations Affecting Foreign Students and Scholars, 1975, p. 11).

J-Visa (Exchange Visitor):

"An alien having a residence in a foreign country which he had no intention of abandoning, who is a bona fide student, scholar, trainee, teacher, professor, research assistant, specialist, or leader in a field of specialized knowledge or skill, or other person of similar description, who is coming temporarily to the United States as a participant in a program designated by the Secretary of State for the purpose of teaching, instructing or lecturing, studying, observing, conducting research, consulting, demonstrating special skills or receiving training, and the

alien spouse and minor children of any such alien if accompanying him or following to join him" (Advisor's Manual of Federal Regulations Affecting Foreign Students and Scholars, 1975, p. 21).

Permanent Resident (Immigrant Status or Resident Alien):

"An immigrant is an alien who has been lawfully admitted for permanent residence in the United States. In common usage, the word 'immigrant' is interchangeable with permanent resident or 'PR'. Acquiring immigrant status gives an alien the right to stay in the U.S. for an indefinite period of time without any need to request extensions of stay, work permits, etc. An immigrant is never compelled to become a naturalized citizen. The immigrant of good moral character may elect to become naturalized at any five years or more after he becomes a permanent resident (three years for the immigrant with a U.S. citizen spouse)" (Advisor's Manual of Federal Regulations Affecting Foreign Students and Scholars, 1975, p. 45).

O Level or Ordinary Level is the General Certificate of Education examination taken after the student has completed a course of study in secondary school. This examination measure the results of 5 years of study in from four to twelve subjects or the Certificate of Secondary Education given to those who are in an academic track and normally do not continue after age sixteen (College and University, The Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admission Officers, 1980, p. 345-46).

A Level Examination or Advance Level are the examinations taken after spending 2 more years in the high school after satisfactory completion of O Level. This examination measures the results of two years of study in two to five subjects (College and University, The Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admission Officers, 1980, p. 345-46).

Attitude is defined by Sherif and Sherif as the set of subject-object relationships that the individual builds up in repeated encounters with objects, persons, groups, social values, and institutions (Sherif and Sherif, 1969).

Adjustment is viewed in this paper as subjective phenomenon--a personal reaction to the social-cultural environment.

Organization of the Research Report

Chapter II contains a review of related background information. Chapter III describes the methodology used in the study. In Chapter IV, the data will be presented and analyzed. Chapter V includes the summary, conclusions, and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED BACKGROUND INFORMATION

To be able to set the framework of this investigation, literature and research studies relating to the problem are reviewed in the following areas:

- a) geography of the Caribbean,
- b) sociocultural description of the Caribbean,
- c) U.S. Immigration policy, and the culturally different immigrant in the United States,
- d) international students in the United States,
- e) foreign student orientation, and adaptation to U.S. culture and educational system,
- f) applicability of United States education to third world countries, and
- g) re-entry problems that students can anticipate encountering on their return to their native land.

Geography of the Caribbean Region

The Caribbean region is commonly referred to as the West Indies, the Islands, or the Antilles. The very name West Indies is a misnomer which arose out of confusion and ignorance (London, 1978). It was Christopher Columbus who named the region, believing it to have been the shores of the Orient which he had hoped to reach by sailing west.

Geographically speaking, the Antillean archipelago forms a curved 1500-mile chain extending from the peninsula of Florida in North America, to the Peninsula of Paria on the northeast coast of South America (London, 1978) (see map, Fig. 1). The English-speaking Caribbean Islands, to which Jamaica belongs, consist of Jamaica, the Leeward Islands of St. Kitts, Nevis, Antigua, Montserrat, the Virgin Islands, and the Windward Islands of St. Vincent, St. Lucia, Dominica, and Grenada. In addition, there are the islands of Barbados, Trinidad and Tobago, Belize in Central America, and Guyana in South America (see map, Fig. 2).

Sociocultural Description of the Caribbean

Within 50 years after Columbus' visit to the West Indies in 1494, the Spaniards had established their first bases in the Caribbean and had annihilated both the people and the culture of the Arawaks and the Caribs (Augier and Gordon, 1971). Since then, the Caribbean has experienced more than three hundred years of slavery, colonialism, and exploitation (Mintz, 1968). Thus the heritage of the Caribbean is one of contact and clash, amalgamation and accommodation, and resistance to change (Augier and Gordon, 1971). In addition, the Islands' social history

Figure 1. Map of Caribbean Islands.

Figure 2. Map of the Caribbean Islands.

may be conceptualized as one that includes colonialism, massive migrations, plantations, and extensive use of slaves and contract labor from Africa, India, Asia, and Europe (Platt, 1978).

The merger of these African and Asian ancestors, coupled with the Western traditions of the colonial powers, led to the evolution of the distinctive cultures that one finds today within the Caribbean. Some of the most complex societies in the world can be found there, each of which is unique (Parry and Sherlock, 1971). The complexity of the societies in the Caribbean is not a result of the size of the islands, or to their internal differentiation or technological developments, but to the dependent and fragmented nature of their cultures. This factor has been compounded by the ethnic diversity of their populations, the special nature of their dependent economics, the peculiarities of their political development, and the apparent incoherence of their social institutions (Smith, 1965).

The peoples of the Caribbean, therefore, cannot be classified as Africans, Asians, or Westerners. They are an unusual and complex racial and ethnic combination of Amerindians, Europeans, Africans, and Asians (Horowitz, 1971). Yet, within the framework of this synthesis lies

lies the peculiarity of dissimilarity which arises among peoples strung out over more than a thousand miles of islands, who are inheritors of varied historical backgrounds and diverse cultural norms (Platt, 1978).

The Caribbean Islands, with few exceptions, have several major characteristics of island ecosystems (Fushberg, 1963). They are limited in size and stand in relative isolation. With the exception of Haiti, which won its independence in 1803, all the islands held colonial status well into the 20th century. They share a history of change of colonial leadership several times (see Fig. 3). According to Horowitz (1971) there is a tendency towards a sector stratification consisting of a dominant plantocracy and subordinate agricultural proletariat.

Today, the rise of nationalism and cultural autonomy and the transition of many of the islands from dependent to independent status have brought with it many unfulfilled expectations: expectations of being able to overcome their economic problems on their own and achieve self-sufficiency and true independence.

OWNERSHIP OF THE WEST INDIES 1623 TO PRESENT

Figure 3. European Colonial Ownership of the West Indies between 1623-1814. Adapted from F.R. Augier and S.C. Gordon, *The Making of the West Indies*. London: Longmans Green and Co., Ltd., 1964, p. 180.

U.S. Immigration Policy,
and the Culturally Different
Immigrant in the United States

The government of the United States has recently become more involved in the development and problems of the Caribbean Basin. This renewed interest on the part of the United States has been given impetus by the growing left-ist movement in the Caribbean area, coupled with grave economic conditions that the developing nations, worldwide, are facing. In addition, these factors seem to have influenced and accelerated the massive flow of migration into South Florida resulting in an increase of foreign students from the Caribbean into the educational institutions around the nation and, in particular, Florida.

Migration from the Caribbean, especially from Jamaica from 1975 to 1980, was estimated at 14,000 to 20,000 (McCoy and Gonzales, 1981). This can be seen as one country's loss and another country's gain. Because of the United States policy regarding who should or can receive a visa to sojourn here, only the wealthy and the educated have had the opportunity to migrate. This has created a tremendous problem for Jamaica because this policy has contributed to the economic slump the country is now facing. This "brain drain" and transfer of funds, nevertheless, is not unique to Jamaica; it is happening all over the world (Beiger,

1967). If United States' policy is in truth geared toward helping the developing nations advance and be truly independent, then according to Bob Graham, Governor of Florida (1981)

The United States government is in a particularly advantageous position to reach out and to offer assistance to those countries which are their nearest neighbors and to establish economic plans that will be the foundation for stable political systems. (p. 5)

Graham further stated that agriculture in the Caribbean Basin was in a shambles. As recently as the mid-1950's the Caribbean Islands were more than self-sufficient in terms of agriculture. Today Trinidad produces less than 28 percent of the food its people eat. The situation in Trinidad is typical of what has happened to the agricultural economy in the Caribbean and in Central America.

According to Strain (1962), the United States as a part of national policy, committed herself to educational assistance to developing nations. Florida, therefore, can give to those countries through its higher educational institutions, a tremendous wealth of experience and knowledge in the practical application of agricultural techniques developed for climate and soil conditions which are very similar to those conditions that exist in many Caribbean nations (Graham, 1981).

In 1980, the different consulates from Latin America and the Caribbean in South Florida were contacted for their estimate of the immigrant population from their countries in South Florida (McCoy and Gonzales, 1981). The following demographic picture emerged for the various countries: Haiti, 30,000; Colombia, 35,000-40,000; Puerto Rico, 40,000; Jamaica, 14,000-20,000; Venezuela, 22,000; Nicaragua, 25,000; Peru, 12,000; and Argentina, 6,000. These very imprecise estimates should highlight the drama in South Florida with regard to recent Latin and Caribbean immigration.

Because of the similarity of the physical environment to that of Latin America and of the Caribbean, the South Florida area appears to be very attractive to the people from these countries. For this reason, not only have Cubans been attracted to Miami and the rest of South Florida, but also other Latins, and in particular the Caribbean population, who see Miami as a cultural center that offers great opportunities for them in the American land of political and economic promise (McCoy and Gonzales, 1981).

This attraction is reflected in the growth of the population from Latin American and Caribbean, according to the United States census of 1970. The population increased from less than 5 percent in 1960 to a little less than 25

percent in 1970, and it is expected that both legal and illegal immigration will continue from all the Latin countries to the United States, mostly to the South Florida area (Graham, 1981).

Although the Cuban and the Haitian immigrants are the most publicized and offer the best examples of differentiated treatment given two separate Latin groups, other less-known and publicized immigrants from countries like Colombia and Jamaica are examples of additional immigration that can be expected to continue regardless of policy (McCoy and Gonzales, 1981).

This exodus could have stemmed from the political and economical situation in Jamaica in the last decade, which created economic conditions that could have rivaled those that lead to the Cuban exodus. After the reelection of Prime Minister Manly in 1975, Jamaicans arrived almost daily in Dade County; they preferred South Florida because of the reception and success of the Cubans (McCoy and Gonzales, 1981). Today, with a change of government, the migration of the Jamaicans may seem to have subsided. However, it has only taken on a different characteristic. The young people are being sent here in a large number to study. This is portrayed in the increase in numbers over the past years at the University

of Florida. In 1978, there were five Caribbean students enrolled and in 1981-82, there are more than 150.

Although the present-day immigration problem in the United States seem to be an unsurmountable one to the Floridians, precedents have been set by the Cuban migration of the 1960's to show that it depends to a large extent on the quality of the migrants. Miami's economic development today owes part of its success to that group of Cubans who came to these shores with money, skill, and determination to succeed. According to Graham (1981),

we have benefited throughout our state's history through waves of refugees. In the past twenty years the new arrivals particularly from Cuba, have contributed greatly to the economic boom that we are now experiencing. . . . But as we have benefited by these waves of refugees--Miami for instance has now supplanted New Orleans as the capitol of the Caribbean Basin--we are also discovering as New Orleans did several decades ago that there is a price tag attached to such honors I have no fear what-so-ever of overstating the situation when I say that immigration in the United States, both legal and illegal, will be one of the most pressing and most volatile issues facing our nation and the state of Florida in the next decade. (p. 16)

International Students in the United States

International students comprise an important and significant minority of the college and university student

population in the United States (Blankenship, 1980). For the purpose of this study, the term international student will be used in reference to students on "F" or "J" visas and at times in reference to other categories of foreign-born individuals, such as resident aliens (permanent residents).

One outstanding characteristic of the international student flow into this country is its phenomenal growth rate over the years. In 1930, approximately 9,600 students from foreign countries studied in the United States (DuBois, 1956). The records that the IIE has been keeping since 1954, demonstrated that the number of the international students in the United States has increased from 23,232 to more than 235,000. Although the growth rate has been continuous, it has varied during different time periods. When the Institute published its first issue of Open Doors (1955), it reported that there were 23,232 international students attending colleges and universities in this country. Although there was a substantial increase in the number of international students between 1957-58, the rate of growth in 1962-63 was 50 percent greater (Open Doors, 1963).

In 1966, President Lyndon Johnson supported the establishment of the International Education Act which authorized the creation of centers for advanced

international studies and grants for students to study at those centers (Blankenship, 1980). Although the legislation was passed, Congress did not appropriate any federal funds for its implementation. In spite of this limitation, national attention was focused on the importance of international education. The number of international students surpassed 100,000 in 1966 (Open Doors, 1967), representing more than 170 countries.

In 1978, there were approximately 235,000 international students in institutions of higher education in the United States (Julian, Lowenstein and Slattery, 1979). The annual rate of increase of international student enrollment nationally for 1977-78 was 16 percent (Julian et al., 1979).

International developments clearly indicate that the dimensions of this movement will grow rather than diminish. Particularly, more and more young people from the newer nations and the developing areas will seek in the United States knowledge to enable them to contribute to their countries' thrusts toward economic growth and political stability (Houlihan, 1961).

Many factors have contributed to this growth. Factors which are external to American educational institutions include the expanding European Common Market, multinational corporations' participation in international relationships,

and the increased involvement of developing countries in international affairs (Hood and Reardon-Anderson, 1979). Institutional factors include a decline in domestic student enrollment, a need for additional financial resources, and expansion of international programs.

According to the annual census of foreign students conducted by the Institute of International Education (IIE), there was a total of 311,882 foreign students in higher education in the United States in 1981; this figure represents the largest total foreign students ever to study in the United States. To carry out the survey, IIE polled 3,250 academic institutions, of which 3,030 or 95 percent responded (Boyan, 1981).

The following table shows the annual rates of increase for selected years for both the number of foreign students and the number of institutions reporting (see Table 1).

According to Boyan (1981), Florida ranked among the 10 states with the largest numbers of reported foreign students (see Table 2). Because of Florida's large international student population, and the rapid growth of international education among institutions in the southern region of the United States, there is a need for research to be conducted on these students' adaptation and culturalization problems (see Table 2).

Table 1

Reported Foreign Students and Number of
Reporting Institutions with Average Annual
Rates of Increase During Selected Years,
1954/55-1970/80

Year	Reported Foreign Students	Average Annual Rate of Increase	Number of Reporting Institutions	Average Annual Rate of Increase
1954/55	34,232		1,629	
1959/60	48,486	8.3	1,712	1.0%
1964/65	82,045	13.8	1,859	1.7%
1969/70	134,959	12.9	1,734	1.3%
1974/75	154,580	2.9	1,908	2.0%
1975/76	179,344	16.0	2,261	18.5%
1976/77	203,068	13.0	2,524	11.6%
1977/78	235,509	16.0	2,738	8.5%
1978/79	263,938	12.1	2,752	0.5%
1979/80	286,343	8.5	2,950	7.2%

Source: Institute of International Education, Open Doors (New York: Institute of International Education, 1980). Reprinted by permission, (p.2).

Table 2

State with the Largest Number
of Foreign Students

California	47,621
Texas	24,416
New York	23,569
Massachusetts	12,607
Illinois	12,218
FLORIDA*	11,919
Michigan	10,559
Pennsylvania	8,919
Ohio	8,672
District of Columbia	8,499

Compiled from Open Doors 1979-80, 1981, pp.43 & 45.

Florida

The number of international students is continuing to increase not only in Florida but in the entire U.S. of America. According to Villa (1970), the first two international students to study in Florida were two Russian students who enrolled in the College of Agriculture at the University of Florida in 1889. In 1963, Florida ranked 15th nationally with a total international student

population of 1,076. Most of these students attended the University of Miami, University of Florida, and Barry College.

In 1978 there were 9,209 international students enrolled in institutions of higher education in Florida (Julian et al., 1979). This total represents 3.9 percent of the total student enrollment in Florida. As reported to the IIE (Julian et al., 1979), 76.3 percent (7,030) of the international students are enrolled in two- and four-year public institutions of higher education in Florida. Approximately 51 percent (4,707) of the international students are enrolled in two-year colleges in Florida.

In 1980, Florida ranked seventh nationally behind California, New York, Texas, Massachusetts, Illinois, and Michigan in the total number of international students attending post-secondary institutions (Julian et al., 1979).

Kaplan (1973) reported that, of the international students enrolling in Florida's State University System (SUS) institutions, 58 percent were undergraduate and 40 percent were graduate students. These students represented 3 percent of the total enrollment of SUS. The median age for these students was 25. The distribution by sex was 70 percent male, 14 percent female, and 16 percent unreported. More current demographic data regarding SUS international student characteristics were not available for this report.

Presently, Florida ranks sixth nationally behind California, Texas, New York, Massachusetts, and Illinois, in the total number of international students attending institutions of higher education in the U.S. (Boyan et al., 1981) (see Table 2.)

More and more as the United States asserts a leadership role in the world community, her functions as a global facilitator become increasingly evident as different nations reach out for her technology. Part of this outreach involves bridging gaps of social and cultural distance and discord. One way in which this bridging can be accomplished is through education.

Today, the United States has the opportunity to help educate the people of the developing nations. This help is not, however, in relationship to finance (Diener, 1978; Kaplan, 1973). Statistics show that few students that are here from other countries are in need of financial aid. This is illustrated in the following figure (4).

Almost two-thirds of the students surveyed in a study conducted by the Institute of International Education (IIE) in 1979/80 (Boyan, et al., 1981) paid for their education with personal and family funds. The second largest source of funding came from foreign students' home governments, followed by the students' colleges or universities which provided 9.2 percent of all funds. Together, these sources

Percentage Distribution of Foreign Students by
Primary Source of Funds, 1979/80

Figure 4. Percentage Distribution of Foreign Students by
Primary Source of Funds, 1979/80

Source: Institute of International Education, Open Doors (New York: Institute of International Education, 1980). Reprinted by permission.

of funds accounted for 87.6 percent of all foreign student financial support. The remaining 12.4 percent of student funding reported included foreign private sponsors (3.0%), employment (2.7%), the U.S. Government (2.0%), and U.S. private sponsors (1.9%).

Figure also identifies and separates two categories of funding sources: (1) funds that are clearly identified as being from the United States and (2) funds that are clearly from foreign sources, or are identified as coming from the student or his family. This categorization suggests that 15.8 percent of foreign students' support comes from U.S. sources, while as much as 81.4 percent may originate from outside the United States.

In addition, the following table (3) lists the number and percentage of students that received each of the major sources of funds for the academic years 1977/78-1979/80.

It can also be seen that support from U.S. sources declined substantially. While 18.2 percent of foreign students' funding came from U.S. sources in 1977/78, only 15 percent came from the same sources in 1979/80. It is worth noting that the largest reduction occurred in U.S. government support and in employment. To counterbalance this drop in support from the United States, students have been relying more heavily on their personal and family funds and, where possible, on other sources. (See Figure 5)

TABLE 3

Primary Source of Funds Reported with Number of Foreign Students and Percentage of Students, 1977/78-1979/80

Primary Source of funds	1977/78		1978/1979		1979/80	
	No. of Students	% of Students	No. of Students	% of Students	No. of Students	% of Students
Personal and Family	67,571	62.9	85,142	64.3	98,546	65.4
Home Government College	15,541	14.5	18,249	13.8	19,637	13.0
University	11,803	11.0	13,043	9.9	13,919	9.2
Foreign Private Sponsor	3,624	3.4	4,654	3.5	4,435	3.0
Employment	2,379	2.2	4,731	3.6	4,103	2.7
U.S. Government	2,924	2.7	2,951	2.2	3,027	2.0
U.S. Private Sponsor	2,484	2.3	2,408	1.8	2,875	1.9
Other	1,075	1.0	1,216	0.9	4,237	2.8
Total	107,410	100.0	130,393	100.0	150,779	100.0

Source: Institute of International Education, Open Doors (New York: Institute of International Education, 1980). Reprinted by permission, (p. 25).

Figure 5. Percentage Distribution of Reported Primary Sources of Funds for Foreign Students, 1977/78-1979/80

Source: Institute of International Education, Open Doors (New York: Institute of International Education, 1980). Reprinted by permission.

Foreign Student Orientation and Adaptation
to U.S. Culture and Educational System

What the foreign student needs from an orientation is an awareness of himself and his own culture. (Cormack, 1963, p.1)

Despite the great number of foreign students entering United States' institutions of higher education each year, very little is done by the universities and colleges to orient these newcomers to life and study in these institutions (Smith, 1965). The majority of students from the developing world arrive in the United States with very little idea of the organization of American institutions of higher education, let alone with an understanding of the cultural adjustment problems they will face (Cormack, 1963).

Although a number of orientation programs for foreign students have been in operation for several years now, to date, the most extensive orientation program has consisted largely of essential information about the United States, English-language study programs, and the counseling and guidance programs in colleges and universities (Gullahorn and Gullahorn, 1962).

Unfortunately, many of the formal orientation programs are still limited to students coming to America on special

grants (Cormack, 1963). The need for orientation for all foreign students is great, and it is very important that it precedes, as far as possible, the beginning of registration and classes (Kline, 1953).

The first problem area that is usually dealt with in an orientation program can be labeled academic. This includes such problems as understanding the requirements of the American institution, registration procedures, class assignments, difficulties in taking examinations, in writing research papers, difficulty in accepting degree requirements which have little relation to the student's needs, and a host of associated problems.

In addition, there are two practical needs of every foreign student that could be served by a proper orientation: 1) learning "American" English, and 2) learning how to take an objective test. This is not suggesting that these areas can be thoroughly taught in an orientation program, but much frustration from trial-and-error learning could be eliminated through a brief introduction to some points of "American" style in English expression and through the opportunity to take a few objective tests, especially of the multiple-choice type, with some tips on methods of studying for this type of test (Cormack, 1963).

While this information is necessary and useful, it is also important to focus on the second problem which is the

students' need to understand an alien culture and live effectively within it without damaging their loyalty to their home and culture and their ability to live in it when they return. "Understanding" the U.S. culture involves communication between two cultures, and living effectively involves personal adaptation to a new culture.

Cultural information is sometimes offered along with the standard orientation services. But the quality, quantity and timing of this material assumes increasing importance. According to Gullahorn and Gullahorn (1963), many students either experience culture shock, cultural rejection, or at least some form of personal culture crisis on their arrival in a foreign country, and it is rarely resolved in less than two years.

Since most students may stay in the United States about three years, it is valid to seek orientation programs that shorten the acculturation period.

There are of course, numerous cultural subtleties about which foreign students should learn (Altscher, 1976). The American college campus is in many ways a culture of its own. The relationships with professors and students, the social events and rituals, the grading systems, all this will be strange and new to these students. It seems a basic obligation, therefore, of any American university that is interested and willing to have

foreign students on campus to ease their adjustment and help them through the "culture shock" by means of an orientation (Cormack, 1963).

The third general area may be called sociopersonal. These are the kinds of problems which belong to foreign students largely because they are human beings away from home. They range from financial difficulties to homesickness and everything in between. Problems which could be easily solved for an American may require considerable ingenuity when the foreign student faces them.

The orientation program, therefore, should address all these areas so as to sensitize the students to the many difficulties they may anticipate during their sojourn in the United States. Brislin (1981) argues that worrying about potentially stressful events is helpful as it forces the person to learn as much as possible about the event, to prepare for its negative effects so as not to be surprised by them, and to envisage what he might do if any of the negative effects indeed occurred.

The orientation concern in this study is related to the students from Jamaica who are likely to be ill-tuned to residing and studying in a highly industrialized and bureaucratized society. There is the tough aspect of finance, but there is also the more tender consideration of the human beings whose lives are being altered. Higher

education abroad should result in more effective professional service and in happier personal lives. If improved orientation programs, even if more costly, can aid in these aims, they are worth it.

Solutions may be as simple as an explanation or, if the problem requires it and the university is sensitive to its responsibility, as difficult as the substitutions of relevant course work for requirements that may have little meaning in the students' home country.

According to Higbee (1962), a given university must appraise the extent of its own collective knowledge about professional, vocational, and skilled manpower needs of those foreign countries and its knowledge about its applicability of a given American curriculum to the practice of a profession or vocation in the students' home country.

If a university possesses an acceptably high level of knowledge in all the above areas, it must still determine whether it has the time and willingness to practice a system of academic advising which by its very special nature will be time-consuming, administratively irregular, and expensive.

Adaptation

Foreign students go through a transitional process on entering the American educational system. This process

involves personality growth and development along a number of dimensions. Unfortunately, a number of students fail to complete this process because hostile elements in their environment become too strong for them to handle.

Bryce-Laport (1978) discussed the implications of the migration of Caribbean students to the United States for educators in both areas. He reported that Caribbean students were highly motivated and mobile. These men and women were willing to take risks, make sacrifices, and use novel methods in order to achieve their goals. Yet, the Caribbean experience in the United States has been accentuated by a pattern of invisibility and inequality. Americans perceive the Caribbeans as they do low-status individuals. This lack of acceptance leads to alienation and antagonism according to Bryce-Laporte (1978) and further acts as an additional barrier in the students' adaptation as is demonstrated in a student's out-cry "It hurts so much to feel so alone where not a soul seems to care if you live or die . . . these students are not friendly." This out-cry illustrates some of the problems of alienation, anomie, and rejection frequently encountered in cross-cultural adjustment.

Colleges and universities in the United States have admitted foreign students for many years. These students

come to the United States because institutions of higher learning in their countries do not offer the programs they seek (Lee et al., 1981) and because they may consider it more prestigious to study in a foreign country. Apart from academic pressures, foreign students may encounter problems in making adjustments to a novel culture and on return home, may find it difficult to readjust to their own culture. These issues have been examined by a number of investigators.

Putman (1971) defined a foreign student as

A person who enrolls in a recognized educational institution in a country other than his own and who plans to return to his home country upon completion of his academic objectives. (pp. 491-492)

In numbers, Putman reported that more than 120,200 students were enrolled in American colleges and universities in 1970.

According to Houlihan (1961), the most important single experience in the foreign students' life in the United States is their first one. The research claims that if someone who is friendly and helpful is waiting for the international student as he/she arrives in the country, future misunderstandings and frustrations may be understood and accepted because "after all, Americans do want to be friendly, but some misunderstandings are inevitable." Houlihan further states that if the first experience in America is one of confusion, misunderstanding, and loneliness, the inevitable

future frustrations reinforce a picture of an American who does not care.

Post-admission adjustment of foreign students must deal with a bewildering variety of individuals who have little in common beyond the fact that they are foreign to America. The problems the international students face can be separated into three general areas for orientation. First is the problem of communication; second is cultural adjustment; and third is the sociopersonal area. For some students the problem of communication involves the need to learn to think, talk, read, and write in a different language from their own.

For all foreign students including Canadians, it involves learning new vocabulary, new pronunciation, new inflections, and much new slang and local usage (Porter, 1963). English instruction should be provided for foreign students by taking them at the level of English language competence they have achieved and, with as little wasted time as possible, enable them to compete with American students.

For the universities to be able to help the foreign students, it is not enough to look at the academic problems. The students, on the other hand, to be able to take

advantage of their stay in the United States, need to be socially and culturally satisfied. One way this could be done is for the universities to help students with their problem of adjustment.

Hull (1978) examined the foreign student's experience through a series of questionnaires and interviews with about 950 foreign students at three major universities. Answers were sought to the question "What variables contribute to successful coping in a U.S. educational environment for a foreign student?" (p. 14). Many variables were found to be significant factors in student coping behavior. With regard to teachers the relationship between satisfied and dissatisfied students centered on variables like discrimination and prejudice. In general, foreign students were pleased with the teaching staff academically, but negative cultural attitudes quite naturally presented obstacles in the classroom.

During previous decades many researchers have recorded the adjustment process of foreign students in their host cultures (Lysgaard, 1955; DuBois, 1956; Gullahorn and Gullahorn, 1963; Coelho, 1958; Sewell, Morris and Davidsen, 1961; Useem and Useem, 1953). According to Freese (1977) and Bowlby (1961) the transition from one culture to another experienced by an immigrant involves a grieving process that occurs in stages.

Researchers postulated four stages of adjustment for foreign students (DuBois, 1956; Oberg, 1960). The first stage is called the spectator stage. In this stage, foreign students find their new environment to be exciting and uplifting and report feelings of elation and optimism associated with positive expectations regarding interaction with their hosts. The students' morale is high at this stage, due to the fact that they are more observers than active participants. Gullahorn and Gullahorn (1963) adds that during this stage there is initial excitement or elation over new ideas or skills and fascination with the food, people, and surroundings. But this is just a temporary phase which Oberg (1972) and Kimball (1980) refer to as the Honeymoon period. Bowlby (1961) and Freese (1977) propose that for those who are here as immigrants the experience is reversed. Their first stage is grieving and during this process the immigrant experiences numbness, shock and disbelief. Their enthusiasm is slowly tempered by hardship, disappointment, discrimination and in many instances poverty.

The first stage slowly evolves into the second as they accept the reality that they are no longer to see familiar faces and sights. This feeling of estrangement heightened by the new environment causes one to assume a minority status in a majority culture, wherein

one once was a member of the majority culture. Thus one frequently hears such questions as "Why did I ever come here? Why don't they like newcomers?"

According to Gullahorn and Gullahorn (1963) and DuBois (1956), after a three to six month period, or the first stage, the students enter the second stage. In this second phase they become more involved in their new environment but encounter some problems in making the necessary adjustments. The Honeymoon phase is soon replaced according to Kimball (1980) by a more traumatic period of feelings of depression and perhaps decrement in output as one encounters difficulties and complexities. Typically, morale declines in this stage while hostility and resentment tend to develop and rise. This stage may continue for as long as 18 months (DuBois, 1956).

As the students actually become involved in role relationships and encounter frustrations in trying to achieve certain goals when the proper means are unclear or unacceptable, they become confused and depressed and express negative attitudes regarding the host culture. If they are able to resolve the difficulties encountered during this crucial phase of the acculturation process, they then achieve a *modus vivendi* enabling them to work effectively and to interact positively with their hosts (Gullahorn and Gullahorn, 1963).

For the immigrant student the second stage is characterized by feelings of pain, despair and disorganization. Homesickness sets in as persons experience their emotional losses. In many instances, individuals who previously had criticized their homeland tend now to idealize it. Defense mechanisms such as displacement, projection and reaction formation tend to be used frequently. Feelings of confusion, loneliness and a sense of isolation are common as they deeply feel the loss of familial and support network.

In the third stage, as postulated by DuBois, the foreign student develops strategies designed to deal with the state of affairs. Language skills improve, friends are made, and cultural adjustments take place. Finally, there is a sense of satisfaction and perhaps even of personal growth as they emerge from the plateau, restructure the problems, and begin to work effectively (DuBois, 1956, p. 35).

Essentially, the acculturation process may be interpreted as a cycle of adult socialization occurring under conditions where previous socialization offers varying degrees of facilitation and interference in the new learning context. As a consequence of previous socialization, sojourners learn value orientations which provide a framework for evaluating behavior in role interactions. The result is that when two members of a particular social system are interacting each can anticipate the other's responses with sufficient accuracy so that his behavior is likely to elicit the results he desires (Parson, 1951). Although certain aspects of the American culture

may not be taken favorably, the foreign student tends to remain reticent. (DuBois, 1956, p. 35)

The non-immigrant student, during this third phase also faces reality as expressed in the notion, "I guess we are here to stay." There is a resolution to reorganize one's life, start anew and build new relationships. It appears as if during this stage the immigrant ceases to grieve over his losses and begins to accept a new role in a new environment (Toomer, 1981).

The fourth stage is called the predepartive stage. At this time, the foreign student tends to withdraw from the American culture and develop anxieties about returning home. It is to be expected that the cross-cultural sojourner in the new environment generally behaves almost automatically in a manner compatible with his primary reference group in his home culture, because they do not bring with them the psychological support of familiar people, situations, and conditions. Novel cultural cues may not be perceived and actions may be inappropriate.

Although socialization begins with the family form, educational institutions have their effect. Consequently, an individual participating in another country's educational program must be familiar with that country's culture. This familiarity alone is not sufficient for academic success. The foreign student must also identify, comply with and

internalize a set of different values, attitudes and social behaviors. As adjustments are made by the foreign student, his own cultural concepts tend to erode. Yet Pool (1965) declared that "in many cases the most profound effect of the foreign students' stay in a strange land is a better appreciation and understanding of their home country" (p. 77). Tamar (1971) claims that "commitment to the home country's cultural values is the least vulnerable to erosion through prolonged sojourn" (p. 468).

The process through which foreign students adjust to their lives in the United States may be called minoritization (Gullahorn and Gullahorn, 1962, p. 131), and includes the social interactions which occur between the student and American society. The foreign students are socialized into American society by learning its mores, and they assume the behaviors which maximize their adjustment on their own terms. The literature on race relations and minority treatment in the United States suggests interesting parallels: Minorities are perceived as groups which are apart from the mainstream. Thus they are seen as politically, socially, and economically different than typical Americans. Therefore, the foreign students find a lack of consensus between their own and their hosts' expectations regarding appropriate role behavior. This cultural shock will vary according

to the character of the individual and the difference between his/her home culture and the American culture.

Depending upon certain personality variables the individual, in an attempt to adapt to the American society, may experience a form of what he referred to as "identity diffusion" where there is an inner experience of internal sense of evaluation. A second reaction is the "defensive narrowness" (DeVos, 1980). These intellectual processes are not developed as a means of coping with the external world; instead the individual creates psychological barriers against possible enriching experiences from the host culture. A third reaction consists of a more flexible maintenance of our identity by emphasizing thought over feeling. (Toomer, 1981)

Culture Shock

Culture shock is a function of the individual's response to a given situation (Kimball, 1980). According to Oberg (1960), Culture Shock is an occupational disease of people who have been suddenly transported abroad. He claims that it is precipitated by the anxiety that results from losing all their familiar signs and symbols of social intercourse. Oberg lists the kinds of thoughts and behavior manifested by those who are so afflicted

Some of the symptoms of culture shock are: excessive washing of the hands; excessive concern over drinking water, food, dishes, and bedding;

fear of physical contact with attendants or servants; the absent-minded, far-away stare (sometimes called the tropical stare); a feeling of helplessness and a desire for dependence on long-term residents of one's own nationality; fits of anger over delays and other minor frustrations; delay and outright refusal to learn the language of the host country; excessive fear of being cheated, robbed, or injured; great concern over minor pains and eruptions of the skin; and finally, the terrible longing to be back home, to be able to have a good cup of coffee and a piece of apple pie, to walk into that corner drugstore, to visit one's relatives, and in general, to talk to people who really make sense. (Oberg, 1960, p. 178)

Other aspects of culture shock were also listed by Oberg. He observed that the degree of stress varies from one individual to another. One may experience either a severe or a mild case of the "disease," as he labels it. He added that there are some people who cannot live in an alien culture. In addition he noted some regularity in the sequence of stages through which an individual passes. These are the euphoric delight of an initial honeymoon period followed by a state of aggressive hostility toward all aspects of the host country. In extreme cases the individual may suffer a nervous breakdown which is caused by structural imbalance (Heider, 1958). When the individual can move about easily and comfortably in the new environment, then adjustment has been realized. Oberg (1960) advises that the cure is hastened if one gets to know the new culture and the people.

According to Kimball (1980), there are usually two avenues opened for those in a state of culture shock to

restore their equilibrium. They can retreat to the situations where the correspondence between the outside and the inside is familiar, and hence normal, or they can learn new criteria by which one identifies and responds to the outside.

Traditionally, culture shock has been looked on as a form of anxiety. This anxiety leads to misperceptions of common signs and symbols of social interaction. Individuals may react to culture shock along a continuum ranging from mild irritability to panic. Those who are experiencing culture shock may demonstrate their discomfort by feeling helpless, annoyed, cheated, or disregarded.

Confronting the realities of living in a new country always arouses feelings of sadness and disorientation. Namias (1978) and Sowell (1978) suggest that dislocation places individuals in the midst of a crisis, and the reactions expressed are described as similar to that of "grief." Fried (1977) described the process of dislocation evolving into feelings of pain, loss, a sense of helplessness, direct and displaced anger, and idealization of the lost place.

Although it is a negative concept, culture shock may also be looked upon in a positive sense because men and women who go through the experience become more mature psychologically. Adler (1975) feels that the frustration

met in the culture shock experience and the individual's responses are important in understanding personality changes. These changes can lead to higher levels of personality development. Or, transitional experiences of this type contain the potential for personality growth. Adler stated 4 assumptions before he prepared a model designed to depict these transitional experiences.

First, the individual is forced into a situation characterized by tension. In order to resolve this tension, the individual must redefine his psychological position. Second, each person defines his world through culturally influenced notions. Third, most individuals are not aware of their own beliefs and values, and transitional experiences tend to illuminate them. Fourth, psychological adjustments tend to bring out novel personality forms, forms which allow the individual to identify and cope with the adjustments in his environment.

The Culture Shock story is told of an American lecturer who encountered an unexpected difference in role behavior in a foreign institution and found that he had to change his usual practice of arriving early for class meetings.

I started out early one day and my assistant . . . grabbed me by the arm and said, "You mustn't go early." I didn't understand this and told him that I often did because I liked to write things on the blackboard and liked to chat with students.

He said, "But don't you see what happens?" I told him no I couldn't see that anything was happening. He said, "Well, if you come early, not a student may come into the classroom after you have entered." It occurred to me that this was true. After I came in, not a single student did. They considered themselves late if they arrived after the professor, and so they would not enter, because to arrive late would be a mark of disrespect. Consequently, thereafter the professor never went to class until fifteen minutes after the hour. (Gullahorn and Gullahorn, 1963, p. 243)

Aside from variations in classroom behavior in different universities' social systems, there is considerable variance in the degree of social distance characteristic of faculty-student relations in different cultures. In commenting on his overseas experience, for example, one American professor noted

Another thing I did that proved extremely disturbing to the faculty was to invite the students to my home . . . All in all, I think the faculty . . . considered that the Americans have still remained rebels, and that the revolution is aimed at the educational institutions (Gullahorn and Gullahorn, 1962)

Conversely, foreign students at American institutions are at first confused and disturbed by what they perceive to be the lack of deference their American peers exhibit toward their professor.

Closely related to the issue of differing patterns of faculty-student relations is the general area of cultural divergences in definitions regarding the rights and obligations involved in friendship relationships (Lewin, 1948). There is considerable variance across cultures in

the length of acquaintance preceding the establishment of first-name relationships as well as in the introduction of a stranger into one's home; furthermore, there are differences in the degree of intimacy of friendship implied by such behavior. In the United States, foreign sojourners often initially feel overwhelmed by the apparent openness and "friendliness" of their hosts; however, when they find that an invitation to an American's home does not necessarily indicate strong affective sentiments, they tend to characterize American friendship relationships as "superficial."

Aside from cultural differences in role expectations, a more covert source of potential misunderstanding among those involved in cross-cultural contact situations arises from the subtle expectations developed in the very process of learning a particular language. In the Japanese language, for example, the honorifics, syntax, and choice of lexical items are clustered for use depending upon the relative prestige of the interaction partners; consequently the language presents built-in status cues for its users. Such cues are absent in the relatively egalitarian structure of the English language, a factor contributing to what Bennett and Associates (1958) characterize as "status-cue confusing" among Japanese sojourners in the United States. Thus the verbal cues occurring during a conversation with

an American professor may lead a Japanese student to feel he/she is receiving what he/she perceives as peer treatment from someone he/she considers a superior status person. In the new cultural context, therefore, the Japanese sojourner can no longer depend largely upon language as an index of status but must learn to discriminate cues from other behaviors of his hosts.

Even in the area of non-verbal communication, opportunities for misinterpretation are legion. There are marked differences across cultures concerning such simple behavior as the spatial placement of partners. In normal social interaction, partners are close to the physical proximity that evokes either sexual or hostile feelings in the North American (Hall, 1959).

With so many potential sources of confusion and frustration for the sojourner attempting to adjust to an alien social system, it is not surprising that this phase of adjustment is sometimes termed "cultural shock" to designate the psychological impact of the distortion or absence of familiar cues. Of course, individual personality differences account for some of the variance in the severity and duration of this anomic period. In addition, however, data from the Social Science Research Council (SSRC) studies of foreign students in the United

States suggest that there are cultural patternings in the defense mechanisms exhibited at this time. For example, Indian and Pakistani students tend to display hypersensitive hostility in responding to the ego threat inherent in their perception of a derogatory American image of their homelands (Lambert and Bressler, 1955). Following Ichheiser's terminology, Coelho (1958) characterizes this reaction as the "motebean" mechanism of projection wherein the Indian student who is asked, for example, about the caste situation responds by attacking the American handling of Negroes. According to Bennett and Associates (1958), Japanese students, on the other hand, respond to situations of threat to their national esteem by withdrawing, a reaction apparently consonant with their cultural norm of "emryo," or reserve.

In addition, we may note that the problems encountered by the cross-cultural sojourner are those of marked cognitive reorientation involving changes in feelings as well as overt behavior. For many years industry has been experimenting with such a restraining of relatively normal persons in stressful situations. Various labels are applied to this endeavor, such as sensitivity training or human relations in industry.

Foreign students who are studying in the United States are considered to be high risks (Walter, 1978). These

students are under a great deal of tension, and counseling services designed for them have not been effective. Additionally, American counselors have not been trained to deal with individuals whose cultural values differ from their own. Consequently, counseling services for foreign students must be improved if their needs are going to be met.

When a foreign student needs help, he/she will turn to other foreign students rather than trained counselors. This strategy limits the foreign student's adaptation to his/her host culture and, in turn, his independence. Walter added that though cross-cultural counseling may be a difficult process, it is not impossible. This type of counseling will be effective if counselors will consider all the characteristics of the foreign student including his/her cultural background. While other counseling skills are necessary, formal training is necessary to acquire them.

Senner (1978) studied the problems experienced by foreign students, assessed their intensity and attempted to link this intensity to 7 demographic variables. The investigator selected 166 foreign students who were enrolled at a single university and asked them to complete a questionnaire titled "Concerns of International Students." This instrument was constructed with statements taken from the literature at large. A Likert-type scale was used to rank the responses in line with the respondent's intensity.

Senner found differences in the concerns of students at the graduate and undergraduate levels with regard to curriculum and instruction. Senner also found relationships for age and "personal and psychological relations," grade-point average and "adjustment to college work," and the number of years a student spent studying English and "the future: vocational and educational."

Foreign students perceived their education in the United States as a period in which they could improve their minds and travel through the country. Working on a part-time basis during the school year or during vacations was looked on as a way of showing financial concern. The students did not appear to be too disturbed about activities which disrupted their long-term goals momentarily. Some students did exhibit needs for cultural accommodations, communication, and coping ability.

Senner concluded his study by stating that future research activities should be directed toward examining the differences between foreign and American students in the problems they encounter during their academic careers. Differences in the perceptions of graduate and undergraduate students toward curriculum and instruction would also be a fruitful area of research activity.

Carey and Maram (1980) reviewed the literature on international education and reported that little information

has appeared on the dynamics of the socialization and acculturation processes. The influence of the foreign student on the host country has also been ignored. Therefore, Carey and Maram investigated these issues and proposed a theory which could be used to study the adjustment of foreign students in the United States.

According to Carey and Maram, foreign students tend to form cliques and avoid the mainstream of American life. These students form cliques because they lack language command, are unable to define reference groups, tend to be disoriented and have financial problems. Carey and Maram considered these points and proposed a socialization model based on studies of minority groups in the United States.

Although socialization begins with the family form, educational institutions have their effect. Consequently, an individual participating in another country's educational program must be familiar with that country's culture. Alone, this familiarity is not sufficient for academic success. The foreign student must also identify, comply with, and internalize a set of different values, attitudes, and social behaviors.

While the number of foreign students enrolled in American colleges and universities may exceed one million by 1990, they tend to major in a limited number of areas

(Bradshaw and McKinnon, 1980). Engineering, business, science, and mathematics attract roughly two-thirds of the foreign students in the United States. The foreign students who remained in the United States after graduation had no problems with job placements, but those who decided to return home posed a challenge to school placement officials. Most foreign students will probably choose to return home in the future because of improving economic conditions and the placement problems must therefore be recognized and attended to by responsible officials.

Bradshaw and McKinnon found that faculty members held two incorrect assumptions about foreign students. First, many faculty members were not aware that a problem existed. They assumed that opportunities were available in the United States and that students would prefer to remain rather than return to a less developed country. The assumption was that foreign students came from wealthy families and had no placement problems. To learn how to put training into action may be of even greater urgency; the application of newly acquired skills in an old environment can sometimes present more problems than the actual learning process (Kline, 1953).

Applicability of United States
Education to the Third World Countries

The geometric burgeoning of the number of foreign students studying in the United States' institutions of higher education has created certain unresolved academic and administrative dilemmas for their host institutions. These dilemmas, in part, are the result of an effort to answer the philosophical question posed constantly: "toward what end are the American institutions of higher education, educating the foreign students?"

Perhaps it can also be fairly asked, why American educators should be overly concerned with the education of foreigners seeing that they represent only 1.5 percent of the total enrollment in institutions of higher education. Moreover, one could assume that if the international students chose to study here it is because they have decided that the American curricular offerings satisfy their education and training needs (Higbee, 1962). Based on these assumptions, one could argue that the American institution of higher education is not obligated to change its program to meet the international students' need. But if any university should take that line of action, then it is morally and ethically wrong in admitting these students (Blankenship, 1980). According to Parrish (1977), in accepting foreign students, a United States institution should constantly be aware of its responsibilities to the students and provide

the education programs that these students will be able to utilize on returning to their countries (Blankenship, 1980).

A number of recent surveys give a disturbing picture of the difficulty experienced by foreign specialists and professional people trained in the United States in adapting their training to the needs of their own peoples. Professional divisions, schools, and colleges should develop programs designed specifically to help foreign students to acquire skills which will be relevant when they attack poverty, hunger, disease, and ignorance at home (Caldwell, 1969).

Kerr (1975) states that

"an educational institution which accepts foreign students must assume certain continuing obligations to them. Students from other cultures present special needs related to their own cultures. Educational institutions, therefore, must be mindful of their capabilities and make suitable provision to meet them." (p.1)

Fuller (1978) has depicted a future scenario of the U.S. as the higher education factory of the world which he refers to as the "educationalization of America" (p. 40). The basic premise is that American higher education can be compared to other American exports. As America becomes more dependent on imported natural resources, higher education can become a major export in the balance of international trade (Blankenship, 1980).

Although Fuller's "educationalization of America" is possible, there are other obstacles that have to be overcome by educational planners before it can be considered probable. Martorana (1978) categorized these obstacles or constraints into the following taxonomy: (a) educational and philosophical, (b) fiscal, (c) political, and (d) logistical.

These constraints or obstacles are not insurmountable in light of the growing need to improve American foreign policy. If international students return to their countries to assume a leadership role, it is conceivable that the spillover effect will provide improved communications between respective countries. It can be contended that these obstacles or constraints can be overcome considering the importance of international education to American foreign policy.

There are American universities which send their professors on exchange programs and on AID missions to many nations. Yet these institutions, with thousands of foreign students from all over the world, may remain virtually unchanged in the basic academic orientation.

The following assumptions are basic to a rationale for including international education as part of the program of higher education:

- (1) Unless national public policy is changed to restrict the entry of international students, the number of international students entering the universities will continue to increase;
- (2) The American system of higher education will remain competitive (in terms of direct/indirect educational costs, quality of programs/services), with other countries' educational systems;
- (3) The obstacles or constraints to implementing programs for international students are resolvable;
- (4) The disparity between industrialized countries and third-world countries could accelerate if human resources are not shared.

Through her different agencies and foundation's scholarship program, America has given numerous opportunities to international students to study here in the U.S. However, not only have U.S. institutions of higher education been indifferent to the adjustment problems of foreign students, but they have also given little attention to such problems of foreign students as the relevancy of American educational programs for the developing world.

Today, many developing countries are themselves questioning the suitability of western technology, education, and culture for their countries (Lee et al., 1981) since degree requirements are narrowly prescribed and foreign students have little opportunity to mold their programs to fit their own needs. Theoretically, North American

professors who advise and teach foreign students might help students to relate their course work to the needs and realities of their particular countries. This would give students the information needed to return to their country and to be able to perform with confidence as a professional on their return. This sort of help is what the "Third World" needs: students educated to translate the educational technology they have received in the United States to their countries' realities so as to be able to help in the process of social change and economic development.

According to Brislin and Van Buren (1974) Benjamin Franklin (1784) once related an experience he had with people from one culture to another

At the Treaty of Lancaster, in Pennsylvania, anno 1744, between the Government of Virginia and the 6 Nations, the commissioners from Virginia acquainted the Indians by speech, that there was at Williamsburg College a fund for educating Indian youths . . . and if the chiefs of the 6 Nations would send down half a dozen of their sons to that college, the government would take care that they be well provided for, and instructed in all the learning of the white people.

The Indian's spokesman replied

We are convinced . . . that you mean to do us good by your proposal and we thank you heartily. But you, who are wise, must know that different nations have different conceptions of things; and you will not therefore take it amiss, if our ideas of this kind of education happen not to be the same as yours. We have had some experience of it; several of our young people were formerly brought up at the college

of northern provinces; they were instructed in all your sciences; but, when they came back to us, they were bad runners, ignorant of every means of living in the woods, unable to bear either cold or hunger, knew neither how to build a cabin, take a deer, nor kill an enemy, spoke our language imperfectly, were therefore neither fit for hunters, warriors, nor counselors; they were totally good for nothing.

We are however not the less obligated by your kind offer, though we decline accepting it; and, to show our grateful sense of it, if the gentlemen of Virginia will send us a dozen of their sons, we will take care of their education, instruct them in all we know, and make men of them. (p. 10)

International education and foreign affairs involve the university in benefolent over-seas and on-campus activities, but the academic structure may remain without genuine awareness of the breadth and depth of the changes in the human condition, and in the body of learning (Caldwell, 1969).

American universities have the opportunity and the obligation, according to Caldwell, to work with the developing nations in technical assistance programs. This, he claims has generally involved the application of American solutions to the problems of the developing countries. It is becoming increasingly apparent that American solutions are not necessarily valid outside the United States according to the literature. If the university is to serve effectively as a partner to universities and governments in other lands, then American technology must be modified to make it relevant to the needs of societies quite different from the United States (Caldwell, 1969).

Reentry Problems that Students Can
Anticipate Encountering on
Their Return to Their Native Lands

When a person lives in a culture other than his own for a significant length of time, his attitudes and outlook change (Bochner, 1973; Useem and Useem, 1955; Cleveland et al., 1968). Many aspects of his home country will also have changed, for instance, the attitudes of his friends and family and the physical elements of the environment that he/she remembers.

Perhaps the university can play a very important role in helping students to become aware of the reentry problem that they will face so that they will not be traumatized on reaching their country and abandon the ship prematurely. To look homeward with a sense of security and confidence in family, community, and national relationships is surely just as important to the foreign student as his/her social and academic adjustment while away from his/her homeland.

Orr (1971) reviewed the research on foreign students who studied in American colleges and universities and tried to identify patterns and factors in their experiences on their return to their home countries. Orr emphasized four points in his study: (1) personal changes which occurred as a result of the student's American experience, (2) use of the skills learned in America, (3) readjustments made

on returning home, and (4) the student's effectiveness as a cultural change agent.

Most of the research Orr examined was funded by the federal government. Married males from urban areas who were sponsored by a foreign government served as the focus for a majority of the studies. Most foreign students reported that they were changed by their educational experiences in America. Specifically, they described themselves as more flexible, more insightful, and more sensitive to others' concerns. These students said that they gained self-confidence, self-discipline, social responsibility, and better work habits. Additionally, the foreign students were more socially and politically discriminating and developed understandings as to the unity of mankind and political realities. The time a foreign student spent in the United States seemed to be a strong factor here because the younger men and women who spent more time in America appeared to show the most change.

When they returned home, many students reported that they had adjustment problems. The returnees had to control the mannerisms they learned in America and limited their criticisms of their home countries. Most of the problems encountered by the students were described as slight. Stronger problems were experienced by younger students, more alienated men and women, those who were from countries

which were at odds with the United States, students from rigid societies, and those who felt that they had no influence in their home cultures.

Most of the returnees were able to use the knowledge they acquired but the extent of this use was dependent on the returnee's field of interest. Surprisingly, most of the returnees reported that their American experience had no major influence on their careers. Orr concluded his study by stating that stronger predeparture programs for returning foreign students should be planned. Closer governmental ties should be developed and further research on foreign alumni ought to be conducted in order to determine the effectiveness of these programs.

According to Jones (1972), little research has been conducted as to how foreign students use the feel toward the education they received in the United States. With these points in mind, Jones prepared a questionnaire to collect information from foreign-born graduates of American universities who returned to their home countries. Jones was interested in their vocations, attitudes towards others, personal lives, contributions to their countries, use of English, and perceptions of their American education. The foreign students' advisors were also questioned on the final point. Various comparisons were made in the analytical component of the study.

A number of significant findings emerged in the analyses. Generally, the foreign students were satisfied with their American education. They rose to responsible positions, enjoyed high salaries, and contributed in a number of ways to their countries' welfare. Moreover, the value of their American education was not limited to their academic experiences as comments were made on their stay in America as well. Jones reported that the perceptions of the students' advisors were not in total agreement with the students' perceptions. The differences, however, were not strong.

United States government assistance programs, such as those funded by the United States Agencies for International Development (USAID), have brought more than 180,000 students and scholars from developing countries to be trained in the areas of agriculture, health, and nutrition to the United States (McLaughlin, 1978). Currently, there are some 7,000 participants sponsored by USAID receiving academic or technical training in the United States and approximately 3,000 are new arrivals (Lee et al., 1981).

When these participants come to the United States, they bring with them a desire for education to provide them with the professional, social, and personal skills required for a meaningful role in their society. While

pursuing this goal they must also become involved in the daily life of the United States, their host country. It is at this point that they are exposed to new and different societal values, roles, rights, and responsibilities. In short, they are suddenly in an alien culture which requires a significant adaptation.

The international students are required to compare these new and different cultural factors with those of their own culture and decide how best to cope with them. Depending upon the individual, the length of his sojourn, and the cultural differences and similarities, the level of adaptation will be determined. While there is not sufficient research on the adaptation of the Caribbean student to make any generalizations, research on foreign students in the United States indicates that many students either do not adapt or return home without having attained their educational goals. If, on the other hand, they are able to complete their academic programs, they still do not enter into meaningful participation in American culture. Research on the problems of foreign students indicates that some nationalities experience greater and different adaptation difficulties than others.

An interesting and important fact that has emerged from research in recent years is that a person who is most successful at adjusting to a new culture is often the worst

at readjusting to his old culture (Bochner, 1973). According to Brislin and Van Buren (1974), the explanation is that a person who adjusts readily is one who can accept new ideas, meet and talk intelligently with people from many countries, and be happy with the stimulation that he finds everyday. This same person may readjust poorly when he goes home since his new ideas conflict with tradition. He may not find any internationally minded person with whom to interact, and so find that he is no longer stimulated in the country he already knows so well. Training to prepare people for such reverse culture shock problems is uncommon, but the need to look at the reentry problems according to the research is extremely necessary.

The literature and research cited in this chapter have supported the need for additional research in international students' adaptation, acculturation and reentry problems.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to explore the experiences and impressions of Jamaicans who are undergraduate students at the University of Florida. This chapter will provide information on the subjects, the design, and the procedures followed for the main study and the pilot study which includes (1) theoretical foundation of the questionnaire, (2) development of the questionnaire aimed at obtaining pertinent information concerning the Jamaican students' experiences and impressions at the University of Florida, (3) establishment of the content validity of that questionnaire, (4) obtaining a stratified random sample from the Jamaican student population for the informal interview, and (5) field study and data collection.

Subjects

The subjects in this study were the Jamaican students who met with the criteria set by the researcher. These criteria were (1) subjects could not be graduate

students, (2) subjects could not hold dual citizenship, (3) subjects could not be married to a U.S. citizen and (4) subjects could not be classified as seniors at the University of Florida.

A student coming from Jamaica to the University of Florida may fall into three categories: (1) students that have their high school diploma, (2) students that have taken the O Level examination, and (3) students that have taken the A Level examination. According to the impression of the interviewees, 95 percent felt that the student who came with A Levels were coping academically better than the others. Five percent of the students felt that there was no difference between the O Level and A Level students in their academic achievement, but that there was an obvious difference with those that came and finished high school in the United States in relation to their academic achievement.

Based on the students choice of subjects and careers they are pursuing at the University of Florida, it seems as if they have continued the Jamaican elitist trend of choosing the sciences over liberal arts, even though they might not be coping in those areas.

Of the 80 students enrolled for the academic year 1981-1982, 47 or 58.75 percent were enrolled in the

sciences. Five (5) or 6.25 percent were enrolled in architecture and business management, 2 or 2.5 percent in foreign language, 5 or 6.25 percent in education, and 4 or 5 percent in psychology. This is illustrated in Figure 6.

Content Validity and Reliability of the Instrument

"One way of conceptualizing content validity is to consider it an estimate of the representativeness of the content of the instrument as a sample of all possible content" (Fox, 1969, p. 370). In this study, therefore, content validity was established through independent judgments obtained from the three experts on the panel.

Pilot Study

The names of the Jamaican student population at the University of Florida during the academic year 1981-1982 were obtained from the International Student Center and from the Caribbean Student Association Organization at the University of Florida.

The pilot study was conducted to determine: (1) the appropriateness of the questionnaire in securing the data, (2) to insure clarity of instruction of items on the questionnaire, (3) to set a time frame for completion of the questionnaire, and (4) to determine potential response rate.

Distribution of Students by Different Subject Areas

Figure 6. Distribution of Students by
Different Subject Areas.

The questionnaires and a self-addressed stamped envelope to facilitate return of the questionnaires were personally delivered to each of the 20 Jamaican students who were randomly selected from the pilot study from a population of 86.

Each questionnaire was pre-coded to facilitate the follow-up with the non-respondents who were instructed to respond within ten days. The respondents were asked to answer the questionnaire and to indicate the length of time it required for its completion. Participants were further asked to indicate the items they considered unclear. Finally, they were asked to comment on areas which they felt needed to be pursued in the interview.

Participants were also asked to indicate any changes or additions they deemed necessary to improve the format and or general comprehensiveness of the items.

A total of 20 pilot questionnaires were distributed. twenty students completed and returned the questionnaires making it a 100 percent returned, but only 18 were thoroughly completed making the rate of usage return 90 percent for the pilot study.

From the responses received with reference to the time needed to complete the questionnaire, there was a 98 percent agreement that it required one hour. The time, therefore, was set for one hour for the completion of the questionnaire for the principal study.

Furthermore, 75 percent of the subjects in the pilot study suggested that item numbers 31, 32, 38, 39, 40, and 41 should be verbally discussed. This suggestion was taken into consideration, and followed through in the taped interviews.

Design

The questionnaire was administered to the entire Jamaican student population enrolled at the University of Florida during the academic year 1981-1982, who met with the criteria set by the researcher. Of the 150 students, 86 met with the criteria to be eligible to participate in the study. Of the 86 students who participated 80 completed the questionnaires to the satisfaction of the researcher. Of these N=80 subjects, a stratified random sample of 25 students were further selected to be interviewed.

Development of the Questionnaire

The instrument that was used was one developed by the researcher. The questionnaire (Appendix, p. 150) was constructed on the sequential topic basis. The first sequence solicited background data. The second sequence solicited answers on their pre-university

orientation. The third sequence solicited answers on their cultural adaptation, experiences and impressions of the United States and fourth, solicited reentry considerations to their home.

Theoretical Foundation

The theoretical foundation on which the questionnaire was constructed is based on "A Model of Man in Change" in The Peasant Venture by Paul Magnarella (1979). This model helps one to understand the problems encountered by foreign students and alerts the reader to the problems the students are likely to face on their return to their homeland. According to Magnarella "the basic model's components were derived from a number of different social and behavior science paradigms was found to be partially congruent, complementary, and/or mutually supporting" (p. 128). Magnarella attributes some of the components of his model to the theories of Charles Eramus, and to the humanistic psychology of Alfred Adlers' learning theory, modeling theory, and reference group theories, among others.

According to Lee et al. (1981), a common understanding of human beings is that they have various needs and that they tend to behave in a certain manner in order to satisfy those needs. There are two categories into which

needs can be classified: physiological needs and social-psychological needs. Physiological needs are basic to human beings and there seems to be a consensus as to the nature of these needs within the literature (e.g. Seidenberg and Snadowski, 1976; Berkowitz, 1969; Maslow, 1943; Lee et al., 1981; and Magnarella, 1979). Social-psychological needs are those which an individual has by virtue of the fact that he or she resides in a social environment and lives in relation to other human beings (Lee et al., 1981). Those needs, therefore, are principally the result of social learning (Lindgren, 1973; Magnarella, 1979) which reflects one's past experience as a member of a society and one's present social milieu. With regard to social-psychological needs there seems to be less consensus found in the literature.

While physiological needs can be modified, in their intensity by social learning, social-psychological needs are even more responsible to such modification (Lindgren, 1973). In order to identify specific needs of the subjects one ought to examine aspects of their cultural background and social system in which they functioned as members (Parsons and Shils, 1965; Magnarella, 1979). Maslow (1943) ranked basic human needs (e.g. hunger, thirst), safety needs (e.g. affection, identification), esteem needs (e.g. prestige, success self-respect) and need for self-actualization (i.e. desire for self-fulfillment).

The literature search presented the following needs of foreign students as identified or implied by previous studies: (1) academic needs, (2) linguistic needs, (3) cultural related needs, (4) interpersonal needs, (5) daily-living material needs, (6) post return needs, (7) and reentry needs. The social system in which the foreign students were situated was analyzed with the focal point on the students. Merton's (1957) concepts of "status-set" and "role-set" were used to identify the components of the social system of concern to the researcher at the University of Florida. The "status-set" is the complexity of status (i.e. positions) a person occupies by virtue of being a member of a social system, and the "role-set" is a set of roles a person is to play when occupying a position (Lee et al., 1981).

Upon this general theoretical perspective the general needs of the students were set. In this section we will discuss how we arrived at the need items used in the questionnaire. It was felt that it would not have been a feasible approach to ask open-ended questions to assess the needs of the student, but to formulate "need items" to which the respondents could react. The objective in formulating need items were: (1) to touch on the cogent needs of the Jamaican students and (2) to include among

others, the area of needs that would be relevant to the needs of the government of Jamaica and to the University of Florida.

The items on the questionnaire were developed from several sources. The study of international students by (Lee et al., 1981) provided an overview of the various areas that needed investigating. Other publications providing information on international education included the published reports and recommendations of the Wingspread conferences on foreign students (Diener and Kerr, 1979) and internationalizing the curriculum (Yarrington, 1978). Two hundred and sixty items were developed and grouped under appropriate headings. Through a process of elimination items that were repetitious, redundant, or obscure in meaning based on the researcher's judgment, were excluded.

Through this process, the number of items were reduced from 260 to 156. Contact was then made with one bilingual bicultural expert and two anthropology experts in their field. Each expert was individually visited or spoken to over the phone to procure his/her participation on an evaluation panel. The purpose of this panel was to provide feedback and to evaluate the items on the researcher's questionnaire.

An initial list of 156 items were given to each panel member with instruction for judging each item and item

categorization (see Appendix 1 for questionnaire).

The panel was instructed to consider each item according to the following criteria: (1) simplicity of language, (2) clarity, (3) ambiguity and (4) relevancy of items to the purpose of the study.

After analyzing the experts' reactions, the instrument was further refined as suggestions and recommendations were accommodated. The decision-rule for retaining an item required that two of the three members validated the relevancy of the items. The final questionnaire, therefore, contained 156 items, each having received 100 percent agreement for relevancy as well as 100 percent agreement of the categorization of items from the panel after the minor changes were accomplished.

Responses were recorded through the use of a Likert type scale with the following ranges: a. (1) very much, (2) much, (3) very little, (4) not at all; b. (1) not important to very important (4); c. (1) not at all to very much (4).

Of the 80 students whose completed questionnaires were accepted for this study, 70 or 87.5 percent considered Jamaica their home, and ten had mixed feelings. Those with mixed feelings clarified their statement by informing the researcher that "home is where one is living at a

given point in time." Nevertheless, as the interview progressed they clearly stated that they had intention of returning "home to Jamaica in the not far distant future."

The mean age of the students in the study was 21.8; the mean grade point average of subjects was 2.6; the mean length of stay in the country was 3.5; the mean length of stay at the University of Florida was 1.6; and the mean anticipated reentry problems was 2.6 (see Table 4).

TABLE 4

Biographical Data

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation
USTAY	3.5	1.8
CSTAY	1.6	.6
GPA	2.6	.6
REENTP	2.6	1.2
AGE	21.8	3.5

Of these 80 students, 38 were male and 42 were female, 79 were single and one was married. The students'

University classification was as follows: 51 or 63.75 percent freshmen, to 22 or 27.8 percent juniors, and to 7 or 8.25 percent sophomores. No seniors or graduate students were accepted for the study.

The primary source of funding for these students is illustrated in the following Figure 7. This figure shows that 83.75 percent of the students' finance came from their parents, personal savings or from their home country's government.

Collection of the Data

The collection of data was conducted in five stages: (1) a list containing the names and addresses of the 86 Jamaican undergraduate students was obtained from the International Student Center and from the Caribbean Student Association at the University of Florida, (2) a telephone call was made to each student soliciting their aid in the study and advising them that a questionnaire would be sent to them if they consented to participate, (3) a cover letter and questionnaire was hand delivered to those students at the University of Florida who agreed to participate in the study. The cover letter attached to the questionnaire explained the intent of the study and requested each participant to complete and return the questionnaire in 10 days (see Appendix, p. 147),

Percentage Distribution of
Jamaican Students' Primary Source of Funds
1981-1982 at the University of Florida

Figure 7. Percentage Distribution of Jamaican Students' Primary Source of Funds.

(4) at the end of the ten day period a follow-up telephone call was made to those participants who had not responded. Participants were again informed to return the questionnaire within ten days. No additional follow-ups were necessary as there was a 100 percent return. Of the 36 questionnaires received for a 100 percent response rate, only 80 were usable for analysis; rendering a usable response rate of 93 percent. (5) A stratified random sample of 25 students were then selected from the population that met with the criteria set by the researcher. Each of the selected students were then telephoned to set an appointment time for the interview.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Presentation and Interpretation of Data

The main purposes of this study were six-fold. The first was to explore the experiences and impressions of Jamaicans who are undergraduate students at the University of Florida in order to evaluate the extent to which their stay has been educationally rewarding and the degree to which they perceived the course of studies they were pursuing as being relevant to the needs of the developing nation of Jamaica. The second was to identify problems confronted by Jamaican students who have matriculated at the University of Florida. The third was to determine the extent to which these students' programs of studies in Jamaica prepared them to pursue their educational goals at the University of Florida. The fourth was to explore the ways in which Jamaican students have modified their culture in order to get along socially in the United States. The fifth was to identify the problems of adjustment that students expect to experience when they return to Jamaica. The final and sixth purpose was to suggest procedures that

might be employed at the University of Florida in order to assist students in transferring the knowledge gained in the United States to Jamaica.

In this chapter, the analysis and findings of the study and the result of the significance testing of the hypotheses which provided specific direction for the investigator will be presented.

The two data collection instruments used in the study were a questionnaire and an interview guide which were developed by the researcher (see Appendix). A pilot study was conducted and the data obtained was used to determine necessary revisions, additions and deletions of the items developed by the researcher. Reliability was established for each scale with the aid of the pilot study.

One variable considered was age, which was examined at two levels - younger student represented the age group 17-24 and older students the age group 25-38. Length of stay in the United States, was another variable under consideration; and three levels of education obtained in Jamaica were the other variables being examined. The levels of education ranged from those students who did not take the O Level examination to those who took the O Level examination and to those who went beyond the O Levels and took the A Levels. Other variables that were examined were adaptation, and anticipated reentry problems.

These variables were measured by using a four scale Likert type measurement which ranged from "did not adapt" to "greatly adapted", and from "anticipates no problems" to "anticipates a great deal of problems."

In addition, through the interviews, the researcher was able to delve deeper into areas that could not be accurately measured on a questionnaire. The areas investigated were cultural changes, experiences and impressions of the Jamaican students at the University of Florida. The interviews, therefore, provided the data that were used for the qualitative analyses of these questions.

The hypotheses and questions that the study proposed to test are as follows:

1. There is no statistically significant difference between the students' level of orientation (orientation or no orientation) and their achievement as measured by their grade point average.
2. There is no statistically significant difference between the students' level of orientation and their adaptation to the United States.
3. There is no statistically significant difference between the students' level of education (0 Levels, A Levels and below 0 Levels) on arriving in the United States and their academic achievement as measured by their grade point average after one year at the University of Florida.
4. There is no statistically significant difference between the type of visa (J, F, R) held by the student and their adaptation to the United States.
5. There is no statistically significant difference between the type of visa held by the student and their academic achievement.

6. There is no statistically significant interaction between the students' age, their length of stay in the United States, and their adaptation.
7. There is no statistically significant relationship between the adaptation of the students and their length of stay in the United States.
8. There is no statistically significant relationship between the adaptation of older students (ages 25-38) and younger students (ages 17-24) at the University of Florida.
9. There is no statistically significant relationship between the students' grade point average and their anticipated reentry problems.
10. There is no statistically significant relationship between the level of adaptation to problems in the United States and the set of independent variables "X" ("X" representing age, length of sojourn in the U.S.A. and type of visa: J, F, R).
11. There is no statistically significant relationship between the degree of problems encountered in the United States and the set of independent variables "X".
12. There is no statistically significant relationship between the degree of problems expected when the student reenters his/her country and the set of independent variables "X".
13. There is no statistically significant relationship between the students' GPA and the set of independent variables "X".

The questions for which the researcher sought answers, and which were descriptively presented are the following:

1. How do the Jamaican students feel about their Jamaican identity?
2. What are some of the experiences the students from Jamaica have had at the University of Florida?

3. What are some of the impressions the students from Jamaica have of their course of study, its relevance to their future, and to the needs of Jamaica?
4. To what degree has the value structure and modus operandi of the students from Jamaica changed to fit into the U.S. culture?
5. What are some of the problems the Jamaican students anticipate facing on their return home?

Hypothesis 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6, which read to the effect that there would be no significant difference between the dependent and the independent variables, was analyzed using an analysis of variance (ANOVA) at a .05 alpha level of confidence. The findings for each one of these six hypotheses were as follows:

Hypothesis 1 which stated that:

There is no statistically significant difference between the students' level of orientation (orientation or no orientation) and their academic achievement as is measured by their grade point average

was analyzed using an analysis of variance (ANOVA). This hypothesis was rejected at the .05 alpha level of confidence, illustrating that the orientation program did make a difference in the students' academic achievement. The students who did not attend the orientation program had a significantly smaller mean of 2.49 and a standard deviation of .566 as is reported in Table (5).

Results of the statistical analysis for Hypothesis 1.

TABLE 5

GPA by Orientation

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation
Dependent GPA		
Independent Orientation	2.78	6.26
No Orientation	2.49	.566

F = 4.53

Pr. F = .0365

Hypothesis 2 which stated that:

There is no statistically significant difference
between the students' level of orientation and
their adaptation to the United States

was analyzed using an analysis of variance (ANOVA) statistical technique. The results show that the null hypothesis was not rejected at the .05 alpha level of confidence (see Table (6)).

TABLE 6

Adaptation by Orientation

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation
No Orientation		
Adaptation	2.500	1.055
Orientation		
Adaptation	2.931	.420

F = 2.29

Pr. F = 0.1343

Interpretation

According to the result of the analysis, adaptation to the United State's culture is not affected by the students attending or not attending the orientation program. This result leads one to conclude that the orientation program is not geared toward helping the students with their adjustment problems. Bearing the results of hypothesis one, the information that the students obtained during the orientation program does seem to hel them, to fit in academically and to achieve, as is reflected in their GPA mean which was 2.78.

Hypothesis 3 which stated:

There is no statistically significant difference between the students' level of education (0 Levels, A Levels, below 0 Levels) on arriving in the United States and their grade point average after one year at the University of Florida

was analyzed using an analysis of variance (ANOVA) statistical technique and was followed up by the use of a Bonfferroni analysis to determine which of the three educational levels was significant. The null hypothesis was rejected at a .05 alpha level of confidence as the education obtained in Jamaica seemed to have made a difference statistically in the students' academic achievement at the University of Florida.

Three levels of education were measured to determine the students' academic achievement. These levels were: Level 1, which referred to those students who came before taking the 0 Level examination. Level 2, referred to those who had taken the 0 Level examination, and level 3, to those who took the A Level examination.

According to the statistical results, those students who took the A Level examination before coming to the University of Florida, had a significantly higher GPA (3.095) than level 1 2.371 or level 2, whose GPA was 2.271 (see Table 7).

TABLE 7

GPA by Education

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation	F.	Probability of Obtained F
Below 0 Level Group 1. GPA	2.371	0.629	12.13	0.0001
0 Levels Group 2. GPA	2.271	0.529		
A Levels Group 3. GPA	3.095	0.554		

Hypothesis 4 which stated that:

There is no statistically significant difference between the type of visa (J, F, R) held by the students and their adaptation to the United States

was analyzed using an analysis of variance (ANOVA) statistical technique and the results show no significant difference between the three types of visa (F, J, R) held by the students and their adaptation to the United States. The null hypothesis was not rejected at the .05 alpha level of confidence, $F = 1.11$ probability of obtaining $F = 0.3358$ as is demonstrated in Table (8).

TABLE 8

Visa by Adaptation

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation
J. Visa Adaptation	3.30	1.494
F. Visa Adaptation	2.66	0.605
R. Visa Adaptation	2.65	1.25

F = 1.11

Pr. F = 0.3358

Interpretation

Although statistically the variables demonstrated no significant difference, this result in itself is significant as it backs up the cultural fact that Jamaicans travel all over the world but never sever the ties that bind them to their home country. Wherever they go they are always planning for that day, 'which may never arrive', when they will return home.

On a grant obtained from the Organization of the American States in 1975, the researcher conducted a pilot study in Costa Rica 'Puerto Limon' among the Jamaican descendants who have been residing there for the past 85 years. When

a sample of this group ($n = 45$) was asked, "What nationality do you consider yourself?" There was a 100 percent response that they considered themselves Jamaicans. The group the researcher interviewed was the third generation of Jamaicans born in Costa Rica and who had never been to Jamaica. Bearing this in mind, the type of visa, therefore, would not have made a psychological difference in their adaptation.

Hypothesis 5 which stated that:

There is no statistically significant difference between the type of visa held by the students and their academic achievement

was tested by an analysis of variance (ANOVA) statistical technique at the .05 alpha level of confidence. The results indicate that the type of visa the students had did make a difference in their academic achievement as was measured by their GPA. In order to know whether it was the J. visa, F. visa, or Resident visa which made the difference, a Bonnferroni statistical follow-up was performed. The results indicated that the null hypothesis was to be rejected as there was a significant difference.

Group one which referred to the students with the J. visa had a significantly higher mean, 3.006, over group two or students that had an F. visa whose mean was 2.96. The students in the third group or those who had their resident visa had a mean of 2.456 (see Table 9). The following table illustrates the statistical results.

TABLE 9

GPA by Visa

Variables	J. Visa	F. Visa	R. Visa
Mean GPA	3.006	2.960	2.456
Standard Deviation	0.463	0.510	0.606

 $F = 7.95$ $\text{Pr. } F = 0.0007$ Interpretation

The difference that the type of visa seemed to have made may have stemmed from the psychological fear of failure felt by the Jamaican students, as they indicated in the interview. This fear seemed to have been produced from the educational system in Jamaica and the publicity afforded the results of each examination, making their failure or success a public matter.

The educational system in Jamaica stemmed from the British who colonized the island for over three hundred years. Although Jamaica has been independent for over 24 years, this system still continues with very little modification.

In Jamaica, it was required that at the age of 10 or 11, the child in the elementary school took what is known as the Common Entrance Examination.

After the correction of the Eleven plus or Common Entrance Examination as it was called, the results were published in the leading newspaper on the Island. The child's name and the school which he would attend appeared in the press. The child is therefore branded at the tender age of 10 or 11, if he should fail, as incompetent by the teachers and parents and as stupid by his peers. The result of this examination was used by the government to decide which child was placed in the grammar schools, which ones in the technical schools and which ones had to remain in the elementary schools and then sent perhaps, to a vocational school.

The students that scored highly in the examination were automatically given a place in the secondary school. The others had the choice of the technical school or the vocational school. The more affluent who did not want these choices for their children sent them to the private grammar schools.

After this first dramatic experience, those who were spared the ridicule of failure attended the secondary school and pursued a four or five year course of study. At the end of this four or five years in the secondary

school, the students took what is commonly referred to as the 0 Level examination or the General Certificate of Examination set by the University of Cambridge. Once more, the child's name appears in the press. If he/she manages to survive the educational system, he continues in the high school for two years, at the end of which, his course of study is evaluated by the A Level examination set by the University of London. The successful few are the prime candidates for the University. The University of the West Indies has now modified their entrance requirements to admit students who scored highly at the 0 Level standard. '

Therefore, a parent who is economically able and realizes that his/her child will not survive academically in that system, will try to send them to the universities abroad which only requires the high school diploma and the entrance examination. There are many such students at present at the University of Florida. These students know that they have to succeed in order to return home in favor and not in disgrace. This of course is not saying that those other students who are scholars did not choose to come to an American university, but their motive for being here is different. It is usually for the experience of being in a foreign country, or because the University of the West Indies does not offer the course

of study to which they are aspiring. In addition to these students, there are also the elitist group who considered it prestigious to have a degree from a more 'recognized' university abroad.

These and other subtle cultural reasons could be some of the confounding variables that come into play why the students with special J, or F visas, which are visas given to students who are expected to return home, are statistically significantly better than those who have the R visa or residency in the United States. The holder of the resident visa does not have to face the critical Jamaican society if he should fail, as he has the option of making the United States his permanent residence.

Hypothesis 6 which stated that:

There is no statistically significant interaction between the students' age, their length of stay in the United States and their adaptation

was tested using a multiple regression analysis at a .05 alpha level of confidence. The results demonstrated that there was not an overall significant difference between the independent variable, adaptation, and the dependent variable, age and length of stay, in the United States as reported in Table (10).

TABLE 10

Adaptation by U.S. Stay,
Reentry and Age

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation
ADAPT	3.51	1.807
USTAY	2.73	1.280
REENTP	2.60	1.248
AGE	21.8	3.552

F = 2.03

Pr. F = 0.1153

Hypothesis 7 stated that:

There is no statistically significant relationship between the students' adaptation and their length of stay in the United States.

To test this hypothesis, the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was calculated.

The result was $r = -.11620$, and an alpha level of .03047. This relationship was not significant at the .05 alpha level implying that the students' length of stay does not affect his adaptation to the United States.

Interpretation

This result could be explained by the argument used for hypothesis 4. That a Jamaican will make him/herself comfortable in a foreign country but never loses sight of his/her goals. And those are to achieve and return home to Jamaica as confirmed by 95 percent of the students interviewed for this study. This result makes the argument stronger in favor of the statistical result.

Hypothesis 8 which stated that:

There is no statistically significant relationship between the adaptation of older students (ages 25-38) and younger students (ages 17-24) at the University of Florida

was analyzed by the use of an analysis of variance statistical techniques. The results indicated that age had no effect on the students' ability to adapt to the United States. Therefore, we cannot reject the hypothesis as there is no statistical difference in the students' adaptation as a consequence of their age, as is reported in Table (11).

TABLE 11

Adaptation by Age

Variance Adaptation	Age 17-24	Age 25-38
Mean	2.707	2.866
Standard Deviation	1.259	1.407

F = .01

Pr. F = .9432

Hypothesis 9 stated:

There is no statistically significant relationship between the students' grade point average and their anticipated reentry problem.

To test this hypothesis, Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was calculated. The results implied that there was a relationship between the students' GPA and their anticipated reentry problems $R = -.3099$ $p = .0051$ therefore the null hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 10 which stated that:

There is no statistically significant relationship between the level of adaptation to problems in the United States and the set of independent variables "X", ("X" representing age, length of sojourn in the USA, and type of visa J, F, R)

was analyzed by the use of a multiple regression statistical technique. The results showed an F value equal to

.80 and the probability of obtaining the F was .4991. Therefore hypothesis 10 was not rejected. The result was as reported in Table (12).

TABLE 12

Adaptation by Age, U.S. Stay and Visa

Dependent Variance	Independent Variance	F Value	PR. F
ADAPT	AGE	.80	.4991*
	USTAY		
	VISA		

Hypothesis 11 which stated that:

There is no statistically significant relationship between the degree of problems encountered in the United States and the set of independent variables "X"?

was tested using a multiple regression statistical analysis technique, the result of which implied that there was no statistically significant relationship. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. The F value = .77 and the probability of obtaining that F was .5146.

Hypothesis 12 which stated that:

There is no statistically significant relationship between the degree of problems expected when the student reenters his/her country and the set of independent variables "X"

was tested using a multiple regression statistical technique. Since the result indicated no relationship, it was not considered sufficient evidence to reject this hypothesis. The F was equal to .86 and the probability of obtaining that F was .4675.

Hypothesis 13 which stated that:

There is no statistically significant relationship between the students' GPA and the set of independent variables "X"

was analyzed using a multiple regression statistical technique to test this hypothesis. The results obtained suggested that the students' GPA was significantly affected by the visa which they had but showed no significant effect because of their length of stay as reported in Table (13).

TABLE 13

GPA by Age, U.S. Stay and Visa

	F.	Pr. F
GPA	5.56	.0018
AGE	1.41	.2386
USTAY	2.15	.1471
VISA	6.06	.0161*

Presentation and Discussion of the
Analysis of Data

In addition to the statistical analysis, part "C" of the questionnaire entitled Cultural Adaptation, Experiences and Impressions, provided the researcher with answers to the following questions:

1. How do the Jamaican students feel about their Jamaican identity?
2. What are some of the experiences the students from Jamaica have had at the University of Florida?
3. What are some of the impressions the students from Jamaica have of their course of study and its relevance to their future and the needs of Jamaica?
4. To what degree has the value structure and modus operandi of the students from Jamaica changed to fit into the U.S. culture?
5. What are some of the problems the Jamaican students anticipate facing on their return home?

The answers to these questions stemmed not only from the questionnaire but also from the interview data which were collected several weeks after the survey data. The interviews, which were conducted, served to probe deeper into the area tapped by the scales and offer the data for qualitative analysis. Elaboration of the survey data, as well as a validity check, was the purpose of the interviews. These answers are descriptively presented in this section.

To be able to place the students' answers in a meaningful context, one needs to explain the ethnic makeup of a Jamaican and the manner in which they identify themselves.

According to Braithwaite (1974), no individual exists entirely in space. He exists, anchored in a social group, and a cultural context. In the case of the West Indies, they find themselves in groups that came from different places, and therefore there is not a sense of group identity. All of the groups in the West Indies, European, African, and Asian, are immigrant groups of some sort, all sharing emotional loyalties in some way with the world outside themselves, and they have blended into an integral whole, so that the individual growing up in the West Indies, becomes conscious of himself, not so much as a West Indian, or a Trinidadian, or a Jamaican, but as a member of a racial group who is also a West Indian.

The Jamaican students at the University of Florida are true representatives of that ethnic blend portrayed by Braithwaite which also typifies the Jamaican motto "out of many one people." The meaning of the motto can best be explained by quoting part of an interview conducted by Dennis and Dennis (1977) of a dark-skinned, green-eyed,

auburn haired West Indian who said that her father was half black, half Chinese and her mother was three-quarters English and one quarter Spanish. One, therefore, can observe that genealogy has been transferred to mathematical abstraction in the West Indies (Platt, 1978).

Similarity, in this study, is seen in the response given by one of the interviewees.

"My mother is half-black, and half-German. My father is 100 percent white. He is French. I am registered at the law school as black which surprises a lot of people. I am not phenotypically black. A lot of people say that it is not something to be proud of if you are black in the United States. To me it makes no difference. I am genotypically black and I am comfortable. I have black American friends which I consider a different group from the Jamaicans. At first, I guess, I was an outsider to the black American group because I am phenotypically white. But now I am a member of the Black American Law School Association and I do feel that I belong and that they have accepted me."

According to Braithwaite (1974),

"phenotypically or in terms of appearance, a person may look completely African but he may bear genes of many different races within him and vice versa so that phenotypically, a person of one colour may produce offspring of a somewhat varied range and shade of colour, so there is not the enduring physical stability that you get in terms of what we call racial inheritance in the West Indies."
(p. 2-3)

This complexity is also revealed in the following quote.

"Because of my racial mixture, Americans don't think that I am from Jamaica. They always confuse me for some other nationality. In fact they think that I am trying to hide my true identity. That does not bother me, I think that

it is all very flattering. I take it as a compliment when they place me in a different ethnic or national group, as it says a lot in favour of a truly multicultural, multi-racial nation like Jamaica."

If one should ask some of the Jamaican students on their first day in the United States, their colour, they would stop to think before answering because of the colour gradation resulting from the ethnic mixture. This strong colour gradation in the West Indies goes back to the days of slavery when there were distinctions of colour among the general class of free black and coloured people ranging from the mustifino, who was fifteen-sixteenths white, through the mustee, quadroon, and mulatto to the sambo, who was only one fourth white (Alleyne, 1974).

According to Ellis (1957), even the categorization which he himself used in his research, "white, fair, light, light brown, brown, dark brown, and black" over simplified the complex system of colour evaluation actually used by the Jamaicans.

Based on these observations one can better understand where the Jamaican students are coming from and can attribute their answers to the complexity of the West Indies. The qualitative data collected through the interview and the questionnaire were quantified under the following headings: cultural identity, academic relevance, social adaptation and reentry.

In order to quantify the data, the researcher read the qualitative answers the subjects gave to each question concurrently, and further listened to the taped interviews for more indepth answers to the questions. Recurring themes were then identified and presented as statements under the appropriate headings. The number of times the students gave similar answers to the specific issues was then manually counted and recorded as quantitative data. The first question for which answers were sought under the heading of cultural identity read:

How do the Jamaican students feel about their identity? Of the 80 students who participated in the study, 78 or 97.5 percent considered their identity very important and further expressed more awareness of their identity since being in the United States. This awareness is expressed in a statement made by one of the students.

"I have grown up over the year in Florida, and I find myself making an effort now to stand out as a Jamaican inspite of my colour (white) because most Americans think that all West Indians have to be black. I am proud of my Jamaican identity (97.5%). In fact, I wear Jamaican t-shirts (50%), which I never did at home. And I listen mostly to reggae music (98.7%) which in Jamaica I would have been told, 'that is not music.' I speak Jamaican patois (75%) among my friends which I was not permitted to do at home (Jamaica) as that was classed as the language of the illiterates" (see Table 14).

TABLE 14

Cultural Identity

	Raw Score	Percentage
Considered identity important	78	97.5
More aware of identity in the U.S. than in Jamaica	78	97.5
To identify with their culture, the students:		
Speak their dialect	60	75
Wear Jamaican T-shirts	40	50
Play Jamaican music	79	98.7
Cook ethnic food	17	21.2

Because Jamaica was a British colony for over 300 years, the British way was used as a model and as the yardstick by which a 'cultured' person was measured. Jamaica has an elite language 'English' inherited from the British and used in all formal communication. English, therefore, is associated with progress, 'culture', and intelligence. On the other hand, the mass language "Patois" derived in part from the native language of Africans used in the non-formal, non-official traditional communication system is associated with

backwardness and lack of 'culture' (Alleyne, 1940). Although the educators in Jamaica have tried to break down this distinction it still persists.

Another complex area that was voiced strongly by the students was the matter of colour and how they were classified in the United States.

"I resent this rigid cast system of the United States, and I suppose they cannot understand our genealogy which we have transformed to mathematical abstraction. It took coming to the United States for me to realize what it is that sets us apart as a people, and I am really proud of it."

In answering question two:

What are some of the experiences the students from Jamaica have had at the University of Florida?

78.7 percent of the students expressed resentment of being identified as black when they first came to the United States and 53.7 percent reported to have even tried hiding their identity as Jamaicans and 43.7 percent seemed to have changed after being in the country for one year. Nevertheless, even though there was a change, in numbers of students that felt that it mattered to them whether they were classified as blacks or not, 76.2 percent felt that it made a difference whether people classified them as Jamaicans (see Table 15).

TABLE 15

Social Attitudes

	Raw Score	Percentage
Tried to hide identity initially in the U.S.	43	53.7
When they came to the U.S. they initially resented being identified as blacks	35	43.7
It does make a difference whether people think they are from Jamaica	61	76.2

"It is a fact", said one student, "that in Jamaica some of us would not be classified as black, as we do not possess the rigidity of the American caste structure of black and white. I had to come to the United States to start looking at people not as an individual but as a black person or a white one.

This does not really exist in Jamaica. Most of my American friends are confused when I say that I am black, but to deny my blackness is to deny my mother who is one half black, and my mother is what I am today. My ethnic colouration springs from a Chinese father, and a half-white, half-black mother."

During the latter part of the 70s, Jamaica was constantly in the media. The publicity was not very flattering to the nation as the country underwent a change of government. This, in addition to other racial

overtones, caused many students (53.7%) to try and hide their identity as Jamaicans (see Table 15). As one student recalled:

"When I came to the United States, I was ashamed to say that I was from Jamaica. At that time the news media was only showing negative things about the country. I tried to be more like an American. I had not met any members of the Jamaican community, so the people with whom I interacted were Americans. I felt at that time that in order for the Americans to accept me, I had to be more like them. I did try to change to a certain degree (see Table). I did not adapt the American 'Twang' (accent) but I did try to change my speech which was particularly disappointing to my parents. My mother was very hurt as she realized that I was trying to hide my identity as a Jamaican. But I just wanted to belong and I thought that that would have helped me."

In addition, 75 percent of the students interviewed felt that it was necessary for them to change their mode of dressing and speaking so as to be able to blend in as far as was possible in the American society and to be able to communicate with the people. Forty three point seven percent (43.7%) of the students felt that although they had heard of the social problems in the United States that it would not affect them. One student tried summing up his/her feeling by saying:

"Most of us came here confident of fitting into the society, as we had enjoyed the best of all the worlds in Jamaica; the world of the white, light skin, brown, and black. But after being here one year, I realized that we do not fit anywhere in the American caste system. We were outcasts."

Although some of the students have tried to form relationships with the Americans, 32 percent expressed concern of the frustration felt in trying to establish friendship with Americans (see Table 16) while 52 percent felt that they had no trouble relating to the Americans. This was expressed in the interviews.

TABLE 16

Social Acceptance

	Raw Score	Percentage
We do not fit into the American caste system	15	60%
I have no trouble relating to Americans	13	52%
Most of us came here confident of fitting in	8	32%

"One of the otehr experiences that I have encountered is on the social level, trying to relate to some of the blacks here. Some of them cannot fully accept me because of the way that I relate to white Americans, so they classify me as different. They feel that I have not understood what they have been through and in some cases are seemingly still experiencing.

But what they cannot understand is that I cannot react to the racial situation. Fortunately or unfortunately, I have not lived it. We are from a society whose social prejudices far out-

weighs our racial differences. 'But how can we be racially prejudice without being divided against ourselves?'

Another area in which the students express concern was with the race relationship in the United States. One student stated that he resented race discrimination in the United States, more than he would in any other part of the world.

"It seems so absurd in a society that has such simple, logical, humanitarian beliefs", he concluded. This was followed up by another student who explained that the race problem was by far not unique to the United States and hastened to explain.

"In Jamaica, there are race problems also but they are so insignificant compared to our social prejudices. But we have come to realize that opportunity, not ancestry, is the breeder of quality."

Another student continued by saying that "the shielded classes cannot stand the competition of the masses without the hollowness of those who depend on ancestry alone becoming apparent." Jamaica has had its racial problems but to the extent that the schools permitted association among its young people, caste and class barriers tended to vanish as values shifted from ascribed ones to achieved ones.

Another area of concern for the students was their experience with pre-orientation at the University of Florida. Ninety-six point two percent felt that it was very important for them to know the registration procedure; 90 percent felt it very necessary to know the procedure to find and begin their degree program and all or 100 percent felt it was very important to know from the beginning the requirements and regulations for a degree. Other areas of concern were the efficient use of the library, 75 percent felt that this was very important; 37.5 percent considered the role of the academic advisor important and 62.5 percent felt that it was not. On the role of the foreign student advisor on the other hand, 30 or 37.5 percent agreed that the role was very important. This 37.5 percent of the students are the only ones that were admitted to the university through the International Student Center.

In addition, 100 percent of the students voluntarily informed the researcher that it was very important to orient students coming to the university of the cost of housing, telephone installation and utilities, for in Jamaica, a house or apartment is always rented with these amenities. Seventy percent of the students, however, did not consider it very important to know about cost of transportation in the U.S. (see Table 17).

TABLE 17

Pre-University Orientation

The importance of knowing the following information on entering college.				
	1	2	3	4
	Very Imp.	Quite Imp.	Little Imp.	Not Imp.
a. The registration procedure	65%	31.2%	3.7%	
b. The procedure to find and begin your degree program	50%	40%	10%	
c. Examination requirements and regulations for a degree	87.5%	12.5%		
d. Efficient use of library	56.2%	18.7%	25%	
e. The role of the academic student advisor	78.7%	15%	6.2%	
f. The role of the foreign student advisor	26.2%	11.2%	26.2%	36.2%
g. The cost of transportation in the U.S.		30%	16.2%	53.7%
h. Other (please specify) Cost of housing, utilities, telephone	87.5%	12.5%		

After one year at the University of Florida, most of the students seemed quite satisfied with the knowledge of the items in Table 18. One hundred percent (100%) were

satisfied with the registration procedure, with the procedure to find and begin their academic program, with examination requirements, with regulations for a degree, with cost of transportation, and with housing.

Sixty two point two percent (62.2%) were satisfied with their knowledge of the use of the library and 55 or 68.7 percent were satisfied with the role of the academic advisor. For the students that were admitted through the International Student Center, there was a 100% satisfaction with the role of the International Student Advisor (see Table 18).

In answering question three:

What are some of the impressions the students from Jamaica have of their course of study and its relevance to their future and the needs of Jamaica

twenty five or 100 percent of the students interviewed expressed satisfaction with their course of studies as they felt that it satisfied their immediate goals.

Eighty percent volunteered the information, however, that they were not quite sure as to their future career choices.

Although 100 percent expressed satisfaction with their courses, 48 percent felt that they would have rathered a certain amount of flexibility with regards to choosing their courses. As one student said:

TABLE 18

Changes in Knowledge of
Pre-University Orientation

Satisfaction with the knowledge of the following items after a year at the University of Florida.				
	1	2	3	4
	Very Imp.	Quite Imp.	Little Imp.	Not Imp.
a. The registration procedure	93.7%	6.2%		
b. The procedure to find and begin your degree program	100%			
c. Examination requirements and regulations for a degree	87.5%	12.5%		
d. Efficient use of library	51.2%	11.2%	25%	12.5%
e. The role of the academic student advisor	52.1%	18.7%	28.7%	
f. The role of the foreign student advisor	37.5%			
g. The cost of transportation in the U.S.	100%			
h. Other (please specify) Cost of housing, utilities, telephone	100% 100%			

"This system does not allow me to be free to select or reject courses as seem best suited for me. I do not feel that as a foreign student I should have to disperse my attention and waste time taking courses that have no relationship with my specific field of study. In addition, I think that the students in Engineering, Administration, Agriculture, and even in Education should be given a chance to do their field work in Jamaica (see Table 19) as we could then start with the professors' guidance to learn to transfer the technology that we are learning to the reality and necessity of our country."

Question four:

To what degree has the value structure and modus operandi of the students from Jamaica changed?

Although Americans are always going to Jamaica, particularly as tourists, most of the nationals do not have the opportunity to make their acquaintance. Therefore, the only knowledge that 20 or 80 percent of these students had of the United States and its people was that projected by the media. This point is further supported by the students who said:

"I had not known the Americans before I came to the United States. Now that I have been here for one year, living among them, I realize that my idea of the American was based on false conceptions."

This was reenforced by the statement given in parts by 15 or 60 percent of the students:

"My impression of the United States of America and of its people was all the fairy tale which is exported through the media. I, for example, thought that everyone was wealthy, that the men

TABLE 19

Academic Concerns

Not sure of career choice	Satisfied with courses	Does not allow me to be free to select courses	Students in techni- cal fields showed having choice of going home to do internship
///	///	///	///
///	///	///	///
///	///	///	///
///	///	///	///
20 or 80%	25 or 100%	12 or 48%	18 or 72%

were weak, and the women strong; that the head of the household was the woman, who was always dressed-up waiting for her family to come home so that they could go out to dine. Today, one year after, I would challenge anyone who makes such generalization" concluded one of the students. (see Table 20).

From the comments the students made during the interviews it can be gathered that they have undergone a certain change in regards to their initial impressions of the United States and its people. Different students, for example observed and volunteered the following descriptions of the Americans.

"After one year at the University of Florida, my impression of the United States and its people have changed. They are unconventional, but dignified, candid but kind and friendly but firm. In spite of a few prejudices, Americans are credible and sincere people. They are lovers of sport and humor and are very independent and self-reliant. Americans know just how to mix pleasure with work while they seek the dollars to spend in pursuit of leisure. Americans are an extremely kind and generous people, especially to strangers from other countries. I also feel that there is a lack of genuineness about the characteristically open and informal way in which friendliness is expressed in the United States." As one student said: "Don't think that the American wants to be your friend just because he/she invites you to her home." (see Table 21).

According to Rogg (1978):

When people are in a new environment and see themselves surrounded by a culture different from their own, they find that they must adapt

TABLE 20

Cultural Knowledge of U.S.

Did not know America	Knowledge of U.S. is that projected through the media	Everyone wealthy in United States	Americans always go out to dine
//// //// ///	//// //// //// ////	//// ////	//// ////
13 or 62%	20 or 80%	10 or 40%	9 or 36%

TABLE 21

Attitudes on America and Its People

	Raw Score	Percentage
Americans are unconventional	15	60%
Americans are dignified	10	40%
Americans are kind and generous	25	100%
Americans are friendly	12	48%
Americans are prejudice	15	60%
Americans are credible	5	20%
Americans are sincere	6	24%
Americans are lovers of sport	15	60%
Americans know how to mis pleasure with work	20	80%
There is a lack of genuineness in which friendliness is expressed	6	24%
Invitation to their home does not signify desire to be your friend	20	80%

to a new way of perceiving themselves and
others. (p. 77)

This is demonstrated in the following table (22).

The students felt that there were certain factors
impeding their establishing a good relationship with more

Americans. These perceived factors which prevented students from establishing good relationships with U.S. nationals are listed in Table 22.

TABLE 22

Relationship Barriers

	1	2	3	4
	Very Much	Much	Very Little	Not at all
Jamaican accent	41%	38%	15%	19%
Religious background	100%			
Racial background	30%	16%	20%	34%
Cultural background	20%	29%	13%	38%
Political views	100%			
Being a foreigner	41%	9%	13%	38%
Attitude toward others	33%	25 %	20%	23%
Attitude toward you	43%	15%	18%	25%

Sixty-six of the students felt that one of the great impediments was their Jamaican accent. Thirty-seven or forty-six percent blamed it on their racial background, 39 or 49 percent on their cultural background. Forty or fifty percent of the students felt that this inability to establish what they perceived as

a good relationship with the Americans was the fact that they are foreigners. Forty-six or fifty-eight percent felt that it was their attitude towards the Americans and 46 or 58 percent felt that it was the Americans' attitude towards them that formed the barrier.

In addition the students showed that they had changed in their social outlook as is demonstrated in Table 23.

TABLE 23

Social Adaptation

How much have you changed in your outlook in the following areas since coming to the United States?				
	1	2	3	4
	Very Much	Much	Very Little	Not at all
Dress code	44%	25%	21%	4%
Dating pattern	14%	11%	25%	50%
Friend selection	41%	46%	13%	
Eating habits	69%	13%	16%	3%
Social graces	25%	4%	34%	38%
Speech pattern	20%	25%	24%	31%

The reason for changing their speech pattern was voluntarily injected in the interview. Thirty-five or forty-four percent of the students said basically the same thing:

"I was tired of hearing people ask me to repeat what I had said so I did change my speech to a certain degree." One further commented on problems in speech patterns experienced by both foreign students and Americans.

"Then there were those professors with the Southern drawl which was very difficult for me to understand. I taped their lectures and sat for hours trying to decipher them. That was not bad. What was terrible was my fear of asking questions in class. Everytime that I tried I would hear the professors say 'could you repeat that'. Sometimes a student would interpret what they thought that I should have been saying. That was frightening. I came here thinking that at least communication would not have been a problem as both countries spoke English, but I was wrong"

Question five:

What are some of the problems the Jamaican students anticipate facing on their return home?

The following quotes were taken from the students' questionnaire and interview which expresses their apprehension of going back home.

"When I return to Jamaica I know that I will have the problem of readjusting to its smallness, to the enclosed yards around the houses and most of all to a less tolerant and provincial society. Here, I am absolutely independent, I am not obligated to anyone, I don't worry about what people say or think about me. It is a special feeling of freedom because no one really knows me.

But all this ends, to a great degree, on my return to Jamaica. No longer will I have my privacy to which I have grown accustomed in the United States. I cannot as a single person get an apartment by myself or even with

friends if my parents live in the same area in which I will be working. What I will need to do, so as not to offend, is to get a job at the other end of the island. Apart from living with my family and playing the role of dutiful child, there is the problem of my friends coming unannounced to visit me. I think I rather like the American way of telephoning your friends before appearing on their doorsteps.

Another concern is my mode of dressing. Jamaica has a similar climate to Florida. But I cannot go home (Jamaica) and think that I can wear these shorts and tops on the streets, not even on the playing field. I suppose they would accept me wearing it on the beach. "As to my blue jeans", if I do not want to be branded hippie, then I will wear them only to work in the garden, to go on a picnic or to go hiking.

Although I have tried to change my way of speaking, it has really been only in my pronunciation or diction, but in spite of that, I have tried desperately to sound like a Jamaican. A fellow Jamaican student who was here on year before me gave me this advice when I was having trouble communicating with my American friends. 'Speak clearly and slowly, and avoid using Jamaican terms'. This slowed me down tremendously. I did not feel like speaking in class anymore. I now know, that even though I have tried to maintain my Jamaican accent, I must have changed, because Americans are understanding me. When I am about to go home, I will have to spend more time with the Jamaicans making sure I sound authentic. I definitely would not want to be ridiculed as one 'putting on an act to impress' as some Jamaicans may interpret the American influence in my speech.

Another area in which I have changed is in my choice of meals. I will never be in the kitchen for two or three hours preparing Jamaican meals anymore. In the first place I do not have the time. And secondly, I have acquired the taste for the American food. Can you imagine my family's face when I inform them that all I want for dinner is a plate of salad? Or can you imagine how they will feel when they prepare all those Jamaican special cuisine only for me to take a small portion through politeness?

Apart from the cuisine, there is the area of the type of work that a man can do around the house and the type that are definitely a woman's job. I have learnt to do everything for myself through necessity. And even if I wanted to contribute I would literally have to hide for fear of offending my parents as they consider certain jobs effeminate."

When the students were asked what advice they would give a Jamaican coming to the university, 50 or 63 percent felt that they should be aware of objective test taking so as to be able to compete better in an American institution. Forty or 50 percent considered it important based on their experience to inform them not to waste time at the beginning of the term. Seventy-five or 94 percent felt that they should learn to type before coming because this is a most valuable skill and 64 or 80 percent would like to encourage them to come to orientation program and to get to know the campus before starting classes (see Table 24).

Another student added that his fear was job related as was expressed in his statement.

"Because I have maintained contact with Jamaica by going home once per year, I do not see myself having a great deal of problem adjusting to the society. My fear is with my colleagues at work as I know that everyone will be observing me and waiting for me to make a mistake. I will constantly have to be proving myself and that scares me."

In concluding the interviews, the researcher solicited five areas in rank order, that the students

TABLE 24

Information Jamaicans Should Know
Before Coming to America

	Objective test taking	Not to waste time at the beginning	Know how to type	Come to the orientation program
N=80	50 or 63%	40 or 50%	75 or 94%	64 or 80%
N=25	15 or 60%	8 or 32%	10 or 40%	20 or 80%

considered important for an American going to Jamaica to know. Seventy or eighty-eight percent of the students felt that Americans should know that segregation does not exist in Jamaica; sixty or seventy-five percent considered that it was important to explain the social class structure; forty-seven or fifty-nine percent felt that they should be told that one's colour of skin was insignificant; also, thirty or thirty-eight percent felt that they should know what is considered as 'indecent' attire; ten or thirteen percent considered that they should be warned that Jamaicans also speak a dialect (see Table 25).

Another question posited by the researcher was the following:

Suppose you are in a group of Americans who would like some information about your country. What five things would you consider most important for them to know?

The following answers were recorded in rank order:

1. Segregation does not exist. This was stated by eighty-eight percent of the students interviewed.
2. Social class is important. Seventy-five percent of the students felt that it was very important for their American friends to know the social class structure.
3. That the colour of one's skin was insignificant, was suggested by fifty-nine percent of the interviewees.

Segregation
does not exist

[illegible]

70 or
88%

Social class
is important

(Handwritten practice lines showing cursive letter formation)

60 or
75%

Colour is not significant

[illegible]

47 or
59%

Dress code

Handwriting practice lines for the letter 't'.

30 or
38%

Speech

///
///

10 or
13%

4. Thirty-eight percent of the students considered it important for their American friends to know about Jamaican middle class dress code so that their attire would not create a social barrier.
5. Thirteen percent of the students felt that they should warn their American friends that they might not understand some of the Jamaicans as they speak a dialect.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary and Conclusions

This study sought to explore the experiences and impressions of Jamaican undergraduate students at the University of Florida, in order to evaluate the extent to which their stay had been educationally rewarding, and the degree to which they perceived the course of studies they were pursuing as being relevant to the needs of the developing nation of Jamaica. The second was to identify problems confronted by Jamaican students who had matriculated at the University of Florida. The third was to determine the extent to which these students' programs of studies in Jamaica prepared them to pursue their educational goals at the University of Florida. The fourth was to explore the ways in which the Jamaican students had modified their culture in order to get along socially in the United States. The fifth was to identify the problems of adjustment that students expect to experience when they return to Jamaica. The final purpose was to suggest procedures that might be employed

at the University of Florida in order to assist students in transferring the knowledge gained in the United States to Jamaica.

To be able to accomplish what the researcher proposed, two different approaches were employed in collecting the data: (1) an experimental approach, and (2) an observational approach.

The research methodology selected for gathering the data was that of an interview and questionnaire for which an instrument was developed by the researcher. Content validity and reliability were established by the help of a panel of experts in the field and refined through the use of a pilot study.

Thirteen hypotheses relating to experiences and impressions in a crosscultural situation were drawn from the literature and submitted to test using 80 students from Jamaica at the University of Florida. Past research provided the basis for predicting that (1) there would be no statistically significant difference between the students' level of orientation and their achievement; (2) that there would be no statistically significant difference between the students' level of orientation and their adaptation to the United States; (3) that there would be no statistically significant difference between the students' level of education on arriving in the

United States and their academic achievement as measured by their grade point average after one year at the University of Florida; (4) that there would be no statistically significant difference between the type of visa (J, F, R), held by the students and their adaptation to the United States; (5) that there would be no statistically significant difference between the type of visa held by the student and their academic achievement; (6) that there would be no statistically significant interaction between the students' age, their length of stay in the United States and their adaptation; (7) that there would be no statistically significant relationship between the adaptation of the students and their length of stay in the United States; (8) that there would be no statistically significant relationship between the adaptation of older students (ages 25-38) and younger students (17-24) at the University of Florida; (9) that there would be no statistically significant relationship between the students' grade point average and their anticipated reentry problems.

Hypotheses 10, 11, 12, and 13 measured the relationships of the following dependent variables, adaptation problems encountered in the United States, anticipated reentry problems and GPA with relationship to the set of independent variables "X" which represented age, length of sojourn in the United States, and type of visa (J, F, R).

The researcher further sought answers to the following questions: (1) How did Jamaican students feel about their identity? (2) What were some of the experiences the students from Jamaica have had at the University of Florida? (3) What are some of the impressions the students from Jamaica have of their course of study and its relevance to their needs and to the needs of Jamaica? (4) To what degree has the value structure and modus operandi of the students from Jamaica changed to fit into the U.S. culture? (5) What are some of the problems the students from Jamaica anticipated facing on their return home?

Statistical manipulation of the responses on the questionnaire, indicated the following results: The students' orientation program at the University of Florida, does have a positive effect on the Jamaican students' academic achievement but does not seem to influence their adaptation to the United States.

The education obtained in Jamaica makes a significant difference on the students' academic performance at the University of Florida. The statistical test showed that those students that had attained the A Levels before coming to the University of Florida are doing academically better than the students that only reached the O Level standard, or than those who came to the United States to

complete their high school diploma. The latter two groups are coping at the same academic level as was demonstrated by their GPA mean.

Although the type of visa held by the student seemed not to have had any significant effect on the students' adaptation, it did have a positive effect on their academic performance. Of the three levels of visa that were tested, the result demonstrated that the holders of the J visa had a significantly higher GPA mean than the holders of F or Resident visas.

There was also a significant relationship between the students' GPA and their anticipated reentry problems. The students who were statistically achieving academically were anticipating less reentry problems and therefore less fear of readjustment to their home country. Those with a lower GPA expressed doubt of returning home, skepticism of readjusting and fear of not adjusting at all.

Other variables such as age and length of stay in the United States, which would appear to make a difference in the students' adaptation problems and type of visa (J, F, R), did not seem to have an effect on the students' adaptation problems as was indicated by the negligible correlation.

In response to the questions asked in the interview, the researcher concluded that for the most part, the

students in the sample were able to acquaint themselves sufficiently well with their new environment to encounter relatively few discouraging adjustment situations that did have an effect on their academic or personal adjustment.

The researcher gathered from the students' responses that they were fairly satisfied with their course of study even though they felt that some of the courses were irrelevant to what they considered their personal goals. On the other hand the students felt that the stage of development in Jamaica should constitute a direct influence on the educational needs of its students. With this in mind, therefore, the students felt that it did not seem unreasonable for the University of Florida to make some modifications in their requirements to more adequately meet such special needs of those returning nationals. Foreign admission, therefore, must involve so much more than the equating of academic certificates to requirements. It should involve the ability on the part of the admissions officer to evaluate personal factors and to understand them in the light of the problems and needs of the student's home country.

Implications and Recommendations

In order for the University to do what is possible to help the foreign students maximize their educational

sojourn at the University of Florida, the researcher recommends that:

1. An extensive academic counseling program during the students' early months so as to assist them in the selection of the most appropriate courses for their own needs and the needs of their country should be conducted. (In this manner the developing country may be able to absorb their returning graduates).
2. Based on the statistical results and on the interviews conducted by the researcher, the University of Florida needs to re-evaluate its orientation program to include cultural information.
3. In addition, Student Services, should make an effort to involve the international students more in campus life.
4. The international center should make an effort to make the incoming international student meet the American students at time of arrival or during the first few weeks of their arrival.
5. An American student should play the role of big sister/brother to an international student for one week.
6. The University should re-evaluate the A Level examination and exempt students who have done exceedingly well at that level before coming to the University of Florida.
7. The Student Services should initiate a black American/black international student encounter so as to dispel certain misconceptions that both groups seem to have of each other.
8. The services for students' affairs should collaborate with the international center in conducting reentry seminars to include all international students. The interest of the adjustment changes to the United States and to the home country on the part of the foreign students, both from a theoretical and policy-oriented standpoint, must extend beyond the cutoff

point of departure from the United States. Of particular interest to the government and the returning students is the period of reabsorption into the home country's social and economic milieu.

9. Since the length of time the students have been in the United States does not seem to affect their adjustment (correlation between adjustment problem score and length of stay), a definite program should be initiated to help these students. Adjustment difficulties do not seem to be solved merely by a long residency.

Recommendations for Future Research

The following recommendations are suggested as a result of the findings and conclusions of this study:

Future studies should attempt to use a large sample involving all the universities of Florida to prevent statistical inadequacies and limitations.

The variables found to have a significant relationship and effect within the criterion of this study should be further investigated.

The predictive validity of national examination scores of other countries for academic success should be investigated.

It is further suggested that the study be replicated in a couple of years with the same population as seniors at the University of Florida.

Ultimately it is suggested that a similar study be conducted involving all the English speaking islands in the Caribbean.

APPENDIX

SUBJECT INFORMED CONSENT
QUESTIONNAIRE GUIDE

APPENDIX

SUBJECT INFORMED CONSENT

I, Otilia Salmon, am a graduate student in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction, College of Education at the University of Florida, and would like your participation in a study which I am conducting.

The study is to find out to what degree Jamaican students have modified their culture upon coming in contact with U.S. society, the experiences and impressions they have had during their sojourn here, and the aspects of the American culture they have adopted in order to survive in the United States. In addition, we would like to know some of their needs so that American universities that are interested may know what adjustments could be made in order to make the Jamaican students' stay here a more pleasant and rewarding one, and their education more relevant to the needs of their country.

You will need about one hour to complete the questionnaire, and if you are selected, we will require an additional thirty minutes of your time for the interview. Your assistance will be of great value to us. By helping us, you will be helping students from your country who are yet to come to the University of Florida.

The information obtained will be kept confidential to the extent provided by law. There is absolutely no risk or discomfort expected, and there will be no monetary compensation awarded. You have a right to withdraw if you deem it necessary any time prior to the end of the project.

If you have any questions about this study, please contact me at home (378-3885) or at work (392-1582). I will be happy to discuss it with you.

Please sign the following section and detach and return to me in the enclosed self addressed stamped envelope. Thanks for your cooperation.

I have read and understood the procedure described above, and I agree to participate in the study.

Subject's Name

Date

Principal Investigator: Otilia Salmon

2640 S.W. 35th Pl., Gainesville, FL 32608,

378-3885 or 392-1582

APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE GUIDE

(Confidential--Student's Name Not Required)

We would like to find out to what degree Jamaican students have modified their culture upon coming in contact with U.S. society, the experiences and impressions they have had during their sojourn here, and the aspects of the American culture they have adopted in order to survive in the U.S.A. In addition, we would like to know some of their needs so that American universities that are interested may know what adjustments could be made in order to make the Jamaican students' stay here a more pleasant and rewarding one, and their education more relevant to the needs of their country. Questions pertaining to anticipated reentry problems will complete the questionnaire.

You will need about one hour to answer the questionnaire. Your assistance will be of great value to us. By helping us, you will be helping students from your country who are yet to come to the University of Florida.

The researcher would be most grateful if the questionnaire could be returned within 10 days. A

self addressed stamped envelope for your convenience
has been enclosed.

Thank you for your participation in this study.

INTERVIEW GUIDE

Date: _____

Time: _____

Part A. Biographical Information

1. Sex?
Male _____ Female _____
2. Age at nearest birthday? _____
3. Where do you consider your home country? _____
4. What is your present status?
Married _____ Single _____
Divorced _____ Other (please specify) _____
5. What is your present university classification?
Freshman _____ Sophomore _____
Junior _____ Senior _____
6. How do you finance your studies?
Scholarship _____ Student Loan _____
Employment _____ Savings _____
Parents _____ Home Govt. Loan _____
Family _____
7. A student coming from Jamaica to a university in the United States can fall into these categories: (1) High School diploma, (2) O Levels, (3) A Levels. Under which category do you fall?
(1) _____ (2) _____ (3) _____

APPENDIX

8. What is your area of study?
- Undeclared _____
 - Accounting _____
 - Agriculture & Natural Resources _____
 - Architecture & Environmental Design _____
 - Area Studies _____
 - Biological Sciences _____
 - Business & Management _____
 - Computer & Information Services _____
 - Education _____
 - Engineering _____
 - Fine and Applied Arts _____
 - Foreign Languages _____
 - Health Professions _____
 - Home Economics _____
 - Law _____
 - Letters _____
 - Library Sciences _____
 - Mathematics _____
 - Physical Sciences _____
 - Psychology _____
 - Public Affairs & Services _____
 - Social Sciences _____
 - Theology _____
 - Interdisciplinary Studies _____
 - Other (please specify) _____
9. What is your grade point average?
- Under 2.00 _____
 - Between 1.99 and 2.00 _____
 - Between 2.00 and 2.44 _____
 - Between 2.45 and 2.84 _____
 - Between 2.85 and 3.24 _____
 - Between 3.25 and 4.00 _____
10. With whom do you live?
- U.S. family _____
 - U.S. students _____
 - Foreign students from another country _____
 - Foreign students from your country _____
 - Spouse and children _____
 - Alone _____
 - Other (please specify) _____

APPENDIX

11. How long have you been in the United States? _____
12. How long have you been at this university? _____
13. How many foreign countries besides the United States have you visited or lived in?

14. How many months in total were you in those countries?

15. Before coming to study here, did you spend any time in the United States on visits? If so, how many months in total?
No _____ Yes _____ Months _____
16. Are your parents now residing in the United States?
No _____ Yes _____ Months _____
17. Do you have other relatives in the United States?
No _____ Yes _____ Months _____
18. How likely is it that you might remain permanently in the United States?
Definitely not _____ Somewhat likely _____
Very unlikely _____ Very likely _____
Somewhat unlikely _____ Definitely will _____
Undecided _____

APPENDIX

19. Which of the following might make you stay permanently in the United States?

Political climate at home

Not being able to find a job at home

A good job offer in the United States

Marriage to a U.S. citizen

Family member's advice

Other situation (please specify)

Nothing would make me stay permanently
in the United States

APPENDIX

Part B. Preuniversity Orientation

(Ask respondents to be concrete)

20. When you came to the United States
- What aspect of coming to the United States and of entering college presented you with the severest problem?
 - What were the problems you encountered?
 - Did you anticipate them? Yes_____ No_____
 - What has enabled you to meet these problems?
 - How did you overcome these problems?
21. How important was it for you to know the following information when you came to college? Information about
- | | Not
Imp. | Little
Imp. | Quite
Imp. | Very
Imp. |
|--|-------------|----------------|---------------|--------------|
| a. The registration procedure | | | | |
| b. The procedure to find and begin your degree program | | | | |
| c. Examination requirements and regulations for a degree | | | | |
| d. Efficient use of the library | | | | |
| e. The role of the academic advisor | | | | |

APPENDIX

- | | Not
Imp. | Little
Imp. | Quite
Imp. | Very
Imp. |
|--|-------------|----------------|---------------|--------------|
| f. The role of the foreign student advisor | | | | |
| g. The cost of transportation in the United States | | | | |
| h. Other (please specify) | | | | |
22. How satisfied are you now with the knowledge of the items?
- | | Not
Sat. | Little
Sat. | Quite
Sat. | Very
Sat. |
|--|-------------|----------------|---------------|--------------|
| a. The registration procedure | | | | |
| b. The procedure to find and begin your degree program | | | | |
| c. Examination requirements and regulations for a degree | | | | |
| d. Efficient use of the library | | | | |
| e. The role of the academic advisor | | | | |
| f. The role of the foreign student advisor | | | | |

APPENDIX

Not	Little	Quite	Very
Sat.	Sat.	Sat.	Sat.

- g. The cost of transportation in the United States
- h. Other (please specify)
23. What things would you advise a close friend from Jamaica to know before entering the university?
24. The Jamaican system of education is different from the American system. Was the transition easy for you? Please elaborate.
25. Did you find that your high school preparation has been helping you in your undergraduate work? In which particular area(s)?
- Yes _____ No _____
26. From speaking with your fellow Jamaicans, would you say that the students that came with A Levels are doing better than those with O Levels or just the high school diploma?
- Yes _____ No _____

APPENDIX

27. In relationship to this educational preparation, what advice would you give a Jamaican planning to come to the United States to study?
28. How do students in classrooms behave differently here than in Jamaica?

APPENDIX

Part C. Cultural Adaptation, Experiences and Impressions

29. How much have you changed in your outlook in the following areas since coming to the United States?

Not	Very	Very
at all	Little	Much

Dress Code
 Dating Pattern
 Friend Selection
 Eating Habits
 Social Graces
 Speech Pattern

30. The following factors may prevent you from establishing good relationships with U.S. nationals. How much do you believe these factors are preventing you from having a better relationship with your American peers?

Not	Very	Very
at all	Little	Much

Your Jamaican Accent
 Your Religious Background
 Your Racial Background
 Your Cultural Background
 Your Political View
 Your Being a Foreigner
 Your Attitude Toward Others
 Their Attitude Toward You

Please specify other possible factors.

APPENDIX

31. Do you consider your cultural identity important? If you do, why do you consider it important? If your answer is in the negative, why do you consider that it is not?
- Yes _____ No _____
32. Did you feel the same way about your identity when you were in Jamaica or is there a difference now that you are in the United States?
- Yes _____ No _____
33. What language were you permitted to speak in your home in Jamaica?
34. What language do you use to communicate with your Jamaican friends here?
35. Do you find yourself using patois as a form of identification when you are with other Caribbean students?
- Yes _____ No _____
36. Do you make an effort to change your accent when speaking to an American, or just your pronunciation?
37. Do you find that when you are speaking to an American you tend to sound like them unconsciously?
- Yes _____ No _____

APPENDIX

38. Some students claim that when they first came to the United States they tried to hide their identity. Did you go through this change?
- Yes _____ No _____
39. Suppose you wanted to hide your identity as a Jamaican. How would you go about it?
40. Do you still feel this way? If not, why did you change?
41. A number of Jamaican students have suggested that there is a tendency by the white Americans to identify them with the black Americans. They have indicated that they object. How do you avoid this? Culturally? Linguistically? Other?
42. What is your reaction now when you are identified as (1) a black American? (2) a West Indian?

APPENDIX

43. You have just met a newly arrived student from Jamaica. As you have been here over a period of time, you feel that you can give him/her some pointers to make his/her adjustment easier. What five things would you stress to him/her?
- 1.
 - 2.
 - 3.
 - 4.
 - 5.
44. Suppose you are in a group of Americans who would like some information about your country. What are five things you consider most important for them to know?
- 1.
 - 2.
 - 3.
 - 4.
 - 5.
45. Does it make a difference to you where people think you are from?
- Yes _____ No _____
46. Whenever you want to identify with your culture, what are some of the things that you find yourself doing?

APPENDIX

Part D. Reentry Considerations

47. Are you planning to return to your home country?
Yes _____ No _____
48. When do you anticipate returning home?
49. What do you anticipate about returning home?
50. Where or from whom do you obtain your information about your homeland while you are here?
51. Are you returning home alone_____, with your family_____, with others_____ (please specify)_____
52. How do you feel about the prospect of returning home?
53. What problems do you anticipate facing in your job?
- in your social life?
- in your family?
- in your home?

APPENDIX

54. When was your last trip home?

55. How often have you been able to go back?

56. On your last trip home, what was your reaction to the country?

to the people?

of relatives to you?

to your relatives

to events in your country at the time of your return?

of other people to your overseas experience?

APPENDIX

The following questions were included in the interview:

1. On a scale from 1-5 (five being the gravest) how would you rate the problems you have encountered? Circle the appropriate one below.

1 2 3 4 5

2. On a scale from 1-5 (five being complete adaptation) how would you rate your adaptation to the U.S. culture? Circle the appropriate one below.

1 2 3 4 5

3. On a scale from 1-5 (five being the severest) how would you rate your anticipated reentry problems? Circle the appropriate one below.

1 2 3 4 5

APPENDIX

209 Grinter Hall
University of Florida
Gainesville, Florida 32611

Dear Student:

You have been randomly selected to be interviewed for the study on the experiences and impressions of the Jamaican students at the University of Florida.

The researcher will be getting in touch with you to set up an appointment at your convenience. The interview is scheduled to take no more than thirty minutes.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Otilia Salmon

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Otilia Salmon was born in Tela, Honduras, of Jamaican parents. She was raised in Jamaica and attended Happy Grove Secondary School. After graduating from high school, Otilia worked as a Pupil Teacher (Teacher's Aid) at Mount Vernon Elementary School.

In 1960 she was admitted to St. Joseph's Teachers College from which she graduated in 1961 and obtained her Secondary School Teacher Certificate with honors.

From 1962 to 1964, Otilia worked as a Spanish language teacher at Holy Childhood Secondary School and at the same time, as a Television studio teacher presenter of Spanish programs for the Educational Broadcasting Service.

In 1964 she was granted a Jamaican Government Teachers Scholarship to the University of the West Indies.

Otilia was the recipient of the Abraham Lincoln and Benito Juarez Scholarship in 1967 to Mexico and received her Licenturate in 1970 and Master of Letters in 1971 from the University of Veracruz, Mexico.

From 1972 to 1974 she worked as a Spanish language and literature tutor at Calabar High School and as an

adjunct lecturer at the University of the West Indies in Jamaica.

As an education officer with Spanish language as her special responsibility, Otilia worked for the Government of Jamaica from 1974 to 1975. And soon after, she was awarded a fellowship by UNESCO to study communication at the UNESCO School of Communication in Mexico. After one year she obtained a certificate in educational communication and technology.

Otilia returned to Jamaica and resumed her responsibilities as an education officer with the Government and was given an added responsibility in 1975 as Director of the Teacher Training Spanish Project sponsored by the Organization of the American States.

In 1978 she was granted a fellowship by the Organization of the American States to pursue her doctoral degree at the University of Florida, during which time Otilia has worked as a graduate teaching assistant in the Department of Romance Languages and as a research assistant at the Graduate School and Sponsored Research.

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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This dissertation was submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the Division of Curriculum and Instruction in the College of Education and to the Graduate Council and was accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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