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Predictors of reentry shock in American adolescents who have lived overseas

Fuller, James O'Leary, Ph.D.

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro, 1994

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PREDICTORS OF REENTRY SHOCK IN AMERICAN ADOLESCENTS WHO HAVE LIVED OVERSEAS

by

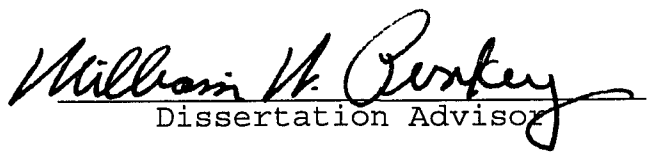
James O. Fuller

A Dissertation Submitted to
the Faculty of the Graduate School at
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy

Greensboro

1994

Approved by



Dissertation Advisor

Fuller, James O., Ph.D. Predictors of Reentry Shock in American Adolescents who Have Lived Overseas. (1994) Directed by Dr. William W. Purkey. 172 pp.

This study was designed to assess the relation between four independent variables: [(1)time overseas, (2) level of psychosocial development, (3) depth of acculturation to a host country, and (4) family functioning] and the amount of reentry shock an adolescent experiences upon return to the United States. The sample was comprised of 87 adolescents , 26 males and 61 females.

Each respondent completed a demographic questionnaire and four assessment scales. The Measures of Psychosocial Development (Hawley, 1988) was administered to measure participants' levels of psychosocial development. An adapted version of the Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican-Americans (Cuellar, Harris, & Jasso, 1980) was administered to measure depth of acculturation to the host culture. The General Functioning Scale of the McMaster Family Assessment Device (Epstein, Baldwin, & Bishop, 1988) was administered to measure healthy or unhealthy family functioning. And the Homecomer's Culture Shock Scale (Fray, 1988) was to measure Reentry Shock. Information regarding Time Overseas was taken from the demographic questionnaire.

A multiple regression was performed with reentry shock as the dependent variable and time overseas, psychosocial development, acculturation to the host culture, and general

family functioning as dependent variables. Data analyses revealed that psychosocial development and depth of acculturation were both significant predictors of reentry shock, but time overseas and family functioning were not. The length of time an adolescent spends overseas did not appear to be the important issue, but rather that which happens over time.

Additional analyses revealed that the fifth scale of the Measures of Psychosocial Development (Hawley, 1988), which measures identity versus identity confusion, could also be used as a predictor of reentry shock. In addition, of the three factors of the Homecomer's Culture Shock Scale (Fray, 1988), Interpersonal Distance, Grief, and Cultural Distance, the factors which appeared to influence reentry shock the most were Interpersonal Distance and Cultural Distance. Grief was not a significant predictor of reentry shock.

APPROVAL PAGE

This dissertation has been approved by the following committee of the Faculty of the Graduate School at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

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January 12, 1994
Date of Acceptance by Committee

January 12, 1994
Date of Final Oral Examination

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my sincere appreciation to my entire committee, Dr. William W. Purkey, Dr. L. DiAnne Borders, Dr. Jonathan R. H. Tudge, and Dr. Lloyd Bond, for the time and energy they spent helping me complete my dissertation. I particularly want to thank Dr. Purkey for his constant encouragement and support. I also want to extend appreciation to Dr. Borders and Dr. Tudge for being willing to read and edit many revisions of different chapters in this project, and for providing me with valuable feedback. In addition, Dr. Bond's insight and cooperation was greatly appreciated in designing and implementing my study.

I also would like to thank several people whose assistance made this project possible: Dr. Clyde Austin of Abilene Christian University allowed me the privilege of using his library of reentry materials; Dr. Brian Tuck gave me hours of assistance in statistical procedure; Dr. Doris Walters, Dr. David Pollock, and Ms. Norma McCaig provided me with lists of Third Culture Kids from their respective organizations. Without these lists of names there would have been no study at all. Lastly, to my family and friends who supported, encouraged, and assisted me I offer my heartfelt thanks.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

"Well, I was kicked out of my country
And then abandoned in this land.
They said it was the best thing for me
But still I cannot understand.
I miss my past, but it's over.
I can't go home until I die.
They've made me neither fish nor fowl now.
I cannot swim, nor can I fly.
Take my hand...please give me shelter.
Show me how...to make a home."

(Reported in Walters, 1991, p. 2)

This anonymous poem was written by an adolescent student after spending many of his/her developmental years in a "host" country, a country other than his/her country of passport. The poem illustrates the difficulty associated with developing a sense of identity in association with two separate cultures without identifying fully with either.

Research has shown that returning to one's home culture (for the purposes of this study, the United States) after a number of years overseas is more difficult than the initial culture shock one experiences when adjusting to the host

culture (e. g., Adler, 1981; Brislin, Cushner, Cherrie, & Yong, 1986; Martin, 1984; Werkman, 1986). Readapting to life in one's home culture is considered the most difficult hurdle to cross in international living (Austin, 1984). For adolescents, such readaptation can be especially difficult (Fontaine, 1986; Goldberg, 1980).

Erikson (1963) postulated that the adolescent phase of life is the time when adolescents seek to integrate all their past experiences into a coherent sense of "sameness" which Erikson called an "ego identity." The ego identity is a composite of past experience matched with one's perception of one's present meaningfulness to others.

Since ego identities are related to one's perception of self and meaningfulness to others, or one's social environment, it is possible, then, that overseas adolescents' identity development is influenced by living in the host, or overseas, culture. As a result, it is also possible that their psychosocial development is different from that of their American counterparts. This difference in psychosocial development could be a significant factor in their continued psychosocial development both in the years immediately after their return to the United States and in later years as well.

Purpose of the Study

This study will investigate psychosocial development as a predictor of reentry shock. Additionally, length of time

in a host culture and depth of acculturation to the host culture will be investigated as factors which interact with psychosocial development in predicting reentry shock. Finally, general family functioning will be investigated as a factor that correlates negatively with the experience of reentry shock.

Need for the Study

Approximately 1,700,000 Americans live overseas. The majority of these people are military personnel and their family members. The next two largest groups are from the private sector and government, respectively. Upon returning to the United States, many face serious mental health problems which stem from three distinct phases of overseas living: leaving the United States to live in a foreign country, settling in the foreign country, and returning from the foreign country to live in the United States (Werkman, 1986).

The number of school-age Americans living overseas has grown in the last 40 years to approximately 250,000 (Kuhns, 1992). The names that have been given to these youngsters have been many. The three most common are Third Culture Kids (TCKs; Van Reken, 1984), Global Nomads (McCaig, 1992), and Overseas Brats (McCaig, 1992).

When these overseas adolescents return, counselors and other helping professionals work with them as scientists and as practitioners as described by Vacc and Loesch (1987).

With regard to the former, counselors are ethically bound to do research in order to gain a greater understanding of their clientele. As practitioners, counselors are expected to practically implement the finding of research into their counseling practice. By being accountable to the profession, the client, and themselves, counselors are more likely to offer high quality service to their clients, and to assist their clients in meeting counseling goals and objectives. The clientele in this study who need to be studied and served are adolescents who have lived in a country other than their country of passport for at least one year during their school-age years.

Most returnees will experience a degree of reentry shock. As with culture shock, this can range from mild discomfort to severe psychological disturbance (Werkman, 1986). Discovering whether the rate of psychosocial development (Wrobbel, 1988), length of time overseas (Uehara, 1986), depth of acculturation (Berry, 1989) to the foreign (host) culture, and family functioning (Fray, 1988) are factors involved in readjusting to life in the United States will assist counselors who are working with such individuals and families to be more effective in developing treatment plans and working within families to bring about successful readjustment. If adolescents who are experiencing reentry shock can be detected, they also can be assisted by trained counselors to make smooth transitions from the host cultures

to their home culture. Given that adolescence is a turbulent time at best (Goldberg, 1980), successful intervention with adolescents who are experiencing reentry shock may help them avoid further developmental delays or emotional disturbances.

Psychosocial development in cultural context. Erikson (1959) stated that identity development is not isolated from the environment in which one lives. For Erikson, one's identity is directly tied to his/her external world.

> It is this identity of something in the individual's core with an essential aspect of a group's inner coherence which is under consideration here: for the young individual must learn to be most himself where he means most to others---those others, to be sure, who have come to mean most to him. The term identity connotes both a persistent sameness within oneself (selfsameness) and a persistent sharing of some kind of essential character with others. (Erikson, 1959, p. 102)

Erikson (1959) indicated that even the "sense" of the inner identity cannot be considered apart from one's interaction with, help from, and relationship with others. In other words, identity development cannot be considered apart from the social and cultural context.

Other child development experts agree with Erikson. Tudge and Winterhoff (in press), in a review of the literature, compared the theories of Vygotsky, Piaget, and Bandura. The reviewers concluded that all three theorists asserted that human development is socially and culturally based from birth, though the three approached the concept

from different perspectives and with different emphases. The apprenticeship model of Rogoff (1990) and the co-constructionist model of Valsiner (1989) also support the idea that social/cultural facors influence human development.

Culture shock and cross-cultural adjustment. Difficulties in adaptation have commonly been labeled "culture shock," a phenomenon that works against the adjustment process. Adler (1975) defines culture shock as a form of anxiety which results from the misunderstanding of commonly perceived and understood signs and symbols of social interaction. Descriptions of culture shock experiences range from mild irritability to panic and crisis (Hoopes, 1981). It is a common problem among those who are living in another country and facing adaptation and adjustment (Adler, 1975).

Culture shock is also thought of as a set of emotional reactions to the loss of familiar reinforcements from one's own culture. These are replaced by new cultural stimuli which have little or no meaning, and by new and diverse experiences which are often misunderstood (Adler, 1975).

Acculturation. Adaptation occurs when conflicts between the two cultures and stress associated with cross-cultural migration are reduced or stabalized. Conflicts are experienced in the areas of customs, values, thought and communication processes, behaviors, and psychological characteristics of the two cultures. Stress is often associated with the felt need to change to meet the demands of the new

culture. This end result, the reduction of conflict and stress, is often referred to as the being "acculturated" (Berry, 1989) and involves assimilation, integration, and deculturation (i.e., the reduction or loss of one's home culture) (Sodowsky, Lai, & Plake, 1992). Acculturation has been shown to be a factor in life satisfaction (Suinn, Rickard-Figueroa, Lew, & Vigil, 1987), counselor competence (Gim, Atkinson, & Kim, 1991), therapy effectiveness (Cuellar, Harris, & Jasso, 1980; Hess & Street, 1991), and degree of acceptance of host country values (Hanassab, 1991). Among all these researchers there is agreement that the depth of acculturation one reaches in the host culture is negatively correlated with culture shock. In other words, if one is experiencing much culture shock, he/she is not deeply acculturated to that culture.

Reacculturation and reentry. Another instance of adjustment, much less considered than culture shock, is readjustment to one's home culture (for the purposes of this study, the United States) after living in a "host" (foreign) culture for a number of years. This readjustment which accompanies relocation from a foreign culture to one's own culture is known as reacculturation or reentry (Martin, 1984). It is the process of re-adapting to one's home culture after having lived in a host culture. Freedman (1986) noted three stages to the reacculturation process: conflict resulting from the inability to re-establish one's

life in the home culture, destruction of the hopeful expectations of friends and family left behind, and renegotiation of new and mutually acceptable expectations. The result is a mixture of what one was before leaving the home culture and the newly obtained knowledge and experiences associated with the host culture (Boley, 1986).

It has been said that readapting to an American way of life after living overseas is, for many people, the most difficult obstacle to face when considering the total experience of international living (Austin, 1984). Long-term residents overseas experience extended, serious difficulties in adjustment when they return to the United States (Austin & Jones, 1987).

A person who endures and adapts to the new way of life in the host culture may find returning to the United States exceedingly difficult. It has been described as experiencing culture shock upon return home (Adler, 1981; Sobie, 1986; Stelling, 1991). The return home elicits surface feelings of separation and loss and, subsequently, feelings of grief (Hernton, 1978; Stelling, 1991; Stringham, 1990; Werkman, 1979). Returnees find themselves giving up new friends, newly acquired family customs, and favorite places. They abandon the cultural supports on which they have learned to depend for security. Their readjustment to the United States may take place among feelings of uncertainty, alienation, anger, and disappointment (Werkman, 1986).

Third culture kids' adjustment: understanding and integration.

Although TCKs grow up in a foreign culture, they usually do not totally integrate into that culture, and yet, when returning home, they do not integrate well there, either (Schimmels, 1983). They have difficulty understanding the pop lingo and the expectations (environmental communications) of others, especially their peers (Useem & Downie, 1976). They are not readily able to comprehend the American cultural code.

"Cultural code" refers to the concept that all that is within the range of human interaction has meaning. A culture's code would include interpretations of silence, smiles, touch, dress, selection or type of dress, taste in music, and much more. Unfamiliarity with a culture's code can result in disorientation and culture shock (Hoopes, 1981). In the case of returning to the United States, individuals would experience reverse culture shock or re-entry shock.

Impact of the family. Parents' attitudes have a tremendous impact on the way their children adjust to cross-cultural change (Werkman, 1977). A supportive family climate helps them consolidate changes by teaching ways to maintain equilibrium and establish a sense of direction. When dealing with a cross-cultural move, families need patterns of communication that clarify new expectations and

commitments (Goldberg, 1980). Researchers of overseas families have shown that individuals who come from families that provide positive support and a positive attitude about cross-cultural moves tend to make the transition more easily (Eakin, 1979; Fray, 1976; Goldberg, 1980, Yost, 1990).

Rationale for the Study

As stated above, it is estimated that there are 1,700,000 United States citizens living outside the United States. Of this number, 250,000 are school-age children. The majority of these children will return to the United States by the time they enter their first year of college.

Although much has been written on reentry shock, and even more on culture shock, most of the literature to date is anecdotal in nature. No studies were found which used quantitative measures to investigate the developmental process that adolescents experience while living outside the United States. Yet evidence from the literature supports the idea the adolescent development is affected by an overseas sojourn. Many of the anecdotal reports of sojourners' experiences refer to differences in development of children and adolescents, but no research with quantitative measures of overseas adolescent psychosocial development was located.

The research questions for this study are supported throughout the literature on reentry. Several authors believe that the rate of adolescent psychosocial development

is changed by virtue of interaction with a host culture (Salmon, 1987; Schimmels, 1983; To the Point, 1974).

In addition, the literature on reentry supports several factors that could interact with and, possibly, affect an adolescent's psychosocial development, and as a result, affect his/her readjustment to his/her home culture. Four such factors supported by the literature are depth of acculturation to the host culture, length of time overseas, culture distance, and family functioning.

Depth of acculturation to the host culture has been found to be a significant factor in an overseas sojourner's return experience. Brislin and Van Buren (1974) indicated that the degree to which a person aculturates to the host culture will affect that person's readjustment to their home culture. Sussman (1986) reasoned that sojourners change in terms of values, attitudes, and perceptions, and then integrate these changes into their cultural behavior. When they return to the home culture, they face the same or similar changes. This type of readaptation represents pain and difficulty in reentry (Sussman, 1986). Depth of acculturation can, therefore, be considered a significant factor in readjustment.

Length of time overseas also has been found by some researchers to be significant in the reentry process (Hanson, 1992; Lynch & Hanson, 1992; Stelling, 1991; "Elite? Not in the U.S.," 1974; Wrobbel, 1988). Both Gordon Parsons and

Dr. Ruth Useem, a respected reentry researcher, in an interview with To the Point (1974) "...agreed that the less time spent out of the US in a foreign culture the better the chances for readjustment" (p. 35). Stelling (1991), in a survey of 134 missionaries, found that the number of years a person spent overseas as a missionary kid (MK) correlated positively with reentry shock. Other cross-cultural researchers also have indicated that length of time in the host culture will influence one's cultural identity (Hanson, 1992; Lynch & Hanson, 1992). On the other hand, Uehara (1986) and Shepherd (1976) found that length of time overseas was not a significant factor in reentry shock. Theirs were the only studies found that reported no significant difference based on length of time overseas.

Culture distance, as described by Babiker, Cox, and Miller (1980), can be considered to be a major underlying factor in a cross-cultural sojourner's experiences of stress and other related handicaps. Stelling (1991) and Stringham (1990) found that missionaries who experience and assimilate into host cultures that are highly dissimilar to their home culture are at a higher risk for reentry shock than are individuals who experience and assimilate into more similar cultures. Similar findings have been recorded for cross-cultural sojourners in general (Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963; Martin, 1984).

Family functioning as related to reentry shock was studied in depth by Fray (1988). He used a measurement of family cohesion and family adaptability as a predictor of the amount of culture shock an individual will experience upon returning to the United States. He concluded that family functioning and the family's ability to foster independence and individuation in its members are associated with decreased problems with culture shock and reentry shock. "TCKs from families that permit autonomy, yet foster family togetherness (balanced cohesion), and TCKs from families which are able to adjust family rules in the face of developmental or situational changes (balanced adaptability) tend to experience less culture shock" (p. 95).

Definition of Terms

The following terms will be used throughout the remainder of this study. Since there are occasions in the literature where discrepancies occur between authors with regard to the meanings of some terms, the definitions below are given for the purpose of clarity and understanding.

Acculturation is defined as "the process through which an individual adapts to a culture different from the one into which he or she was born" (Hanassab, 1991). It is commonly considered to be a move from one's home culture to a host culture which involves a cultural adjustment (Martin, 1984).

Culture distance is a term used to indicate how different other cultures are from the culture of the United States with regard to climate, geography, economic resources, and socio-cultural patterns. Furnham and Bochner (1986) use the term "near" for those cultures that demonstrate similarity to the home culture, "intermediate" for those cultures with some characteristics similar to the home culture and some characteristics different from the home culture, and "far" for those cultures most dissimilar to the home culture. This term is used interchangeably with cultural distance.

Culture shock is described as a form of anxiety which is the product of misunderstanding commonly perceived and understood signs and symbols in particular social or cultural interactions. It can range from mild irritability to more serious disorders such as panic or crisis, and it may include feelings of helplessness, fear, and alienation (Adler, 1975).

Family functioning described by Epstein, Baldwin, and Bishop (1987) as the overall health of the family, includes six areas: problem solving, communication, roles, affective responsiveness, affective involvement, and behavior control.

Global Nomad is the term used to designate "those who have spent pre-adult years outside their country of passport because of a parent's occupation" (McCaig, 1992, p. 2). The term has implications of "global awareness, skills of adaptation, appreciation of cultural diversity, adventuresome

spirit and willingness to risk change" (McCaig, 1992, p. 1) on the positive side, and "the grief, the sense of belonging everywhere and nowhere, indecisiveness, uncertain cultural identity and difficulty with commitment" (McCaig, 1992, p. 1) on the negative side.

Reentry is the task of readapting or making the transition to one's "home" culture after living in a "host" or foreign culture (Adler, 1981; Werkman, 1986).

Reentry shock is "...defined as 'temporal psychological difficulties that a returnee experiences in the initial stage of the adjustment process at home after having lived abroad'" (Uehara, 1986). Reentry shock is closely related to culture shock in its outworkings (Corey, 1979).

Third Culture is a marginal culture, created by children who perceive themselves to be neither a part of their culture of residence nor a part of their parents' culture. This "...third culture...is created, shared, and carried by persons who are relating societies, or sections thereof, to each other" (Useem & Downie, 1976, p. 103).

Third Culture Kids (TCKs) is a term used to designate individuals who have spent a significant amount of their developmental years in one or more cultures other than the one considered to be their home culture. In an attempt to make an adjustment to the many different influences at work in a situation that may have representatives from several cultures, these individuals combine aspects of the different

cultures into a "third culture" (VanReken, 1985). As a result of the personalities and cultures involved, each "third culture" will be unique. For the purposes of this study, Global Nomads and Third Culture Kids will be used interchangeably to refer to American adolescents who have lived outside the United States.

Research Questions

1. Does adolescent development, as explained by Erikson's stages and measured by the Measure of Psychosocial Development (MPD; Hawley, 1988), proceed at a different rate in a culture foreign to the United States? If so, does this difference serve as a factor in and a predictor of reentry shock, as measured by the Homecomers Culture Shock Scale (HCSS; Fray, 1988)? Are there relationships between adolescent psychosocial development and the three factors of the HCSS, Cultural Distance, Interpersonal Distance, and Grief?

a. Does length of time overseas act in conjunction with adolescent psychosocial development as a factor in predicting reentry shock? Are there relationships between length of time overseas and the three factors of the HCSS?

b. Does acculturation to the foreign (host) culture, as measured by an adapted version of the Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican Americans (ARSMA; Cuellar et al., 1980), act in conjunction with adolescent psychosocial development and length of time overseas as a factor in predicting reen

try shock? Are there relationships between depth of acculturation and the three factors of the HCSS?

c. Does perceived family functioning, as measured by the General Functioning scale of the McMaster Family Assessment Device (FAD; Epstein, Baldwin, & Bishop, 1983), act in conjunction with psychosocial development as a factor in predicting the degree of reentry shock that an adolescent will experience upon return to the United States? Is there a relationship between perceived family functioning and each of the three factors of the HCSS?

2. Is there a relationship between an adolescent's perception of the distance between his/her host culture and the United States, as measured by self-report, and his/her perception of personal cultural distance from the United States, as measured by the HCSS?

Limitations of the Study

The sample for the study was selected from individuals in the late adolescent range, ages 17 years to 20 years, who volunteered to participate and who had lived at least one year of their school-age years in a host culture. They represented individuals who are interested in the difficulties of overseas living as it relates to reentry. They may not be representative of all of the adolescents who have spent one year or more overseas during the school-age years. Since the sample was made up of volunteers, a random sample was not possible.

A second limitation was that the population sample was skewed toward the latter end of the adolescent range. The logical time for most adolescents to return to the United States is at the time when they plan to enter college. Therefore, there is a larger number of reentering adolescents at the college age than at other ages. Because of this fact, there are other variables which are not being considered by this study (for example, separation from parents and family) that could interfere with expected results.

A third limitation related to the design of the study. With a complex 2 X 2 X 2 factorial analysis of variance with Time Overseas considered as a continuous variable, there was difficulty getting a large enough N in each interaction cell to make comparisons valid. Accordingly, the researcher chose a less powerful, unbalanced design, in this case a regression analysis.

A fourth limitation was with regard to the participants' setting for completing the instruments. In that the materials were mailed to the participants, no control could be exercised over the conditions for their completion of the materials. It is not possible to know if answers were given without input from others who may have been present or if the participants' focus was on the materials at all. Two participants reported in the comment section that their answers may not be coherent due to the amount of distraction

in their rooms at the time that they were completing the materials.

A fifth limitation related to the generalizability of the finding. Since the sample was not a random sample, and since volunteers were used who, by virtue of volunteering could be different from the general population, the results may not be generalized beyond the volunteers in the research project.

Organization of the Study

This chapter has examined the difficulties that many people experience when they make a cross-cultural move from the standpoint of culture shock and reentry shock or readaptation. It has also dealt with the development of a third culture which is not rooted in geography, but in people and circumstances. Finally, the impact of the family on the cross-cultural sojourner has been reviewed.

The study is organized in five chapters. Chapter One has been an introduction to the problem of adolescent reentry and its relation to psychosocial development, acculturation to the host culture, time overseas, and family functioning. Chapter Two is a review of the related literature. Chapter Three is an explanation of the methodology for the study. Chapter Four is a report of the results of the study. Chapter Five is a discussion of the results of the study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

Werkman (1986) described an overseas move as happening in three stages: (1) leaving, which involves disconnecting from family, friends, and other familiar aspects of the home country; (2) settling in, which has been called an acculturation process (Shepherd, 1976), including the experience of culture shock; and (3) reentry.

This chapter will consider the literature that deals with the social and cultural context of psychosocial development, the impact of a move from one's home culture to a foreign culture, the impact of a move from a foreign culture back to one's home culture, and the effect of family functioning on an adolescent who is involved in cross-cultural relocation.

Aspects of Reentry

Psychosocial Development in Cultural Context

Culture is vitally important to a child's or adolescent's sense of security and satisfaction. People live within cultural groups composed of personal and social relationships which define who they are. Cultural groups provide people with their identities which will be a major dimension of the "self" (Hoopes, 1981). The culture group,

including the natural, social, and personal environments, supports and affirms the individuals' roles and identities which have been developed. It is within this nurturing environment that most people feel comfortable (Hoopes, 1981).

Erikson (1968) discussed identity in terms a person's being able to sustain a sameness and continuity even when confronted with changing circumstances. He asserted that identity is not a closed system, but is "a psychosocial process which preserves some essential features in the individual as well as his society" (p. 96). In other words, who one is, or one's identity, incorporates aspects of one's social and cultural milieu as well as one's individual personality (Erikson, 1968).

> To develop a child with a healthy personality, a parent must be a genuine person in a genuine milieu....Rapid changes in the milieu often make it hard to know whether one must be genuine <u>against</u> a changing milieu or whether one may hope for a chance to do one's bit in the way of bettering or stabilizing conditions....Children sensitively reflect the milieu in which they grow up. (Erikson, 1959, p. 99)

Erikson (1959) described the development of ego identities as "certain comprehensive gains which the individual, at the end of adolescence, must have derived from all of his preadult experience in order to be ready for the tasks of adulthood" (p. 101). Other researchers (Gray, Ipsa, & Thornburg, 1986) have supported Erikson's lifespan approach

to development which reinforces the combination and integration of present and past behaviors.

Arehart and Smith (1990), in a study of 42 delinquent adolescents, concluded that present life circumstances may influence the consolidation of adolescents' identity. In addition, the process of integrating past and present behaviors into a coherent identity is dependent on the social and cultural context. The context, then, is coordinated with the changing self. The context, which may include social or cultural transitions, cannot be ignored as an important variable in studying adolescent development (Arehart & Smith, 1990). Torbiorn (1982) stated that the culture of a country will color individuals' views of themselves. Their self-image will probably be defined in terms derived from the culture to which they belong.

Dusek, Carter, and Levy (1986) considered the resolution of crises associated with Erikson's stages to be of extreme importance. They suggested three dimensions to the resolution of developmental crises: (1) the resolution tempers the manner in which the individual perceives and experiences events; (2) the resolution determines the individual's behavior, particularly overt behavior that is observable by others; (3) crisis resolution impacts on inner states such as belief systems. In their study of 272 undergraduate psychology students, resolution of psychological crises was clearly and meaningfully linked with their self

understanding and, therefore, their identity development (Dusek et al., 1986).

Hamachek (1985) focused his research on the first five stages of Erikson's model. He regarded them to be fundamental to all that happens after them. Therefore, it is logical, according to Hamachek, that any retardation or acceleration at any stage in the model will result in differences or difficulties in development at later stages. Hamachek emphasized early development for the purpose of discovering how and why individuals develop in certain directions.

Early development as a component in later development was identified as a crucial component of the development of the U. S. adolescent living overseas. Cottrell and Useem (1993) surveyed 700 adult Third Culture Kids and concluded that adolescence for the overseas youth is prolonged when compared to their monocultural counterparts. In terms of Hamachek's premise stated above, these adolescents' development was retarded in stage five of Erikson's model (i.e., Identity versus Identity Confusion) which, in turn, affected their development through the remaining three stages.

For the adolescent growing up overseas, an extended period of dependence on parents and the often-restricted behaviors dictated by the cross-cultural setting, their contexts, work in opposition to the completion of Erikson's developmental tasks, especially the task of identity forma-

tion which is associated with stage five (Salmon, 1987). Wrobbel and Plueddemann (1990), in a study of 292 adult missionary kids, found that their psychosocial development was lower than that of the adult comparison group norms. Wrobbel and Plueddemann (1990) concluded that these adult missionary kids (MKs) did not resolve psychosocial crises as well as adults who had only lived in the United States.

In the process of adapting to their own cross-cultural experiences, individuals learn that all persons are culture-bound to some degree. That is to say, they are products of the culture(s) in which they have lived (Stevenson-Moessner, 1986). In this regard, Erikson (1968) introduced the concept of cultural consolidation. All cultures provide certain coordinates by which individuals organize their personal worlds and, thereby, live successfully in everyday life (Erikson, 1968). The culture provides some sense of identity, rules, and regulations of behavior and a sense of belonging. Erikson (1959) stated that the process of identity "...expresses such a mutual relation in that it connotes both a persistent sameness within oneself (selfsameness) and a persistent sharing of some kind of essential character with others" (p. 102). Identity is developed in social and cultural context, and from such an identity individuals glean a sense of personal self or self-esteem, a sense of security in terms of understanding the expectations of the

culture, and a way to evaluate their self-worth (Sider, 1986).

Reasoning from an international sojourner's perspective and responding to Erikson's "cultural consolidation," Stevenson-Moessner (1986) introduced the term "cultural dissolution," which is "the fragmentation of cultural identity into its distinct cultural components" (p. 313). This process prevents the consolidation which is necessary in order for a cultural identity to form. The result, which is commonly observed in children and adolescents who have lived in more than one culture, is a cultural confusion (Stevenson-Moessner, 1986).

The established sense of self is vital to the Global Nomad. Not all cultures cultivate the same structure of self or emphasize the same dimensions of self. What is validating to a person is closely related to what constitutes his/her identity or sense of self (Ishiyama & Westwood, 1992). Different cultures embrace different individual and developmental goals for identity development, based on different activities and social relationships. This can be confusing for the developing child or adolescent (Erikson, 1963, 1968; Ishiyama & Westwood, 1992).

Cross-Cultural Transitions

"Cross-cultural experiences" is a term that has been used to describe events associated with a variety of groups. Adler (1975) described cross-cultural experiences as those

happening to minority students entering college, parolees leaving prison, veterans returning home, married couples who are divorcing, and those changing roles or occupations in midcareer (Adler, 1975). Cross-cultural experiences also happen to those who move to foreign cultures and those who move back to the United States after living in a foreign culture. Such moves have a significant impact on anyone who is required to make them.

Approximately 1,700,000 Americans live outside the United States (Werkman, 1986). The adults in this number are missionaries, visiting professors, teachers, employees of international and multinational corporations, financial institutions, international organizations, and the United States government. They are usually highly educated people (Useem & Downie, 1976).

Military personnel and their families have the greatest number overseas with 1,375,000, followed by people in the private sector with 236,000 and government employees with 110,000. Of civilian adults, the largest categories in descending order are religious workers, engineers, teachers, scientists, and technicians (Werkman, 1986). Children and adolescents overseas attending international or Department of Defense schools number approximately 250,000 (McCaig, 1992).

Transitions. "Transition," according to Schlossberg (1984), includes crisis, transformation, and change. It is

defined as any event or nonevent that results in change in relationships, routines, assumptions, and/or economics. Adler (1975) described a cross-cultural transitional experience as a movement from a state of low self- and cultural awareness to a state of high self- and cultural awareness.

Transitions include obvious life changes such as marriage, arrival of a new child in the family, getting a job, relocation, etc. They include less obvious changes as well, such as loss of motivation to succeed or the non-occurrence of something that was expected. Transitions are a process over time which include progressive assimilation and continuous appraisal (Schlossberg, 1984). For those people experiencing cross-cultural relocations, both the physical and psychological transitions are significant.

Schlossberg's (1984) work is focused on adults. She did, however, refer to adolescents in defining her theory of transitions. She stated that life events or transitions are more important in understanding and evaluating a person's behavior than chronological age. She supported approaches to transitions that involve lifespan development or a life-event framework. From the standpoint of these types of approaches, a person's critical events play a key role in his/her individual development, giving shape and direction to each aspect of the individual's life. Dealing with transitions involves exploring, understanding, and coping with what is happening in one's life (Schlossberg, 1984).

Transitional experience relating to cross-cultural experience, begins with an encounter with another culture and ends with an encounter with one's self. Erikson (1964) suggested that each person who graduates from one level to another in the realm of human development must deal with the fact that current familiar positions must be examined, challenged, and possibly abandoned.

When making the transition to a foreign culture, most people continue to act in the ways that are normal to them (Freedman, 1980). This leads to disillusionment because their expectations are not met. Residents of the foreign land do not accept their behavior as proper. Overseas sojourners are then faced with three choices: (a) continue to behave in the same ways (i.e., the ways comfortable to them) regardless of whether or not this is acceptable to the residents; (b) leave the foreign culture, either physically or psychologically; or (c) adapt to the expectations of the foreign culture, even if that means sacrificing something of themselves (Freedman, 1980). When the decision has been made to adapt, people take the necessary actions to do so. They do such things as choosing guides or mentors to help them understand the new culture, and choosing "safe" places where they can retreat from the tensions and frustrations of the overwhelming new environment (Freedman, 1980).

By way of understanding the cross-cultural transition, it is important to look at three aspects of overseas living:

leaving the U.S. for the first time, settling into life in a foreign or "host" country and culture, and being uprooted to live once again in the U.S. (Werkman, 1986).

Leaving the U.S. the first time requires that the "leaver" give up ties with relatives and friends, give up social and cultural support systems that they may have developed in the United States, and then try to find substitutes in the new country. Leaving involves separation and loss that may have important consequences as far as the international sojourner's later adaptation to the host culture is concerned. Leaving is easier for younger individuals and families. Older individuals and families who have already made significant (life-defining) commitments in the United States find the idea of moving overseas more disruptive and laborious (Werkman, 1986).

Settling in usually requires a reorganization of the family (Werkman, 1986). Fathers, who tend to have been selected for their competence and value in their field, often are required to travel frequently. They also become highly visible representatives of the United States in the city where they work. As a result of the fathers' travel, a greater burden for raising the children is placed on the mothers, who are experiencing a significant cultural transition themselves. These and other family changes may place stress on the marriage relationship. The husbands have unusual demands placed on them at work, and the wives face

the challenges of being in charge of the households without the support of the network of family and friends that they had in their homeland. In their new cultural setting, there is usually little opportunity for wives to work outside the home. Often the situation described above leads to problems for mothers such as drinking, depression, or other incapacitating symptoms that interfere with their ability to care for the children (Werkman, 1986).

Even the addition of a maid or house servant can be stressful for the overseas family. This person's close contact with the family makes him/her a significant member of the household. This addition can be positive, but it can also interfere with the smooth functioning of a family (Werkman, 1986).

There is much "newness" in moving overseas: culture, language, friends, neighborhoods, schools, social and recreational activities. All of these things and more require adaptation. The stress associated with mobility can lead to anxiety, low self-esteem, withdrawal, and regression. If allowed to continue to their extremes, adolescents can experience personality and behavior disorders, family violence, substance abuse, temptation to run away, and failure in school (Goldberg, 1980).

According to Adler (1975) there are five phases of a cross-cultural transitional experience. The first phase is contact. Individuals at this phase continue to be function-

ally integrated into their own culture. The new culture is viewed from the standpoint of ethnocentrism. This phase is marked by excitement and euphoria. The individual is more attuned to similarities than differences between his/her home and host culture. Similarities are validations of one's own cultural status, role, and identity.

The second phase is disintegration, which is characterized by disorientation and confusion. Cultural differences are increasingly noticeable and somewhat intrusive. Cultural distinctions yield tension and frustration, which in turn lead to an increasing inability to make interpersonal and social predictions. The individual experiences a growing sense of being different, isolated, and inadequate to meet the new demands. Bewilderment, alienation, depression, and withdrawal yield a disintegration of the individual's personality. This disintegration results from a lack of understanding of his/her individual identity in the new cultural situation.

The third phase is reintegration, which is described as a strong rejection of the second culture. Reintegration is accomplished through forming stereotypes and generalizations and by evaluating and judging behaviors and attitudes. As a result of not understanding what one is experiencing, the cross-cultural traveler may feel hostility toward the new culture. Such an individual may seek out relationships only with persons of his/her own culture. However, these nega-

tive feelings may be a healthy sign. They may show that the person is growing in terms of his/her cultural awareness, and in terms of being able to do something about his/her feelings.

The fourth phase discussed by Adler (1975) is autonomy, noted by a marked increase in sensitivity and by the acquisition of both skill and understanding of the second culture. In this stage persons become less defensive and more relaxed and capable in verbal and nonverbal interactions with other people. At this point they may regard themselves as experts on the second culture, though their skill and understanding may not be as deep as they think. This phase is marked by personal flexibility and by the development of coping skills for the second culture.

Adler's (1975) fifth and last phase is independence. Adler described this phase as characterized by attitudes, emotions, and behaviors that are independent of, but not free from, cultural influence. Individuals can accept and glean from cultural differences and similarities; they are capable of giving as well as receiving trust and sensitivity; they are able to view themselves and others as individual human beings influenced by social and cultural factors; they can be expressive, humorous, creative, and capable of understanding those situations which had previously been a source of confusion. The individual is now able to experi

ence new transitions in life, which will open them to new vistas of human experience and diversity (Adler, 1975).

A key factor in working with cross-cultural sojourners who are experiencing culture shock is to understand the process of cross-cultural adjustment. This adjustment has been variously described by a series of phases (Adler, 1975) or pictorially as the U-shaped curve (Brein & David, 1971; Furnham & Bochner, 1986; Torbiorn, 1982). Adler's phases can be noted within the description of the U-shaped curve.

The U-shaped curve or U-curve of adjustment has been attributed to Lysgaard, who conducted a study of 200 Norwegian Fulbright scholars in the U.S. in 1955. He delineated three phases that sojourners experience: the initial adjustment phase, the crisis phase, and the regained adjustment phase. Lysgaard implied that the total process takes about 20 months, with the low point of the curve happening at between 6 and 18 months (Furnham & Bochner, 1986).

Regarding the U-curve hypothesis of cultural adjustment, Furnham and Bochner (1986) believed it is too vague and inconclusive to be of any use in understanding cross-cultural adjustment. They described it as a "post hoc description that has focused too much on single-outcome variables rather than on the dynamics or process of adjustment" (p. 132). They also believed that there may be something about the U-curve that could be useful, but much more comprehensive study is needed to discover its usefulness (Furn-

ham & Bochner, 1986). In this instance, Furnham and Bochner (1986) are in the minority. No other instances in the literature were found that did not endorse the U-shaped curve as an accurate portrayal of the process of adaptation to a host culture. To the contrary, many use the U-shape curve hypothesis as the basis for their work with cross-cultural sojourners (Brein & David, 1971; Freedman, 1986; Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963; Lundstedt, 1963; Martin, 1984; Torbiorn, 1982).

Adolescent development and transitional experiences. According to Goldberg (1980), early adolescents are in the midst of the hormone "attack." Under the best of circumstances, this period in adolescents' lives is uncertain and emotional. Mobility can increase their feelings of disorientation or intensify their emotional episodes. In order to appear "normal," many adolescents who are experiencing these feelings will hide or deny them. They have a need to clarify and understand their fears about their physical and psychological health, and by doing so, clarifying their identity (Goldberg, 1980).

Goldberg (1980) noted several ways that adolescents "suffer" during relocation. One is related to peer relationships and newcomer anxiety. As a result of a move, adolescents lose reference points that have helped them to know what to say and do prior to the relocation. Social status is dependent on winning the respect of the group,

which may involve a shift in values, social skills, and activities. In addition, adolescents' main needs are for acceptance and personal accomplishment, and not necessarily in realms that are pleasing to parents (Goldberg, 1980). Relatedly, Eakin (1979) delineated four practical results of a mobile lifestyle: (1) being resigned to live alone or having to be instantly gregarious; (2) lack of certainty regarding self; (3) loosely rooted values; and (4) living for the moment (i.e., looking more for immediate gratification rather than working out long-term goals). All four of these potential results are applicable to the psychosocial crisis of developing adolescents and are consistent with the transitional relocation experiences of adolescents.

For adolescents, moving overseas can be unsettling and emotionally debilitating. Rendahl (1978), a former member of the Foreign Service, delineated a number of common problems that they experience overseas: They are often overexposed to stressful situations, including potential political disturbances, the possibility of war, anti-American feelings and natural disasters. In addition, they exhibit cultural discontinuity, which is intensified by separation from friends, extended family, readily available material goods, and familiar foods. In a practical sense, they lack adequate exposure to career options in schools and in their everyday life. They travel constantly and sometimes develop a "travel-bug" syndrome, a desire to perpetuate their travel

experiences. They feel as though they are constantly on display, the "fish-bowl" syndrome, and they are often without a continuing peer group as a result of frequent relocation.

Culture Shock and Cross-Cultural Relocation

Culture shock. When transitional relocations involve a cross-cultural move, they are accompanied by culture shock, a form of anxiety which results from the misunderstanding of commonly perceived and understood signs and symbols of social interaction in one's home culture (Adler, 1975). Oberg (cited in Furnham & Bochner, 1986) described culture shock as the idea that entering a new culture is potentially a confusing and disorientating experience. This concept has been widely used (and misused) to explain the problems in crossing cultures.

Culture shock is precipitated by anxiety that results from losing all familiar signs and symbols of social interaction. Bock (cited in Furnham & Bochner, 1986, p. 49) described culture shock as an emotional reaction to the inability to understand, control, or predict another's behavior. It is a stress reaction where salient psychological and physical rewards are uncertain and, therefore, difficult to control or predict.

Adler (1975) indicated that not everyone who has a cross-cultural transitional experience grows in their cultural understanding. Many Americans see themselves as

culture-free and, therefore, have tendencies towards being shocked by culture. For many Americans, culture is something that foreigners have. Because of this ethnocentrism, it has been suggested that Americans might have more difficulties with understanding their cultural identity, and, therefore, have more difficulties with cultural transitions; that is, they experience more intense culture shock (Adler, 1975).

Culture shock is a concept that has been studied in depth by many researchers and theorists (Adler, 1975; Austin, 1986; Furnham & Bochner, 1986). Although several consider culture shock to be a positive experience from the standpoint of end results (Adler, 1975; Austin, 1986; Furnham & Bochner, 1986), the term as generally used by both researchers, theorists, and lay persons represents the painful results of travel. For the purposes of this research project, it is important to understand the basic concept of culture shock and the results of culture shock in order to then understand the concept of reentry shock and the results of reentry shock.

Adler (1975) described the culture shock experience as taking place in the second phase of his five phases of transitional experience. The consequences of culture shock during that phase are described as ranging from mild irritability to panic and crisis. In a fundamental sense, it is a set of emotional reactions to the loss of perceptual rein-

forcements from one's own culture and an introduction to new cultural stimuli which have little or no meaning. In addition, there is misunderstanding of new and diverse experiences. These "misunderstandings" may result in feelings of helplessness, irritability, and fears of being cheated, contaminated, injured, or disregarded. In one sense, culture shock is a form of alienation; in another, it is an attempt to comprehend, survive in, and grow through immersion in a second culture (Adler, 1975). Furnham and Bochner (1986) described the results of culture shock as anxiety, confusion, apathy, loss of points of reference, powerlessness, meaninglessness, normlessness, self-and social estrangement, social isolation, lack of self-confidence, distrust of others, loss of inventiveness and spontaneity, and obsessive concern with orderliness. It is logical to conclude that culture shock is not experienced by cross-cultural sojourners as a positive, growth experience.

The effects of culture shock can be intense. Ishiyama and Westwood (1992) described people who are experiencing culture shock as having a sense of uprootedness and cultural dislocation. These feelings surface when one realizes that certain activities and relationships that were significant sources of self-validation are no longer available or accessible. Other problems that cross-cultural migration may cause are communication difficulties, self-doubt, loss of self-confidence, denial of one's feelings and ideas, and

failure to view one's feelings and ideas as legitimate. Impotence and helplessness can occur after a series of failures in adjustment attempts. Many cross-cultural sojourners experience feelings of unimportance, unworthiness, and depression. Their sense of identity and belonging are threatened and they feel a loss of the reference groups who have supported them in their understanding of themselves. They feel as though they do not belong to any group with which they share a sense of reality. They do not understand the rules of the host culture or of the home culture. They think they might be punished or undervalued because of culturally different values and behaviors (Ishiyama & Westwood, 1992).

The U-curve model (Adler, 1981; Torbiorn, 1982) has been used to pictorially illustrate the phases of cultural adjustment, including culture shock. The curve demonstrates the level where a sojourner begins, the trough of "disorientation or confusion" (i.e., culture shock), and the subsequent rise to "recovery." In the third phase, adjustment should rise to a high level and stay there as long as the individual is in the host country (Torbiorn, 1982).

The next step in the culture shock equation is to consider what cross-cultural sojourners do when culture shock happens. Hoopes (1981) discussed four basic responses to culture shock. The first response is "fight" or the "us-against-them" complex--theirs is negative, ours positive.

The second response is "flight," a retreat from interaction, which results in an immersion in the home culture while living in the host culture. This is usually associated with life on a compound. The third response is "going native" or rapid acculturation. "Going native" is characterized by mimicking as much of the host culture as possible without having actually adjusted. It is another form of escape. The final response is "adaptation." Sojourners who adapt exhibit the ability to find ways to comprehend and adjust their behavior to the other culture, while at the same time affirming themselves and their own cultural identity (Hoopes, 1981). It is during this time that the sojourner either escapes the pain of culture shock in unhealthy ways or acculturates to the new culture and learns to appreciate and function in the new culture. It is this acculturation process that relates to sojourner's level of difficulty in returning to the United States after living overseas.

Acculturation. Successfully enduring the process of culture shock is indicated by one's adjustment or acculturation to the new culture. Acculturation is defined as "the process through which an individual adapts to a culture different from the one into which he or she was born" (Hanassab, 1991, p. 11). The end result of acculturation is the establishment of one's cultural identity. Adjustment to a change in cultural environment involves a reorganizing of cognitive maps, learning new rules for interaction, changing

previously learned definitions of experience, and acquiring skills needed to perform in the new situation (Spradley & Phillips, 1972). It suggests adoption of the second culture, language and behaviors as primary, and the rejection to some degree, either by choice or by external pressure, of the primary language and culture. Acculturation involves assimilation, which risks the loss of the old culture at the hand of the new culture (Hoopes, 1981).

The process of acculturation was noted as being more difficult when cultures are less similar to each other (Martin, 1984). Furnham and Bochner (1986) developed an index of culture distance in which cultures were designated at "near," "intermediate," or "far" from British society. They conducted a study of international students in England to investigate the correlation between culture distance and adjustment difficulties. As the distance between the host culture and the culture of the individual increased, so did the social difficulties of the participants in the study. Based on these concepts, culture distance appears to be a significant factor in one's experience of culture shock and one's ultimate acculturation or adaptation to the new culture.

In a study by Gim, Atkinson, and Kim (1991), the degree of acculturation to the United States culture figured significantly into how Asian-Americans viewed the competence of counselors. Those being highly acculturated could use the

services of an American counselor more readily than those who were low on acculturation or bicultural. In other words, for those participants in the study who were less acculturated, racially similar counselors who were culture-sensitive were seen to be more competent and credible than those who were not. The Suinn-Lew Asian Self-Identity Scale (SL-ASIA) was used to measure the level of acculturation of the Asian American participants in the study (Gim, Atkinson, & Kim, 1991).

In his study of Iranian women, Hanassab (1991) purported to assess the extent to which young Iranian women in the United States kept their traditional values as compared to their acceptance of the values introduced to them in the United States. The primary hypothesis was that more acculturation corresponded with more acceptance of the new values, whereas lesser acculturated women tend to hold to more traditional values.

Hanassab's participants were 77 young Iranian women residing in the Los Angeles area. The population age at the time of the study ranged from 17 to 32 years. Their average age when they left Iran was 15 years. Using an adapted version of The Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican Americans, Hanassab showed that there is much stress and conflict for Iranian women who are trying to live with the cultures of both Iran and the United States. The more acculturated the women were to the U.S., the more liberal their attitudes

towards sex and intimate relationships, which correlated with less stress and conflict. This study also underlined the need for cultural understanding when culturally different individuals go for psychotherapy.

Cuellar, Harris, and Jasso (1980) described the process of acculturation as multidimensional. That is, it happens in many arenas in life, including geneology (where parents and grandparents were born and raised), cuisine, arts, customs, and more. These researchers indicated that the level of acculturation can affect the effectiveness of treatment with clinical populations and normal populations.

Suinn, Rickard-Figueroa, Lew, and Vigil (1987), in a review of the literature, reported that level of acculturation has been identified as associated with patterns of conflict resolution, personality characteristics, use of psychotherapy services, dropout from treatment, and educational achievement. Using an adaptation of the Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican Americans, Suinn, Rickard-Figueroa, Lew, and Vigil (1987) conducted a study of 82 Asian students and found that the level of acculturation is also correlated with number of years in the United States. Higher acculturation was found to be associated with more years and lower acculturation with fewer years.

Culture shock evaluated. In the field of cross-cultural experience, two opposing assumptions exist. The first is that having such an experience is beneficial, broadens one's

perspective, promotes personality growth, gives insight into the culture of origin through contrast with a different culture, and promotes greater mutual understanding between peoples of the world (Furnham & Bochner, 1986). According to Adler (1975), culture shock can be an important aspect of cultural learning, self-development, and personal growth. It can reconfirm a person's own identity in the face of new language, perceptions, and cultural understanding. The journey into the self is enhanced in that the more one can experience new and different aspects of human diversity, the more one discovers of oneself (Adler, 1975).

The second assumption is that experiencing another culture is often stressful and, as a result, holds a potential for harm. These experiences create anxiety, confusion and depression, and possibly physical illness in the individuals who confront a second culture (Austin, 1986; Furnham & Bochner, 1986; Werkman, 1986). This negative point of view indicates that contact between different cultures can lead to conflict and poorer international relations rather than better mutual understanding. There is evidence to support both of the conflicting views (Furnham & Bochner, 1986).

In summary, culture shock is a transitional experience which can result in the development of new values, attitudes, and behaviors. However, there seems to be agreement among researchers and theorists that culture shock is

stressful. Most of the studies that have been conducted have focused on the deleterious effects of culture shock on the overseas sojourner and, although people do eventually acculturate to their new surroundings, the process is painful for most (Austin, 1986). In addition, few researchers have studied or even noticed the positive aspects of culture shock (Furnham & Bochner, 1986). For the purposes of this study, even the existence of possible debilitating effects of culture shock which are "re-experienced" to some degree when returning to a home culture after years away underline the importance of research and application of research in developing programs and treatment plans for Global Nomads.

Readjustment to the home culture. The U-curve hypothesis was extended by Gullahorn and Gullahorn (1963), who discovered that the same phenomena were experienced by returners to the home culture as were experienced when they moved overseas. The reentry U-curve comes from sojourner's perception that their role demands contradict each other, that friends will view them differently, parents may think they have changed culturally, and that they may not be able to apply the knowledge gained overseas to their present occupations (Furnham & Bochner, 1986). In the W-curve hypothesis, the low points are shallower and the high points are higher when returning to the home culture than they are when moving to a foreign culture (Freedman, 1986). Furnham and Bochner (1986) asserted that studies which have de-

scribed cross-cultural transitions with U- and W- curves do not take into account the more encompassing and progressive changes in identity which can ensue from the culture shock process. As is the case with the U-curve hypothesis, however, the W-curve appears to be a widely accepted description of the returner's experience.

The Third Culture and Marginality

The children of adults who are employed overseas often do not consider themselves to be a part of the host (foreign) culture, and they also do not consider themselves to be a part of their home culture (their country of passport). They have been called Third Culture Kids (TCKs) because they form another culture within a culture (the term "third culture" has been expanded to usage with adults and families). This third culture is usually based around a school or compound (Useem & Downie, 1976).

The concept of an "in-between" culture is not new. The concept of the "marginal man" has been present in research since the 1920's and 1930's (Meintel, 1971). Sider (1978) described the marginal person as one "who in many ways does not fit anywhere, who lives at the boundary of cultural life, and who finds that in a sense no matter where he is, he is not quite at home" (p. 1). Marginality is an accurate description of TCKs. They grow up at the margin, experiencing the influences of the culture in which they live and the

culture their parents try to provide, but without identifying fully with either (Sider, 1978).

"Third culture" studies have been concerned with individuals who belong to a global community in addition to their country of origin. This global community is a world system within which these people identify and from which they derive their values. Useem and Downie (1976) describe "third culture kids" (TCKs) as not being part of the host (foreign) culture, but at the same time they are not part of the home (United States) culture. In this way, they fit the description of a marginal person (Downie, 1976).

Sider (1978) defined a marginal person as "a person who in many ways does not fit anywhere, who lives at the boundary of cultural life, and who finds that in a sense no matter where he is, he is not quite at home" (p. 1). People who move from one culture to another never fully assimilate to the new culture. However, after a while, they do not quite fit their home culture either, having been changed and influenced by their experiences.

Furnham and Bochner (1986) described marginal persons as individuals who are members of two racial or cultural groups which have mutually incompatible norms, values, or entrance qualifications. They occupy a position between two groups, and they do not fully identify with either, finding themselves on the margin of both. They vacillate between the two cultures and do not satisfy the contradictory de-

mands of either unless they reconcile their situation. Furnham and Bochner (1986) quote J. Nehru, who stated in 1936, "I have become a queer mixture of the east and the west, out of place everywhere, at home nowhere.... I am a stranger and alien in the west. I cannot be of it. But in my own country also, sometimes, I have an exile's feeling" (p. 31).

In a foreign culture correct perception is highly problematic. Individuals can never be sure if their intentions are understood or if cultural taboos are being violated. Since it is risky to make assumptions, they seem to have a persistent feeling of insecurity. This then leaves them vulnerable in terms of self-esteem. Misinterpretations of normal behaviors in any culture can lead to doubt and feelings of inferiority. Through this process they also become open to cultural influence (Sider, 1978).

When sojourners move away from their own cultures and get close to another culture, they are becoming open to influence by that culture. Often the main concern is for children. They are not growing up in a pure culture (i.e., the "American way of life"). They face the possibility of growing up at the margin and experiencing both the influences of the culture in which they live as well as the influence of their parents (Sider, 1978).

Sider (1978) mentioned three kinds of maladaptation: (1) make everyone else like us; try to make others marginal;

(2) if you cannot beat them, join them (i.e., become like they are); (3) live at the margin with walls erected so that the vast majority of cultural experiences occur within a closed community.

In a study of 200 mobile adolescents (Goldberg, 1980), many of the subjects indicated feelings of marginality as a result of not having a sense of belonging or attachment. Goldberg concluded that development of their self-concepts was hindered as a result of their perceived position of marginality (Goldberg, 1980).

The term "Global Nomads" encompasses much of meaning of the young sojourners' experience. It is defined as "those who have spent pre-adult years living outside their country of passport because of a parent's occupation" (McCaig, 1992, p. 2). The term indicates a global awareness with skills of adaptation, appreciation of cultural diversity, an adventuresome spirit, and a willingness to risk change. On the other hand, it also hints at a darker side of global mobility: grief, sense of belong everywhere and nowhere, indecisiveness, uncertain cultural identity, and difficulty with commitment (McCaig, 1992), all characteristics of living life at the margin.

Reentry and Reacculturation

The third aspect of cross-cultural living, according to Werkman (1986), is returning or reentry. Cross-cultural reentry is a term that has been used for a number of differ-

ent groups. These groups, as covered in the literature, are corporations (Cagney, 1975; Clague & Krupp, 1980; Harvey, 1969; Howard, 1979; Smith, 1975), Foreign Service officers (Miller, 1974; Morin, 1960; Rendahl & Berman, 1981; Shiner, 1974), international educators (Ball, 1969; Eberhard, 1970), missionaries (Austin, 1983; Fray, 1988; Howard, 1985; Larson, 1991; Stelling, 1991), the Japanese (Browning, 1986; "Returning Japanese Children," 1982; Enlow & Lewin, 1987; Minoura, 1987), and Vietnam veterans (Bourne, 1972; Faulkner & McGraw, 1977; Figley, 1978; Wilson, 1978). These are in addition to the general studies which are not aligned with any particular grouping (Austin, 1986; Martin, 1984; Winther, 1964). This study will be concerned with the general population of adolescents who come from families that are associated with many of the above categories, a general studies category.

When returning to the United States, it is not uncommon for people to feel as though they are being viewed as having deviated from that system's norms. Therefore, many returnees have a "deviant" identity. As a result, according to Jansson (1975), they have to deal with problems such as anger, powerlessness, fear of rejection, and guilt. Others experience loneliness and isolation from friends and places, the feeling that no one cares for them, and the feeling that they cannot discuss their overseas experiences with anyone (Koehler, 1986). In addition, they find that reentry shock

is completely unexpected and is, therefore, difficult to tolerate and understand. They tend to believe that once they are back home life will be problem free (Brislin, Cushner, Cherrie, & Yong, 1986; Koehler, 1986; Sussman, 1986).

Few returnees, however, find home to be problem free (Koehler, 1986; Sussman, 1986). Many returnees describe the experience not as re-entry into their home culture but as entry into a country that is, in fact, foreign to them, to a place that was supposed to be home and was not (McCaig, 1992). They were part of another culture, and now, in their "home" culture, are being judged according to standards for adjustment imposed by those who have not shared their experience. They are often unable to relate to the home culture and the home culture is not able to relate to them. This process of adjusting, for many, is not temporary but life-long (McCaig, 1992).

Werkman (1979) described the move home as often appearing to be smooth and easy on the surface, but, in actuality, filled with feelings of uncertainty, alienation, anger, and disappointment for the returners. After acculturating or adapting to the new culture, a move home requires that a significant part of everyday life be left behind. Tasks and plans which involved the overseas country must be changed or dropped altogether. The necessary abandonment of friend

ships and cultural supports often results in feelings that are characteristic of a grieving process (Werkman, 1979).

Raschio (1987) noted that little systematic research has been done to provide evidence that the return home is often more traumatic than the problems associated with adjusting to a foreign culture, though researchers in various fields have concluded that such a situation may be true.

Asuncion-Lande (1980) related the effects of reentry to the stages of culture shock. Excitement corresponds to the honeymoon phase, while Re-establishment/frustration is the stage which corresponds to the disintegration phase. The next two stages, Sense of control and Re-adaptation, when combined correspond to the recovery phase where increased sensitivity, understanding, and appreciation of the home culture develop. According to Freedman (1986), this adjustment process is dependent on the expectations of the sojourners, their homeland reference groups, the degree to which they acculturate to the host culture, and the degree to which they are willing to modify their newly acquired thoughts and behaviors to be acceptable to their homeland reference groups.

Bretsch (1954) surveyed 93 respondents, mean age 22, with regard to their academic performance and social problems upon return to the United States. He found that they exhibited few academic problems. However, 80% related shock at the level of social and moral life they observed in the

United States upon their return. They also experienced difficulty in making social-emotional and moral adjustment.

In interviews with 15 returned missionary kids, Harrell (1977) delineated the following general areas where the MKs expressed a lack of development, and, therefore, felt uncomfortable living in the United States: self-image, trust-bond relationships, educational preparation, motivation, adjustment, and bi-cultural experience. In addition to the areas in this list, Hunter (1986) discovered from his personal experiences that saying goodbye to friends and community brought a sense of impending loss and loneliness, grief, and anger. The experience left him wondering where home really was. In his story he related trying to re-adjust to plastic money and talking cash registers among other cultural differences. Leaving behind his children, who are more at home in the "foreign" land than in the U.S., when he returned overseas was an especially painful part of the reentry experience (Hunter, 1986).

Jansson (1986) reported that it is not uncommon for individuals who re-enter a social system after a period of time in another social system to be viewed as one who has deviated from that system's norms. Hence, many re-entrants may have a "deviant" identity. As a result, problems can become more difficult to resolve. Some of these problems are euphoria/denial, anger, sense of powerlessness, fear of rejection, regression and guilt, immobilization/recidivism,

and intimacy issues (Jansson, 1986). Along the same theme, Raschio (1987) reported that reentry difficulties ranged from very mild emotional disturbance to a long-term sense of isolation and anomie.

In an anecdotal report, Koehler (1986) stated that coming home was not what was expected. Returners had nothing to talk about, were lonely, missed people in the foreign land, missed other expatriate friends, wanted to be accepted, felt that no one cared, were not able to share their experiences overseas, and had no anticipation that reentry shock would happen. When returning to the U.S., "one finds that re-entry shock is totally unexpected and is, therefore, difficult to tolerate or to understand. The underlying belief...is that all problems, even if they are service-connected, stem from living in a foreign country: Once 'back home,' life again will be perfect and problem-free" (Koehler, p. 90).

Scheutz (1945) also discussed the problem of learning a foreign culture and the process of integrating that knowledge into one's self. Strangers to foreign cultures expect to experience difficulties because they are not members of the new group and are learning new "recipes" for living. Homecomers, on the other hand, expect little or no change upon their return home. What they do not fully realize is that they have been changed by their experiences in the new social milieu. Therefore, upon return home, the assumption

that the recipes formerly used will continue to be useful proves to be a false assumption (Scheutz, 1945).

Walters (1991) collected data from 69 respondents to a re-entry questionnaire. The respondents were all missionaries' children from three different mission organizations: Christian and Missionary Alliance, Lutheran-Missouri Synod, and Southern Baptists. Results indicated that missionary kids have to deal with three main re-entry issues: separation and loss, difference and values, and alienation and culture shock.

"Separation and loss" included personal relationships (parents and friends), host country, its culture, and its environment. "Difference and values" is the area where missionary kids compared themselves to their peers. They did not want to be different, but they felt different and thought they looked different. These "differences" showed up in values orientation. The third issue missionary kids had to deal with was "alienation and culture shock," the isolation, feelings of rootlessness and not belonging, and loneliness that go along with being transplanted from a familiar country to a new, strange country (Walters, 1991).

Werkman (1986) described these issues in overseas travel as psychological stresses. He derived his list of stresses from clinical experience and research. From his research and experience, he considered the return to the United States after a sojourn abroad as possibly the most

difficult obstacle to face in the spectrum of overseas living. He reported that overseas dwellers say that "it is far less stressful to leave the United States and find a place in a new country than it is to experience the unexpected jolt of coming back home" (p. 5). The experience of fitting in again at home can be serious and long-lasting.

Some of Werkman's (1986) data-based research is as follows: He did extensive tape-recorded interviews with 30 University of Colorado students who had lived overseas at least one year. He also did research on a group of 172 adolescents living overseas and compared their results with a group of 163 adolescents who had never lived outside the United States. In this latter study, the participants were matched on age, sex, and socioeconomic status.

Werkman (1986) found in these two studies that most Americans appear to adjust when they come home. However, the apparent adjustment might only cover the surface, leaving deep feelings of uncertainty, anger, and disappointment. If the overseas sojourn was long, sojourners may have adapted to an alternate set of values, thereby making reconciliation with United States values more difficult (Werkman, 1986). Separation from family and friends in the U.S. can liberate travelers from families and national problems. As newcomers in the host culture, they also were not usually involved in the current events. Therefore, they lose contact with the anchoring points of daily life in both places.

In this situation, a fantasy life can develop. Upon return to the homeland, the fantasy life is not supported, and travelers lose touch with the state of current events. This can lead to confusion and frustration (Werkman, 1986).

Often returnees are not aware of the exact problems they are facing in their adjustment process. They may adjust, but not be comfortable or satisfied with the type of adjustment made. They often report feeling restless, out of place, and rootless. Adjustment reactions are nostalgia for a lost way of life, a different self-concept and rootlessness (Werkman, 1986).

Raschio (1987) conducted a qualitative investigation of readjustment based on self-report to identify factors that affect an individual's process of reentry. Eleven students were interviewed. Raschio (1987) discovered that during the overseas sojourn, many students acquire new perspectives or increased awareness with regard to differences between social and cultural norms. These new perspectives were in the areas of comparison of foreign cultures and the United States culture, world issues, and personal changes. Usual responses fell within the categories of accepting and learning from these new perspectives or rejecting them, which usually led to a difficult readjustment (Raschio, 1987).

Ishiyama and Westwood (1992) stated that people who move cross-culturally experience feelings of uprootedness and cultural dislocation as a result of realizing that

certain activities and relationships that used to be significant sources of self-validation are no longer available or accessible. With respect to Global Nomads, McCaig (1992) stated that they are not uprooted but are rooted horizontally, not vertically. Their root systems are defined more by people than by places. Whether described as uprooted or differently rooted, a reentry move may be accompanied by feelings of homesickness, a symbolic grief for the death of the familiar self and world, and insecurity and abandonment which are intensified by a lack of interpersonal skills and personal support (Ishiyama & Westwood, 1992).

TCK Adjustment: Adolescent Reentry

The adolescent stage in psychosocial development has been variously defined as between the ages of 12 and 18 (Fregeau, & Barker, 1986), 12 and 20 (Gray et al., 1986), 14 and 17 (Protinsky, 1988), and 12 and 25 (Walters, 1991). In addition, Rothman (1984) referred to the mean age in his study, 20.56 years, to represent the latter part of the adolescent period. Regardless of the actual age span, adolescents who are going through great changes in growth and development have a more difficult time making the transition from overseas back into the U.S. than younger children who are still at the family dependency stage (Eakin, 1979). Because of their identification with America by virtue of parents' jobs, the realization that they are quite different from teenagers in the U.S. is surprising to them.

Because of their frequent mobility, many foreign service children abandon all attempts to form close friendships and develop an inability to give of themselves easily in a friendship situation. "Erik Erikson, the noted psychologist, says that the major concern of adolescence is the search for identity and that being unable to settle upon a definite identity is what really disturbs most adolescents. There can be a real crisis in identity for the foreign service adolescent" (Eakin, 1979, p. 21).

Goldberg (1980), in a study of 200 mobile adolescents, found that the normal flow of adolescence presents a plethora of difficulties for the families and individuals involved. Similarly, Werkman (1977) indicated that certain adolescent difficulties are universal: First, they are painfully aware of their bodies and pre-occupied with clothes. They are characterized by rapid growth and physical change. Second, they tend to attempt to separate from parents and cling to peer relationships. Third, they are preoccupied with romance and sexuality. When geographic mobility is added into the formula, adolescents' development of a sense of identity and security is impeded (Goldberg, 1980).

Other researchers of adolescent development have reported similar findings to those of Goldberg. Salmon (1987), in her study of the psychosocial development of overseas teenagers, concluded that the extended dependence

of overseas teenagers on parents combined with more restrictive behavior codes works against the completion of Erikson's (1963, 1964, 1968) stages of identity formation. Schimmels (1983) indicated that youth who develop overseas are "a little behind in cultural development. It is rather obvious that children reared outside the States won't act exactly like Americans" (p. 9). In an interview with To the Point, Dr. Gordon Parsons, a regional officer for the State Department, said that children who spend time overseas face two major difficulties: they are two or three years socially retarded, and they lack a sense of belonging (1974, January 18, p. 35).

Jordan (1982), in her study of TCKs who have returned to the U. S. to attend college or university, concluded that adolescents' difficulties in readaptation to the home culture are reflected in their complex identities which have developed, at least in part, as a result of third culture experiences. She found that TCKs confront the same adaptive transactions as other students, but they manage those transactions differently. They internalize the painful fact of their return to the U. S., they maintain an extensive network with their overseas cohort, they go through an intensive process of grieving, and they retain a third culture identity. In actuality, according to Jordan, they never fully adapt, but they learn to cope or "shift" so as to

integrate parts of the home culture without losing the cherished parts of the host culture (Jordan, 1982).

Goldberg (1980) conducted a study of 200 mobile adolescents. Her study groups were (1) those who had relocated many times; (2) those who had relocated only once; (3) those who have relocated only within the United States; and (4) those who have relocated to overseas residences one or more times. The topics of study were family relationships, social status, peer relations, school performance, and life choices. Goldberg concluded that early adolescents are happy with a move if the result involves increased family closeness. Such satisfactory family relations were important in the ability of the early adolescent to achieve stability in the new location. In contrast, older adolescents are more concerned with peer relationships and school issues, their two major sources of satisfaction and difficulties. Social status was clearly involved in their identity development (Goldberg, 1980). These areas of concern are consistent with the developmental processes of adolescents in general (Newman & Newman, 1984)

Eakin (1979) listed several signs or symptoms of reentry difficulties in adolescents: frequent illnesses or proneness to accidents; a sudden drop in academic performance; self-imposed isolation or clinging; irritability; and change in behavior patterns such as eating or sleeping habits, or leisure activities.

Young people may have difficulty making new friends or adapting to a new school. They may make demands that cannot be fulfilled from their teachers and new friends because they are longing for the perfect friend, place, or time from their overseas experience, none of which may have ever existed. They have feelings of loss and disappointment which can develop into a nostalgia for a great and perfect past, an idealization of memories (Werkman, 1986).

Werkman (1986) studied 172 overseas adolescents and compared them to 163 U.S. adolescents using the Semantic Differential technique. He found that the overseas group felt less strong, good or happy; they considered their future to be not as strong, colorful, stable, or close to them; they felt their friendships were not as important, close, strong or colorful; they felt loneliness was more interesting, stable, and comfortable, and restlessness was interesting, good, and happy. The overall results of the comparison indicated that overseas adolescents are unusually inquisitive and open about themselves and able to recognize and acknowledge disturbing affect. They seem to be less secure, less optimistic, and less positive in their self-concepts, but more psychologically sensitive. These results are not an indication of less healthy psychological makeup in the overseas adolescents, but that living overseas has a significant effect on their values and attitudes. "A common theme running through these reports is a recognition of a

deep sense of aloneness together with a need for individual self-definition. Returnees tend to view life in comparative terms and characterize themselves as observers rather than active participants in social experience" (p. 15).

Werkman (1977) also found that many adolescents who have lived overseas feel as though they become "unpersons" upon returning to the United States, because they are no longer "on the stage" and because they are not cognizant of contemporary forms of dress and patterns of speech in the United States. They are often less worried about how they are going to make it overseas as they are about how they will make it when they return home (Werkman, 1977). Some slip back into school and activities easily while others strain to be accepted and to find their place in the American setting among American adolescents (Werkman, 1977).

To many of these teenagers, the U.S. is a foreign land, and they need help in trying to understand and adjust to it (Werkman, 1977). McCaig (1992) explained that many adolescents who grew up overseas did not consider moving to the United States as reentry, but entry. Although they could have visited the United States several times, they did not consider themselves as ever having lived in the United States.

Even when considering careers, TCKs appear to favor the overseas environment to the United States (Useem & Downie, 1976). At the time of Useem and Downie's (1976) study, few

studies had been done on TCKs. They found that TCKs tend to emphasize overseas experiences when considering career options. Of 150 college enrolled TCKs, all wanted to pursue careers which involved work overseas. Twenty-five percent preferred going to a specific place, whereas twenty-nine percent preferred jobs which required them to move from country to country. Twenty-five percent wanted to be headquartered in the United States, but live overseas on one- or two-year assignments. Twelve percent wanted to be employed in the United States, but travel overseas. Only 7% reported feeling at home with peers in United States, whereas 74% felt comfortable with internationally-oriented people who have lived abroad.

In an overall sense, adolescents who have lived overseas for an extended period of time and reenter the United States seem to cope with life in the United States rather than adapt. Many feel odd or out of place. One said, "My teacher and the people in the town where I was living didn't really see me---they just saw the difference" (Useem & Downie, 1976, p. 105).

Downie (1976), in a study of 20 college students who had lived overseas for a minimum of at least one year during the teen years, and using a combination of the focused interview and episodic life history, delineated five themes upon which overseas youth focus. First, social interaction upon return to the United States was characterized by put-

ting aside one's third culture experience due to lack of ability of one's peers to understand the overseas experience. Second, due to the expectation that friendships will be short-lived, overseas experienced youth engaged tentatively in friendship-making, although friendships were sought out and desired. Third, some of the aspects of culture shock were noted in attitudes of ambivalence and ambiguity these youth reported having toward their home country. Fourth, the sponsorship of the parents in the third culture provided a certain status which is not experienced in the United States. Fifth, because of the intensity of the perceived differences between the United States and the host culture, the perceptions of the homeland (the United States) were blurred.

Downie (1976) concluded from his study that third culture youth had to engage in a high degree of identity management upon return to the U. S. They did this by putting aside their overseas experience in an attempt to cope with their new existence. He also found them to be socially marginal. That is, they were not fully a part of their mainstream peer culture in the U.S., nor were they fully apart from it. Their feelings towards the U.S., which were ambivalent and ambiguous, were aggravated and emphasized, although they demonstrated that they were capable of adapting and coping with their new environment. They experienced a sense of estrangement. This was partly because they had

no group in the U. S. with which they fully identified. Lastly, Downie concluded that life and career plans for these youth included international experience (Downie, 1976).

Powell (1984), in a study of TCK's after they had returned to their homeland, discovered that they were poorer in social skills and conscience development than were their homeland counterparts; they clung to memories of their overseas experience in order to escape the pain of living in the homeland; they demonstrated social inferiority in comparison to their non-TCK peers; they exhibited family cohesion to the point of being less adaptable to change than their peers in the general culture; and they had less exposure to diverse points of view in spite of their rich overseas experience.

In a study by Raschio (1987), three main needs of the overseas sojourners with regard to their return to the U.S. were expressed: the need for more informal opportunities to discuss experiences and feelings, especially with other returners, for the purpose of gaining a personal perspective and direction for reentry; the need to extend the formal and planned activities so that individuals can receive individual help; the need to communicate with other sojourners prior to arriving in the United States, thereby establishing contacts while in the host country.

Adolescents and the Family

The family has been shown to be significant factor in the adjustment of children and adolescents to the United States after a sojourn abroad (Eakin, 1979; Fray, 1988; Useem & Downie, 1976). In this section, studies of the family impact on cross-cultural relocation will be reviewed.

Useem and Downie (1976) reported that the family was profoundly important to children and adolescents living overseas. The overwhelming majority (90%) like, respect, and feel emotionally attached to their parents, a higher percentage than for their United States counterparts. This finding indicated a high degree of family interaction and satisfaction. The reasons for this are possibly associated with the overseas lifestyle and mobility, the characteristics of which are continuing family relationship, much time spent together, and mothers who are home managers not housewives (Useem & Downie, 1976). Although Useem and Downie (1976) were pioneers in the study of TCKs, they apparently did not utilize a control group of U.S. kids who had not lived overseas. In this light, it is difficult to fully understand the implications of their study.

In contrast to Useem and Downie (1976), Gerner, Perry, Moselle, and Archibold (1992) found that United States adolescents overseas did not have closer relationships with their families than did their home-culture counterparts. Similarly, Goldberg (1980) found that the American ster-

eotype of the nuclear family can be a hindrance to the development of the mobile adolescent. In many instances, there is a forced dependence on the father and the father's employer, which can lead to a type of family enmeshment. The anticipation of and need for adaptation to the new situation will sometimes lead a family to deny the need for help either from counselors or other sources of support. Many families reported that they thought they needed to play the part of the stereotypical, perfect, nuclear family. Playing the part led them to further frustration, loss, and alienation (Goldberg, 1980). In an overall sense, parents generally thought a move was successful if the adolescents maintained or improved in their attitudes of cooperativeness, and if their academic and social situations were satisfactory to the parents (Goldberg, 1980).

Goldberg (1980) also found that relatives and friends who had not lived overseas and had previously been sources of help and support tended to advocate a "buck up" attitude. This arose from a lack of knowledge of the different aspects of international mobility and of the full impact of such a cross-cultural transition experience. Similarly, Rashcio (1987) indicated that students in the study were shocked to discover that most friends and family members were not willing to listen to accounts of their experiences and travels.

Eakin (1979) stated that children whose parents were supportive and positive about the relocation experience made the transition more easily. This was supported by Goldberg (1980), who found that families who were supportive, allowing for individual learning of coping mechanisms and ways to adjust to relocation difficulties, produced adolescents who were able to view mobility as a positive, self-enhancing experience.

As the above studies illustrate, families can provide for the necessary shift in control and allegiance as the adolescents develop a sense of self independent from their parents and as they transfer their attachments and loyalties to their peers (Goldberg, 1980). Although this is a part of "normal" adolescent development, in the midst of these changes family conflicts are intensified. "Parents and teachers who are unaware of patterns of adolescent development may be hostile or indifferent to an adolescent's special vulnerabilities and the behavior they typically use to defend themselves" (Goldberg, 1980, p. 220).

As in other family crises, relocation can cause tension between spouses (Goldberg, 1980). In a response to that tension, and in an unconscious attempt to drive the parents together, adolescents will occasionally act out. Other family situations that are magnified by relocation are: (1) exaggerated feeling of loyalty to one parent over the other; (2) other role imbalances, as when a lonely parent demands

the companionship of an adolescent child; (3) threats to parental authority in the form of adolescent attachment and conformity to peers; (4) emotional outbursts by adolescents that lead to the parental conclusion that adolescents are not mature enough to make life decisions (Goldberg, 1980).

Fray (1988), in a study of the reentry shock of college students after spending time overseas, correlated the individuals' degree of reverse culture shock with a measure of the individuals' perception of family adaptability and family cohesion. He concluded that: (1) increased family satisfaction, as measured by degree of cohesion and adaptability, was associated with decreased problems with reverse culture shock; (2) family health was predictive of the degree of reverse culture shock an individual would experience upon return to the United States; (3) the ability of the family to foster independence and individuation was associated with decreased problems with reverse culture shock; and (4) the family of origin had an impact on an adolescent returner's resourcefulness in coping with reverse culture shock. He stated, "TCKs from families that permit autonomy yet foster family togetherness (balanced cohesion), and TCKs from families which are able to adjust family rules in the face of developmental or situational changes (balanced adaptability) tend to experience less culture shock" (p. 95). Broadus (1981), on the other hand, in a study of missionary families, concluded that family structure, based

on degree of cohesion and adaptability, could not be used as a predictor of the duration of reverse culture shock. These two discrepant conclusions reinforces the need for additional studies of the family and its effects on the experience of reentry shock and adjustment of the returning adolescent.

Summary

The contention that relocation to a foreign country and the subsequent acculturation to that country is for many people a difficult process to experience is consistently supported by researchers and theorists. The corollary that returning to the United States to live after a successful adjustment to the foreign culture is at least equally as difficult is also consistently supported. The need for investigations into reentry and reentry shock is supported by the number of U. S. citizens living overseas, the prevalence of difficulties upon return, and the number of U. S. citizens overseas who are adolescents in the process of developing a personal and cultural identity.

Theories and research studies reviewed in this chapter have covered four major themes: the social and cultural components of psychosocial development as described by the stages of Erik Erikson; the process of making the transition to overseas living, including the experience of culture shock and adjustment or acculturation to the foreign (host) culture; the process of returning (reentry) to the United States, including reentry shock and readjustment to living

in one's home country; and the impact of the family on adolescents' experience of geographical transitions.

The social and cultural foundations of Erikson's (1968) theory, coupled with the social and cultural experiences which are at the center of cross-cultural adjustment, either to the host culture or to the home culture, support the appropriateness of using Erikson's psychosocial theory of development as a predictor of reentry shock. If internationally mobile adolescents' psychosocial development is culturally determined and is different from their homeland counterparts, their return to the United States will put them out of synchrony with their cohort group. Being out of "synch" will exacerbate their feelings of loneliness, isolation, and grief for the host culture to which they have acculturated. The family appears to be a significant part of the equation, either providing or not providing the necessary supportive atmosphere in which adolescents develop psychosocially, and thereby providing or not providing the necessary tools to effectively cope with reentry to the United States.

If psychosocial development, acculturation to the host culture, and family functioning are found to be predictors of reentry shock in adolescents, counselors and other human service professionals can more effectively assist internationally mobile adolescents in making the transition from the host to the home culture.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

As indicated in the review of the literature, the cultural context of an adolescent plays an integral part in his/her psychosocial development. The literature also reveals that adolescents have more difficulty in adjusting to geographical transitions than younger children and adults. Length of time overseas, depth of acculturation to the host culture, culture distance, and family functioning also have been related to reentry shock.

The purpose of this chapter is to present the methodology for the study, which was to investigate the relations between reentry shock and four independent variables: psychosocial development, depth of acculturation to the host culture, time overseas, and family functioning. A secondary purpose of the methodology presented in this chapter was to investigate the relation between perceived cultural distance and cultural distance as objectively measured.

Participants

Participants for this study were adolescents between the ages of 17 years and 20 years who had lived overseas for at least one year during their school age years, and who had been back in the United States for twenty months or less.

Three national organizations that offer support services for Global Nomads agreed to assist in obtaining participants for the study. The three organizations were Reentry Support Services, Global Nomads International, and Interaction, Incorporated. The pool of possible participants from the above organizations was 238, out of which 100 volunteered to participate in the study. Of these 100, 13 were eliminated because they did not fit the criteria of the study (see Table 1 for a summary of the demographic information).

Of the remaining 87 respondents, 61 were female and 26 were male (70.1% and 29.9%, respectively). The ages of the volunteers ranged from 17 years to 20 years, and the average age at the time of the study was 18.5 years. The average age when they first moved overseas was 4.7 years, and the average amount of time spent overseas was 11.9 years.

Forty-four of the respondents (50.6%) attended missionary school overseas, 27 (31.0%) attended international school, 2 (2.3%) attended Department of Defense schools, 1 (1.2%) was home schooled, and 13 (15.0%) attended other types of overseas schools (including boarding schools and national schools). Fifty (57.5%) of the participants had lived in only one country outside the United States, 24 (27.6%) had lived in two countries, 11 (12.6%) had lived in three countries, and 2 (2.3%) persons had lived in four countries outside the United States. Altogether, the participants in this study reported having lived in 35 coun-

Table 1: Participant Demographic Data						
Variable	N	Means	Std. Dev.	%	Min.	Max.
Sex						
-Male	26	NA	NA	29.9	NA	NA
-Female	61	NA	NA	70.1	NA	NA
Age at Time of Study	87	18.5	.79	NA	17	20
Age when First Moved Overseas	87	4.7	4.43	NA	0	15
Years Overseas	87	11.9	4.16	NA	3	19
School						
-Missionary	44	NA	NA	50.6	NA	NA
-Int'l	27	NA	NA	31.0	NA	NA
-Dod	2	NA	NA	2.3	NA	NA
-Home	1	NA	NA	1.2	NA	NA
-Other	13	NA	NA	15.0	NA	NA
Number of Countries						
-One	50	NA	NA	57.5	NA	NA
-Two	24	NA	NA	27.5	NA	NA
-Three	11	NA	NA	12.6	NA	NA
-Four	2	NA	NA	2.3	NA	NA
Months Back in U.S.	87	11.0	4.88	NA	1	20
Perception of Culture Distance						
-Near	0	NA	NA	00.0	NA	NA
-Intermed.	38	NA	NA	43.7	NA	NA
-Far	49	NA	NA	56.3	NA	NA
Parents' Location						
-Overseas	45	NA	NA	51.7	NA	NA
-U.S., Not Local	15	NA	NA	17.3	NA	NA
-Local	27	NA	NA	31.0	NA	NA
Years Overseas, Grades 1-7	87	4.74	2.01	NA	0	7
Years Overseas, Grades 8-12	87	4.26	.78	NA	2	5
Reentry Seminar						
-Attended	59	NA	NA	67.8	NA	NA
-Did not Attend	28	NA	NA	26.2	NA	NA

tries outside the United states. The average amount of time they had been back in the United States at the time of the study was 11.0 months.

All the respondents perceived their overseas homes to be different from the United States. Thirty-eight (43.7%) perceived their overseas homes to be "intermediate," or somewhat similar to the United States, and 49 (56.3%) perceived their overseas homes to be "far," or quite dissimilar to the United States. The majority of the participants reported their parents' locations to be overseas at the time of the study (n = 45, 51.7%), whereas 15 (17.3%) reported their parents to be in the United States but not in their area, and 27 (31.0%) reported their parents to be in their area of the United States at the time of the study. All participants reported their marital status as "single."

The average amount of time they lived overseas during grades 1 - 7 was 4.7 years, and the average amount of time they lived overseas during grades 8 - 12 was 4.3 years. Fifty-nine (67.8%) reported having attended some sort of workshop or seminar which had as its purpose assisting them with readjustment to living in the United States.

Instrumentation

The following demographic information was asked of the participants: (a) Date completing questionnaire; (b) present age; (c) sex; (d) age when overseas move was made; (e) number of years overseas; (f) reason for being overseas; (g)

type of school overseas (missionary, international, Department of Defense, home schooling, other); (h) number of foreign countries lived in; (i) which foreign countries lived in; (j) number of months back in the United States; (k) participants' perception of culture distance (near, intermediate, far); (l) location of parents at time of study (overseas, in United States but not in my area, in my area); (m) marital status; (n) country outside the United States where participant felt most "at home;" (o) approximate number of years overseas during grades 1 - 7; (p) approximate number of years overseas during grades 8 - 12; (q) participation in workshops or seminars to assist with readjustment to the U. S.; (r) name and address of participants if they wish to receive a copy of the results. Based on the demographic information, a descriptive profile of the participants in the study will be presented.

Measures of Psychosocial Development

The instrument which was used to measure level of psychosocial development was the Measures of Psychosocial Development (MPD; Hawley, 1988). This instrument is based on Erikson's stages of psychosocial development (Erikson, 1963), and measures personality development from adolescence to mature adulthood, though Erikson's theory spans from birth to mature adulthood (Erikson, 1968). The eight stages in his theory designated by the crisis involved at that stage include: (1) Trust versus Mistrust; (2) Autonomy

versus Shame and Doubt; (3) Initiative versus Guilt; (4) Industry versus Inferiority; (5) Identity versus Role Confusion; (6) Intimacy versus Isolation; (7) Generativity versus Stagnation; and (8) Ego Identity versus Despair.

The MPD yields three scores for each developmental stage: a positive attitude score, a negative attitude score, and a score reflecting the status of conflict resolution. The sum of the stage scores reflects overall psychosocial health. For this study, the scores for the fifth stage, Identity versus Role confusion, and the overall score were of interest.

The MPD consists of 112 items to be marked using a 5-point scale ranging from "Very Much Like Me" to "Not At All Like Me" (Hawley, 1988, p. 2). The MPD was normed on a primarily Anglo-American population which ranged in age from 13 to 86. Test-retest reliability coefficients ranged from .67 to .80 with the majority being at the upper end of the range. Alpha coefficients for the Positive and Negative scales range from .65 to .84 (Hawley, 1988).

Acculturation Rating Scale

The instrument which was used to measure depth of acculturation to the host culture is an adapted version of the Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican Americans (ARSMA; Cuellar et al., 1980). The population used to develop the ARSMA numbered 222 (92 males and 129 females). It was made up of 88 Mexican Americans hospitalized with a psychotic

diagnosis, and 134 students or staff members at universities. The average age was 32 years (Cuellar et al., 1980).

The ARSMA consists of 20 items to be scored on a 5-point, Likert scale which ranges from 1 (very Mexican/Spanish) to 5 (very Anglo/English). Internal reliability was measured by means of a coefficient alpha. For the student and staff population (n=134), the coefficient alpha was .88. For the hospitalized population (n=88), the coefficient alpha was .81. Test-retest reliability was obtained for both the clinical and the student/staff populations. For the former it was .72, significant at the .01 level. For the latter it was .80 p<.01. Validity was established by assessing groups of Mexicans, Mexican Americans, and Anglos, with resulting means of 1.67, 2.88, and 4.39, respectively (Cuellar et al., 1980).

The ARSMA is based on a theoretical continuum which groups individuals with regard to acculturation into five types: (1) Very Mexican; (2) Mexican-oriented bicultural; (3) equally bicultural; (4) Anglo-oriented bicultural; (5) very Anglicized. For the Mexican American population, Type I was determined by those who fell in the 1.0 - 1.99 range, Type II in the 2.0 - 2.79 range, Type III in the 2.80 - 3.20 range, Type IV in the 3.21- 4.0 range, and Type V in the 4.01 - 5.00 range. For this study, the five groups on the theoretical continuum was collapsed into three indicating

(1) a host-oriented preference, (2) a bicultural preference, and (3) an American-oriented preference.

Correlation coefficients were sufficiently high to indicate that the ARSMA when compared to two other measures of acculturation, the Biculturalism Inventory and the Behavioral Acculturation Scale, was measuring the same behaviors or characteristics in the sample population as the other two (Cuellar et al., 1980). A factor analysis yielded four factors: (1) language familiarity and usage; (2) ethnic identity and generation; (3) reading, writing, and general cultural heritage and exposure; (4) ethnic interaction (Cuellar et al., 1980).

For this research study, the ARSMA was adapted for a generic population. This scale has been adapted three times for other populations: Iranians (Hanassab, 1991), Asian Americans (Suinn, Rikard-Figueroa, Lew, & Vigil, 1991), and Hispanic children (Franco, 1983). In the light of these three adaptations and the resulting psychometric soundness for each one, an adaptation to a generic population does not appear to be a threat to the integrity of the instrument.

One of the scales that was an adaptation of the ARSMA was the Suinn-Lew Asian Self-Identity Scale (SL-ASIA; Suinn et al., 1987). This scale covers language (4 questions), identity (4 questions), friendship choice (4 questions), behaviors (5 questions), generation/geographic history (3 questions), and attitudes (1 question). A total of 82

subjects were administered the instrument. Reliability was calculated at .88 using the alpha coefficient suggesting an acceptable level of stability and a high level of internal consistency. Validity was determined by correlating the generations of the volunteers with corresponding scores on the SL-ASIA. Validity was also established by comparing scores on the SL-ASIA with length of time in the U.S. Once again, the means of the scores were in the expected direction, with higher acculturation associated with more years in the United States and lower acculturation associated with fewer years in the United States.

Another adaptation of the ARSMA was The Children's Acculturation Scale (Franco, 1983), which was intended for use with Mexican-American children, yielded a coefficient of stability of .97 which is significant at the .001 level. For this scale, internal reliability was measured by means of a coefficient alpha. The results yielded a coefficient of .77. In addition, two raters independently assessed a group of 12 first grade children using this instrument. The interrater reliability was .93, $p<.001$.

No psychometric information was available for the Iranian adaptation of the ARSMA (Hanassab, 1991).

McMaster Family Assessment Device

The instrument used to measure family functioning was the General Functioning Scale of the McMaster Family Assessment Device (Fredman & Sherman, 1987). The entire instru-

ment consists of seven scales: Problem Solving, Communication, Roles, Affective Responsiveness, Affective Involvement, Behavior Control, and General Family Functioning. The seventh scale, a twelve-item scale, is the one that was used in this study. The General Family Functioning scale was designed to measure overall family health which includes components from the other six scales (Epstein, Baldwin, & Bishop, 1983).

The Family Assessment Device (Epstein et al., 1983) was normed on 503 individuals, 209 of which were students in an introductory psychology course. The other 294 came from a group of 112 families including four families of children in a psychiatric day hospital, six families of patients in a stroke rehabilitation unit, nine families of students in an advanced psychology course and 93 families which contained one member who was an inpatient in an adult psychiatric hospital. The internal reliability coefficients for the first six scales range from .72 to .83. The seventh scale's reliability is .92. Stability scores were not available (Fredman & Sherman, 1987). In reviewing this instrument, Fredman and Sherman (1987) indicated that much work is still to be done to insure that the first six scales are valid and psychometrically sound. However, Fredman and Sherman (1987) suggested the use of the General Functioning Scale as a "very short, reliable measure" (p. 79) which could be added

to the repertoire of screening tools for clinicians and researchers alike.

The two remaining independent variables for consideration in the study were collected from demographic information. These two variables are length of time overseas and culture distance.

Homecomer Culture Shock Scale

The instrument which was used to measure the dependent variable is the Homecomer's Culture Shock Scale (HCSS; Fray, 1988). This is a 20 item scale which originally factored on four sub-scales: Cultural Distance, Interpersonal Distance, Grief, and Moral Distance. Because the Moral Distance factor had only two items it was dropped from Fray's original study, and it was not considered in the present study. The norm group for the original study were 369 college students. Initial studies of reliability were favorable, yielding coefficients of .87, .86, and .84, using Cronbach's Alpha, for factors 1, 2, and 3, respectively. Test-retest reliability coefficients were found to range from .60 to .80 over an average 20 day period. The data which represent Fray's (1988) findings are found in Table I.

Concurrent validity studies were done by correlating the HCSS and its sub-scales with three psychometrically derived measures of anxiety, alienation, and depression. The instrument used to correlate with anxiety was the Trait Anxiety Scale. The instrument used to correlate with alien-

ation was the Dean Alienation Scale. The instrument used to correlate with depression was the Beck Depression Inventory.

Table 2: Number of Items, Means and Standard Deviations for the Homecomer Culture Shock Scale Norms

	# of items	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Overall	20	59.9	13.0
Culture Distance	10	27.7	6.53
Interpersonal Distance	6	13.8	4.91
Grief	4	9.4	3.26

Correlation studies with the HCSS and these three instruments yielded correlation coefficients of .45, .27 and .42, respectively. All three of these correlations were significant at the .05 level of significance.

Procedure

Two hundred thirty-eight prospective participants were mailed a letter requesting their participation in the study. The letter included a self-addressed, stamped post card which was returned to the researcher indicating willingness to participate in the study. Upon receipt of the post card, the survey of demographic information and the four instruments (a set of materials) were mailed to the participants, with a self-addressed, stamped envelope for return of the completed instruments. Each returned set of materials was numbered from 001 to 100. The assigned number served as an

identification number and also an indicator of number of sets received. All returned sets were then scored and data were entered into the UNCG computer system. Data analysis was conducted by using the SAS data analysis program of the VAX computer system at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

A total of 179 letters were mailed in an initial mailing to potential participants chosen from lists procured from the assisting organizations. Each person on the list who fit the criterion of the study was sent the participant request letter. The self-addressed, stamped post- card had a space on it for suggestions of others who might possibly fit the parameters of the study. Fifty-nine additional names were procured through recommendations. Of the 238 letters sent out, 10 were returned by the Postal Service as undeliverable, 30 replied that they were unable to participate in the study, and 115 agreed to participate, and were sent the necessary packet of materials. The remaining letters yielded no response.

Hypotheses

Hypotheses for this study were:

1a. Adolescent overseas sojourners who score below the normal range for their age level (one standard deviation below the mean) on the total score of the Measures of Psychosocial Development (MPD; Hawley, 1988) will score higher on the Culture Shock Scale of the Homecomer's Culture Shock

Scale (HCSS; Fray, 1988) upon their return to the United States.

1b. Adolescent overseas sojourners will score below the normal range (one standard deviation below the mean) for their age level on the fifth stage of Erikson's model, Identity versus Identity Confusion, as measured by the MPD. These adolescents will score higher on the Culture Shock Scale of the HCSS upon their return to the United States than adolescent sojourners who score in the normal range or above the normal range on the fifth stage of Erikson's model as measured by the MPD.

2. The longer adolescent overseas sojourners live overseas, the higher they will score on the Culture Shock Scale of the HCSS upon their return to the United States.

3. The deeper adolescents acculturate to host cultures, as measured by an adapted version of the Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican Americans (ARSMA; Cuellar et al., 1980), the higher they will score on the Culture Shock Scale of the HCSS upon their return to the United States.

4. Overseas adolescents who perceive their general family functioning to be unhealthy, as measured by the General Family Functioning scale of the McMaster Family Assessment Device (FAD; Epstein et al., 1983), will score higher on the Culture Shock Scale of the HCSS upon their return to the United States.

Interactions between dependent variables were also expected. In particular, the interaction of time overseas and psychosocial development; time overseas and acculturation to the host culture; psychosocial development and acculturation to the host culture; psychosocial development and family functioning; and time overseas, psychosocial development and acculturation to the host culture were interaction variables of interest.

5a. The relationship between psychosocial development as measured by the Measures of Psychosocial Development (Hawley, 1988) to reentry shock as measured by the Homecomer Culture Shock Scale (Fray, 1988) will be different for less time overseas than for more time overseas.

5b. The relationship between acculturation to the host culture as measured by the adapted version of the Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican Americans (Cuellar et al., 1980) to reentry shock as measured by the Homecomer Culture Shock Scale (Fray, 1988) will be different for less time overseas than for more time overseas.

5c. The relationship between acculturation to the host culture as measured by the adapted version of the Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican Americans (Cuellar et al., 1980) to reentry shock as measured by the Homecomer Culture Shock Scale (Fray, 1988) will be different for lower levels of psychosocial Development as measured by the Measures of

Psychosocial Development (Hawley, 1988) than for higher levels of psychosocial Development.

5d. The relationship between family functioning as measured by the General Functioning Scale of the McMaster Family Assessment Device (Epstein et al., 1983) to reentry shock as measured by the Homecomer Culture Shock Scale (Fray, 1988) will be different for adolescents who have achieved lower levels of psychosocial development as measured by the Measures of Psychosocial Development (Hawley, 1988) than for adolescents who have achieved higher levels of psychosocial development.

5e. The relationship between family functioning as measured by the General Functioning Scale of the McMaster Family Assessment Device (Epstein et al., 1983) to reentry shock as measured by the Homecomer Culture Shock Scale (Fray, 1988) will be different for adolescents who have deeply acculturated to the host culture (scored low) than for those adolescents who have not deeply acculturated to the host culture (scored high).

Because each of the subscales of the Homecomer Culture Shock Scale represents a different factor associated with reentry shock, the next phase in this study was to repeat the hypotheses for each of the three factors of the dependent variable. Hypothesis 1b and the interaction hypotheses were not repeated. The three factors are Interpersonal Distance, Grief, and cultural Distance. These three factors

are represented within the HCSS on the Interpersonal Distance Scale (ID), the Grief Scale (GR), and the Cultural Distance Scale (CD), respectively. These procedures were performed to examine the relation between the independent variables and the specific factors (ID, GR, or CD) measured on the HCSS, to see if the relation hypothesized between reentry shock and the independent variables is being carried equally by all three of the sub-factors, or by only one or two.

An ancillary study was done comparing the overseas adolescents' perceptions of the culture distance between the host culture and the United States. Their self-reported perceptions of host countries' cultural distances from the United States culture were correlated with their scores on the Cultural Distance scale of the HCSS.

Data Analysis

Using the SAS data analysis program, descriptive statistics, including means, standard deviations, and ranges were calculated for the independent variables, psychosocial development, number of years overseas, depth of acculturation to the host culture, and general family functioning. Descriptive statistics also were calculated for the dependent variable, reentry shock, including an overall score (Culture Shock) and scores for the three factors, Cultural Distance, Interpersonal Distance, and Grief.

Participants received scores for the dependent variable, reentry shock, and for the independent variables psychosocial development, depth of acculturation to the host culture, and general family functioning. For the other independent variables, participants received a coded or actual number. For number of years overseas the actual number of years spent overseas were used. For the ancillary study of perception of culture distance, 0 indicated "near," 1 indicated "intermediate," and 2 indicated "far."

Statistical Tests of Major Hypotheses

A 2 X 2 X 2 factorial analysis of covariance with Time Overseas acting as a continuous variable was planned to test the forgoing hypotheses. Psychosocial Development was to be examined in two levels, acculturation in two levels, and family functioning in two levels.

One separate ancillary correlation study was conducted. This was a correlation study between the participants' self-reported perception of the distance between their host culture and the United States and their score on the Culture Distance scale of the HCSS.

With the exception of the correlation of perceived culture distance and culture distance as measured by the HCSS Cultural Distance Scale, all of the above analyses were to be conducted four times: once with the Culture Shock scale of the HCSS, and once each for the factors of the HCSS, Interpersonal Distance, Grief, and Cultural Distance.

Due to greatly different cell sizes, the analyses described above were not feasible. Instead multiple regression analyses were conducted with reentry shock as the dependent variable as measured by the Homecomer Culture Shock Scale (Fray, 1988). The independent variables were Time Overseas, psychosocial development as measured by the Measures of Psychosocial Development (Hawley, 1988), acculturation to the host culture as measured by the adapted version of the Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican Americans (Cuellar et al., 1980), and family functioning as measured by the General Functioning Scale of the McMaster Family Assessment Device (Epstein et al., 1983).

A multivariate analysis was conducted on the three subscales of the HCSS prior to separate univariate analyses. The multivariate analysis was done to determine if there were too high a correlation between the three factors of the dependent variable, reentry shock, to do univariate analyses on each separate factor as a dependent variable. The results of all analyses are presented in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Introduction

This chapter contains the results of the study of the relations between reentry shock and the four dependent variables: psychosocial development, length of time overseas, acculturation to the host culture and family functioning. Results will be presented in sections which address the research questions and hypotheses described in Chapter III. Descriptive statistics for each variable in the study will be presented followed by the results of each of the analyses and the corresponding statistical significance with regard to the respective hypotheses. The results of analyses and hypotheses tests regarding interactions between variables will be presented first due to the interactions' potential effect on other variables in the analyses. These will be followed by the results of analyses and hypotheses tests for main effects.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics will be given for the four independent variables in the model along with the mean for the resolution score for the fifth scale of the Measures of Psychosocial Development (Hawley, 1988) and the dependent variable. Descriptive statistics for the subscales of the

dependent variable also will be reported. Included in the descriptive statistics will be means, standard deviations, and ranges. The descriptive statistics for all variables can be found in Table 3.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics for the Independent Variables in the Study and for the Dependent Variable and its Subscales

Variable	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	Range Min.	Max.
TO	87	11.86	4.16	3.00	19.00
PD	87	49.31	9.69	25.00	70.00
Identity	87	48.72	9.90	26.00	76.00
ACC	87	3.49	0.49	2.40	4.55
Family	87	1.71	0.51	1.00	3.67
Culture Shock	87	59.21	16.58	22.00	94.00
ID	87	15.80	6.04	6.00	28.00
GR	87	12.39	4.47	4.00	20.00
CD	87	31.01	8.97	11.00	47.00

Results

The full model for the prediction of reentry shock included the following variables: TO, PD as measured by the MPD, Acculturation to the host culture (ACC) as measured by the ARS, Family as measured by the FAD, an interaction between TO and PD, an interaction between TO and ACC, an

interaction between PD and ACC, and an interaction between PD and Family. Results of the statistical analysis of the full model are shown in Tables 4a and 4b, and the results of an examination of the type III sums of squares are shown in Table 4c.

Table 4a: Results of the Regression Analysis with Re-entry Shock as the Dependent Variable.

Source	DF	SS	MS	F	P	R-Sq.
Model	8	5650.167	706.271	3.15	<.01	.246
Error	77	17291.321	224.563			
Total	85	22941.488				

Table 4b: Results of the Independent Variables Regressed Against Reentry Shock

Source	DF	SS	MS	F
TO	1	706.103	706.103	3.14
PD**	1	2061.897	2061.897	9.18
ACC**	1	1714.634	1714.634	7.64
Family	1	1.132	1.132	.01
TO*PD	1	708.166	708.166	3.15
TO*ACC	1	391.871	391.871	1.75
PD*ACC	1	43.897	43.897	.20
PD*Fam	1	22.468	22.468	.10

* Significant at .05 Level
** Significant at .01 Level

Table 4c: Regression Results, Type III Sums of Squares				
Source	DF	Type III SS	MS	F
TO	1	10.265	10.265	.05
PD	1	.120	.120	.00
ACC	1	330.754	330.754	1.47
Family	1	21.398	21.398	.10
TO*PD	1	453.292	453.292	2.02
TO*ACC	1	345.589	345.589	1.54
PD*ACC	1	32.350	32.350	.14
PD*Fam	1	22.468	22.468	.10
* Significant at .05 Level ** Significant at .01 Level				

The overall model was significant at the .05 level of significance [F (8, 77) = 3.15, p < .01]. Three of the variables appear to be significant or near significant. These three variables are ACC, PD, and TO. The R-Square for the model was .246 which accounted for approximately 25% of the variance in the dependent measure.

Of the hypotheses regarding interactions between variables (TO and PD, TO and ACC, PD and ACC, and PD and Family) none was significant at the .05 level in the overall model (see Tables 4b and 4c). Based on these results, the remaining results will be reported considering a model which analyzes main effects only (see Tables 5a, 5b, and 5c).

The first hypothesis posited that adolescent overseas sojourners who score lower on the Measures of Psychosocial

Development (MPD) will score higher on the Culture Shock scale of the HCSS upon their return to the U. S. A regression analysis supported the tentative hypothesis that psychosocial development is a predictor of homecomer culture shock. This is based on the F (1, 84) value of 9.05, $p < .01$ (see Table 5b). According to these results, the hypothesis can be supported that psychosocial development is a predictor of reentry shock in adolescents who have lived overseas. The unique contribution of psychosocial development is significant, when considering the main effects. The type III sums of squares analysis produced an F (1, 85) value of 7.14, $p < .01$ (see Table 5c).

The second part to the first hypothesis posited that adolescent sojourners who score lower on the fifth stage of Erikson's model, Identity versus Identity Confusion, as measured by the Measures of Psychosocial Development (Hawley, 1988) will score higher on the Culture Shock Scale of the HCSS upon their return to the United States than adolescent sojourners who score higher on the fifth stage of Erikson's model as measured by the MPD.

A regression analysis, using the full model including interactions, indicated that the full model was significant in predicting reentry shock (see Table 6a). The full model yielded an overall F (8, 77) value of 3.51, $p < .01$. This lends support to the tentative hypothesis that the variables in this model are predictors of reentry shock.

Table 5a: Results of the Regression Analysis with Reentry Shock as the Dependent Variable, Main Effects

Source	DF	SS	MS	F	P	R-Sq.
Model	4	4483.77	1120.94	4.92	<.01	.195
Error	81	18457.72	227.87			
Total	85	22941.49				

Table 5b: Results of the Independent Variables Regressed Against Reentry Shock, Main Effects

Source	DF	SS	MS	F
TO	1	706.103	706.103	3.10
PD**	1	2061.897	2061.897	9.05
ACC**	1	1714.634	1714.634	7.52
Family	1	1.132	1.132	.00

* Significant at .05 Level
** Significant at .01 Level

Table 5c: Regression Results, Type III Sums of Squares, Main Effects

Source	DF	SS	MS	F
TO	1	8.020	8.020	.04
PD**	1	1627.995	1627.995	7.14
ACC**	1	1712.866	1712.866	7.52
Fam	1	1.132	1.132	.00

* Significant at .05 Level
** Significant at .01 Level

When considering the independent variables in the model, Type I Sums of Squares, only two were significant at the .05 level. TO had an F (1, 85) value of 3.12, $p > .05$. Identity had an F (1, 85) value of 8.66, $p < .01$, and ACC had an F (1, 85) value of 8.48, $p < .01$. Family, as with the full model with PD was not significant yielding an F (1, 85) value of .00, $p > .1$. This analysis lends support to the hypothesis that scores on the Identity versus Identity Confusion Scale of the MPD and Acculturation can be predictive of reentry shock. The results of the model with Identity Versus Role Confusion in the model are presented in Tables 6a, 6b, and 6c. Type III Sums of Squares (see Table 6c) for this model indicated that TO has little unique impact on the model with an F (1, 85) value of .01, $p > .1$. Identity versus Role Confusion and ACC were highly significant with F (1, 85) values of 7.66 ($p < .01$) and 8.45 ($p < .01$), respectively. Family was not significant at the .1 level.

Hypothesis 2 posited that the longer adolescent overseas sojourners live overseas, the higher they will score on the Culture Shock Scale of the HCSS upon their return to the United States (see Tables 7a, 7b, and 7c). TO [F (1, 85) = 3.10, $p > .05$] was not significant at the .05 level. When considering the Type III Sums of Squares (see Table 7c), TO [F (1, 85) = .04, $p > .1$] also was not significant at the .05 level. According to these results, Time Overseas does

Table 6a: Regression with Identity Versus Identity Confusion as an Independent Variable, Main Effects

Source	DF	SS	MS	F	P	R-Sq
Model	4	4590.544	1147.636	5.07	< .01	.200
Error	81	18350.945	226.555			
Total	85	22941.488				

Table 6b: Results of Regression with Identity versus Identity Confusion as an Independent Variable, Main Effects

Source	DF	SS	MS	F
TO	1	706.103	706.103	3.12
Iden.**	1	1963.045	1963.045	8.66
ACC**	1	1920.637	1920.637	8.48
Family	1	.759	.759	.00

* Significant at .05 Level
** Significant at .01 Level

Table 6c: Type III Sums of Squares with Identity versus Identity Confusion as an Independent Variable, Main Effects

Source	DF	SS	MS	F
TO	1	3.229	3.229	.01
Iden.**	1	1734.773	1734.773	7.66
ACC**	1	1913.270	1913.270	8.45
Family	1	.759	.759	.00

* Significant at .05 Level
** Significant at .01 Level

not make a significant unique contribution to the model, and, therefore, may not be an independently functioning predictor of reentry shock.

Hypothesis 3 posited that the deeper adolescents acculturate to host cultures, as measured by an adapted version of the Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican Americans (Cuellar et al., 1980), the higher they will score on the Culture Shock Scale of the HCSS upon their return to the United States (see Table 5b).

The regression analysis revealed that ACC yielding an F (1, 85) value of 7.52 $p < .01$. This supported the hypothesis that acculturation level is a significant predictor of reentry shock. Acculturation also made a unique contribution to the model [F (1, 85) = 7.52, $p < .01$] (see Table 5c). Therefore, the hypothesis can be supported that ACC is a significant predictor of reentry shock.

Hypothesis 4 posited that overseas adolescents who score higher on the General Functioning Scale of the McMaster Family Assessment Device (Epstein et al., 1983) will score higher on the Culture shock scale of the HCSS than those adolescents who score lower on the General Functioning scale of the FAD (see Table 5b). The results [F (1, 85) = .00, $p > .1$] indicated that Family as measured by the General Functioning Scale of the FAD appeared to add very little to the model. In the case of Family, since it was added last in the model, the type I and type III sums of squares produced identical results (compare Tables 5b and 5c).

As has been stated previously, results of the regression analysis did not support the hypothesis that Family Functioning as measured by the General Functioning Scale of the FAD was a predictor of reentry shock. In a forward regression selection procedure, Family was not entered into the model at the .1 level of significance and the R-square associated with Family (.0001) indicated the Family accounted for a minimal amount of the variance in the dependent variable, reentry shock.

Analyses of the Three Subscales of the HCSS

Prior to conducting the regression analyses for the three subscales of the HCSS, a multivariate analysis of the three subscales was done to test the interrelation between the three variables, Interpersonal Distance, Grief, and Cultural Distance. The three variables were highly correlated. The Pearson correlation coefficient for Interpersonal Distance and Grief (df=81) was .51, $p < .001$. The Pearson correlation coefficient for Interpersonal Distance and Cultural Distance (df=81) was .58, $p < .001$. The Pearson correlation coefficient for Grief and Cultural Distance (df=81) was .46, $p < .001$.

The multivariate analyses yielded separate test statistics for the four independent variables in the model while holding the other three variables constant. TO was not significant [F (3, 79) = .332, $p > .1$], whereas PD [F (3, 79) = 5.095, $p < .01$] and ACC [F (3, 79) = 3.254, $p < .05$]

were significant. Family functioning, although not significant at the .05 level, approached significance in the multivariate analysis [F (3, 79) = 2.22, p > .05]. This was in contrast to the univariate analyses that had been done, and indicated that examining a set of variables together can detect differences that may not be detected when examining individual variables (Freund, Littell, & Spector, 1986). However, the two variables that were significant at the .05 level, PD and ACC, in the multivariate analyses and the near significance of Family indicated that the univariate analyses with the separate subscales of the HCSS as dependent variables can be done.

Interpersonal Distance

The first hypothesis regarding Interpersonal Distance (ID) posited that those overseas adolescents who scored lower on the MPD would score higher on the ID scale of the HCSS than those overseas adolescents who scored higher on the MPD. A regression analysis using ID as the dependent variable did support this hypothesis. For the overall model (see Tables 7a, 7b, and 7c), the F (8, 77) value was 3.41, p < .01. However, the variable PD within the model had an F (1, 85) value of 17.68, p < .001, supporting the hypothesis that PD is a significant predictor of high scores on the Interpersonal Distance scale. The unique contribution of PD (see Table 7c) was significant at the .05 level, producing an F (1, 85) value of 14.62, p < .001.

Table 7a: Regression Analysis with Interpersonal Distance as the Dependent Variable, Main Effects

Source	DF	SS	MS	F	P	R-Sq
Model	4	647.671	161.918	5.44	< .001	.212
Error	81	2411.584	29.773			
Total	85	3059.256				

Table 7b: Results of Regression Analysis with Interpersonal Distance as the Dependent Variable, Main Effects

Source	DF	SS	MS	F
TO	1	68.323	68.323	2.29
PD+	1	518.815	518.815	17.43
ACC	1	60.280	60.280	2.02
Family	1	.254	.254	.01

* Significant at .05 Level
** Significant at .01 Level
\+ Significant at .001 Level

Table 7c: Type III Sums of Squares with Interpersonal Distance as the Dependent Variable, Main Effects

Source	DF	SS	MS	F
TO	1	.565	.565	.02
PD+	1	435.178	435.178	14.62
ACC	1	59.491	59.491	2.00
Family	1	.254	.254	.01

* Significant at .05 Level
** Significant at .01 Level
\+ Significant at .001 Level

The second hypothesis regarding ID posited that the longer adolescent overseas sojourners lived overseas, the higher they would score on the ID Scale of the HCSS upon their return to the United States. TO [F (1, 85) = 2.29, p > .1] was not significant at the .05 level (see Table 7b). When considering the Type III Sums of Squares, TO [F (1, 85) = .02, p > .1] appeared to add very little to the model when added last (see Table 7c).

The third hypothesis regarding ID that those overseas adolescents who scored lower on ACC would score higher on the ID scale of the HCSS than overseas adolescents who scored higher on the ACC. Results of the regression analysis [F (1, 85) = 2.02, p > .1] indicated that ACC was not a significant predictor of higher scores on the ID scale of the HCSS (see Table 7b). The type III sums of squares (see Table 7c) produced nonsignificant results [F (1, 85) = 2.00, p > .1], indicating that acculturation as measured by the ARS did not make a significant unique contribution to the model, and is not a significant predictor of higher scores on the ID scale of the HCSS.

The fourth hypothesis regarding ID posited that those overseas adolescents who scored higher on the FAD would score higher on the ID scale of the HCSS than those adolescents that scored lower on the FAD. As in the other analyses, FAD appeared to be a nonsignificant variable in this model (see Table 7b). In this instance results [F (1, 85) =

.01, $p > .1$] did not support the hypothesis that general family functioning as measured by the General Functioning Scale of the FAD was a significant predictor of higher scores on the ID scale of the HCSS.

Grief

Results of the overall model, main effects only, using Grief as the dependent variable [F (8, 77) = 2.86, $p < .05$] indicated that this model is significant in predicting high scores on the Grief Scale of the HCSS (see Table 8a). Within the model there was only one single independent variable, acculturation [F (1, 85) = 5.42, $p < .05$], that could be considered a predictor of high scores on the Grief Scale of the HCSS. No variable in this model was significant at the .05 level when considering Type III Sums of Squares (see Table 8c). In contrast to other analyses, family functioning approached significance as a predictor of higher scores on the Grief subscale (see Tables 8b and 8c). The F (1, 85) value of 3.24, $p > .05$ was near significance, possibly indicating a trend toward significant prediction of high scores on the Grief subscale.

The first hypothesis with Grief as the dependent variable posited that adolescents who score lower on the MPD would score higher on the Grief scale of the HCSS. PD was not significant [F (1, 85) = 2.19, $p > .1$] when considering type I sums of squares, but approached significance [F (1,

Table 8a: Regression Analysis with Grief as the Dependent Variable, Main Effects

Source	DF	SS	MS	F	P	R-Sq
Model	4	210.497	52.624	2.86	< .05	.124
Error	81	1488.712	18.379			
Total	85	1699.209				

Table 8b: Independent Variables Regressed Against Grief, Main Effects

Source	DF	SS	MS	F
TO	1	8.175	8.175	.44
PD	1	40.193	40.193	2.19
ACC*	1	99.692	99.692	5.42
Family	1	62.438	62.438	3.40

* Significant at .05 Level
** Significant at .01 Level

Table 8c: Type III Sums of Squares with Grief as the Dependent Variable, Main Effects

Source	DF	Type III SS	MS	F
TO	1	11.376	11.376	.62
PD	1	59.946	59.946	3.26
ACC*	1	110.037	110.037	5.42
Family	1	62.438	62.438	3.40

* Significant at .05 Level
** Significant at .01 Level

85) = 3.26, p > .05] when considering type III sums of squares (see Tables 8b and 8c).

The second hypothesis with Grief as the dependent variable posited that adolescents who live longer overseas would score higher on the Grief scale of the HCSS than adolescents who live less time overseas. Results of both type I and type III sums of squares were not significant at the .05 level. Type I results were F (1, 85) = .44, p > .1. Type III results were F (1, 85) = .62, p > .1. These results did not support TO as a significant predictor of high scores on the Grief scale of the HCSS (see Tables 8b and 8c).

The third hypothesis posited that adolescents who scored lower on ACC would score higher on the Grief scale of the HCSS (see Tables 8b and 8c). In this case, both the type I and type III sums of squares yielded significant results. Type I results were F (1, 85) = 5.42, p < .05. Type III results were F (1, 85) = 5.99, p < .05. These results indicated that the hypothesis could be supported, that acculturation was a significant predictor of higher scores on the Grief scale of the HCSS.

The fourth hypothesis posited that adolescents who score higher on the FAD would score higher on the Grief scale of the HCSS (see Tables 8b and 8c). In this instance, Family approached significance [F (1, 85) = 3.40, p > .05].

Though not significant at the .05 level, this was the closest Family was to significance in this research project.

Cultural Distance

Results of the overall model (see Table 9a), main effects only, using Cultural Distance as the dependent variable [F (8, 77) = 3.96, p < .01] indicated that this model was significant in predicting high scores on the Cultural Distance Scale of the HCSS. Within the model two independent variables, TO and ACC, could be considered predictors of high scores on the Cultural Distance Scale of the HCSS.

The first hypothesis regarding Cultural Distance (CD) posited that those overseas adolescents who scored lower on PD would score higher on the CD Scale of the HCSS than those overseas adolescents who scored higher on PD. A regression analysis using CD as the dependent variable supported this hypothesis (see Table 9b). Results of a regression of PD against Cultural Distance [F (1, 85) = 4.03, p < .05] indicated that PD was a significant predictor of high scores on the Cultural distance Scale of the HCSS. However, the unique contribution of PD is not significant [F (1, 85) = 1.98, p > .1] (see Table 9c).

The second hypothesis regarding CD posited that the longer adolescent overseas sojourners live overseas, the higher they would score on the CD Scale of the HCSS upon their return to the United State. TO [F (1, 85) = 3.63, p >

.05] was near significance at the .05 level, but not significant (see Table 8b). Considering Type III Sums of Squares, TO had little to contribute to the model and was not significant [F (1, 85) = .00, p > .1] (see Table 9c). Therefore, TO was not a significant predictor of higher scores on the CD Scale of the HCSS.

The third hypothesis regarding CD stated that those overseas adolescents who scored lower on the ARS would score higher on the CD Scale of the HCSS than overseas adolescents who scored higher the ARS. Results of the regression analysis [F (1, 85) = 8.51, p < .01] indicated that ACC was a significant predictor of higher scores on the CD Scale of the HCSS (see Table 9b). In this case, considering the type III Sums of Squares, ACC was significant at the .05 level (see Table 9c). The Type III results [F (1, 85) = 7.71, p < .01] indicated that ACC was highly significant from the standpoint of making a unique contribution to the model.

The fourth hypothesis regarding CD posited that those overseas adolescents who scored higher on Family would score higher on the CD Scale of the HCSS than those adolescents that scored lower on Family. As in other instances, Family appears to be a nonsignificant variable in this model. In this instance results [F (1, 85) = .58, p > .1] did not support the hypothesis that general family functioning as measured by the General Functioning Scale of the FAD was a

Table 9a: Regression Analysis with Cultural Distance as the Dependent Variable, Main Effects

Source	DF	SS	MS	F	P	R-Sq
Model	4	1103.915	275.979	3.96	< .01	.164
Error	81	5645.806	69.701			
Total	85	6749.721				

Table 9b: Independent Variables Regressed Against Cultural Distance, Main Effects

Source	DF	SS	MS	F
TO	1	238.631	238.631	3.42
PD*	1	265.392	265.392	3.81
ACC**	1	559.774	559.774	8.03
Family	1	40.118	40.118	.58

* Significant at .05 Level
** Significant at .01 Level

Table 9c: Type III Sums of Squares with Cultural Distance as the Dependent Variable, Main Effects

Source	DF	Type III SS	MS	F
TO	1	.044	.044	.00
PD	1	137.945	137.945	1.98
ACC**	1	537.493	537.493	7.71
Family	1	40.118	40.118	.58

* Significant at .05 Level
** Significant at .01 Level

significant predictor of higher scores on the CD Scale of the HCSS (see Tables 9b and 9c).

Perception of Culture Distance

One final ancillary analysis was the correlation between the participants' perception of culture distance as reported on the preliminary questionnaire and their report of culture distance as measured by the Culture Distance Scale of the Homecomer Culture Shock Scale. The results (R = .238, $p < .05$) indicated that the participants' perception of culture distance was significantly correlated with their measured report of culture distance.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Introduction

This study was designed to investigate psychosocial development as a predictor of reentry shock. In addition, length of time overseas, depth of acculturation to the host culture, and general family functioning were investigated as factors that may relate to the experience of reentry shock.

The literature supports a relation between psychosocial development (Salmon, 1987; Shimmels, 1983) and acculturation (Brislin & Van Buren, 1974; Sussman, 1986) as factors integral to reentry shock. The findings from the literature regarding time overseas as a factor are varied. Some researchers found that time was indeed a significant variable (Stelling, 1991; Wrobbel, 1988) while others found time to be non-significant when studying reentry shock (Shepherd, 1976; Uehara, 1986). Concerning the variable of family functioning, varying conclusions also were found. Fray (1988) concluded that most TCKs come from families which are well-adjusted. On the other hand, Cottrell and Useem (1993) concluded that many TCK families are not well-adjusted. These four variables, psychosocial development, acculturation, time overseas, and general family functioning will be discussed in this chapter.

While there is a fair amount of evidence that reentry shock is potentially debilitating for the overseas sojourner, there is a need for more research in all four of these areas. Essentially, the purpose of this study was to add to the body of research by examining relations between reentry and the variables named above, and to suggest ways this research can be used by counselors and other human service professionals to assist the returning adolescent with readjusting to life in the United States.

This chapter will include a discussion of each of the independent variables as introduced above. This chapter also will include discussion of limitations to the study, implication of the findings, and need for further research.

Factors of Reentry

Psychosocial Development as a Predictor of Reentry Shock

The Measures of Psychosocial Development (Hawley, 1988) appeared to be an adequate measure of psychosocial development for the purposes of this study. When examining the results of a supplemental analysis of the correlations between psychosocial development and reentry shock, the results (r = -.344, p < .01) were significant at the .01 level. These findings indicated that, as individuals' ability to resolve the psychosocial crises associated with Erikson's (1963) stages of development increases, their experience of reentry shock decreases as measured by the Homecomer Culture Shock Scale (Fray, 1988). In another

supplemental analysis, with psychosocial development categorized as originally planned (see Chapter III), results of t-tests indicated a significant difference between those who scored above the normal range on the MPD and those who scored in the normal range on the MPD [t (21) = 3.70, p < .01]. The difference was directional, in that those who scored higher on the MPD scored significantly lower on the HCSS. This same relation was found when comparing those who scored in the normal range on the MPD with those who scored below the normal range [t (76) = -1.937, p = .054]. Based on these results, it would seem that individuals' ability to resolve psychosocial crises in an overall sense is related to their experience of reentry shock. If reentry shock can be considered a crisis, then it is logical that ability in being able to resolve the crises associated with reentry to the United States would be reflected in being able to resolve the crises associated with Erikson's stages. That is to say, well-adjusted individuals would be more likely to be able to handle any crisis. It is noteworthy that the majority of the participants in this research project were within one standard deviation of the mean on their scores on the Measures of Psychosocial Development (Hawley, 1988). Sixty-four (73%) fell within one standard deviation above or below the mean, nine (10%) were more than one standard deviation above the mean, and 14 (16%) were more than one standard deviation below the mean. These percentages do not

take into account the number of participants who scored in one group but near another group (i.e., individuals who scored on or near the margin between standard deviation groupings).

Using the statistical information from the study and the supplemental analyses reported above, it would seem that returners' psychosocial development would be a significant factor to consider when providing human services for them. If individuals are not functioning at the developmental level at which they are expected to function, then human service providers should work with them at the level where they are functioning. This can be illustrated by considering the second part of hypothesis one, that the fifth scale of the Measures of Psychosocial Development (Hawley, 1988) can be used as a predictor of reentry.

Scores on the fifth scale in the MPD indicate the degree to which individuals are able to resolve crises associated with the "identity versus identity confusion" stage of Erikson's (1963) stages of development. The results for this scale as a predictor of reentry shock also were significant at the .05 level (see Chapter IV). However, results of the analysis with this variable should be considered carefully. The scale of interest, the Identity versus Identity Confusion Scale, is comprised of the difference score of two scales which have only seven items each. With such a scale, the combination of error related to the

positive scale and error related to the negative scale increases the error factor in the analysis. Therefore, although the Identity versus Identity Confusion Scale is applicable and pertinent to developing adolescents, the results should not be accepted without knowledge of the potential for error in the findings.

Knowledge of returners' ability to deal with identity-related crises will help human service providers to be able to understand the situation of the returner as well as helping to develop treatment plans. In terms of the discussion above of psychosocial development, identity issues may be the core of returners' difficulties. Therefore, having a means (a quantitative measure of psychosocial development) and a direction for provision of services (working with identity issues) should enhance the quality of assistance providers can offer.

Depth of Acculturation to the Host Culture

For the variable Acculturation, the measure chosen was an adapted version of the Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican-Americans (ARSMA; Cuellar et al., 1980). The adaptation appeared to preserve the integrity of the original instrument. Acculturation to the host culture was supported by the results of the analyses as a significant predictor of reentry shock. However, the instrument has several shortcomings that should be considered in subsequent studies. First, there are a number of items on the questionnaire that

are concerned with participants' genealogy (i.e., where the mother was born, where the father was born, ethnic identification of the mother and father, etc.). Since the participants for this study were all citizens of the United states living in a "host" culture, those questions skewed the results toward "American" rather than giving a true description of how deeply individuals perceived themselves to be acculturated to the host culture. In fact, when examining question 20 on the ARS, which requires participants to rank themselves with respect to their cultural preference, eight (9%) perceived themselves to be completely members of the host culture, 52 (60%) perceived themselves to be bicultural, and 27 (31%) perceived themselves to be oriented toward the United States. Of this latter number, only 3 (3%) considered themselves to be complete American with little or no host culture influence.

Second, the questionnaire did not address the situation of those who are acculturated to a "third culture." Choices for most items ranged from involvement in the "host" culture to involvement in the "American" culture, with a "bicultural" choice. One respondent pointed out that several items on the questionnaire left him confused about how to answer because he was deeply involved in the "third culture," and associated with friends from the "third culture." For subsequent studies, a more appropriate instrument should

be devised to address the issue of acculturation to a generic "third culture."

A third acculturation issue that is closely related to the second is that the ARSMA does not address characteristics of TCKs such as world-mindedness and rootlessness. These characteristics seem to be a part of becoming "members" of a third culture. These characteristics result from exposure to individuals from across the world, and the feelings that they do not belong to any one place, but belong every place or no place.

In an overall sense, even in light of the shortcomings listed above, the ARS appeared to adequately measure participants' depth of acculturation to the host culture and its relation to reentry shock. Face validity and participants' comments indicated that the instrument measured depth of acculturation to the host culture but failed to measure the amount of acculturation to the third culture. In most cases, the ARS was the strongest predictor of reentry shock.

From the standpoint of human service providers, knowing how deeply individual returners have acculturated to the host culture would be an indication of the type of service that should be provided. If, in fact, the returner is deeply acculturated, working with him/her as a human service provider would be similar or equal to working in a multicultural setting. In those cases, guidelines for providing

counseling or other services in a multicultural setting should be followed.

Time Overseas

The variable Time Overseas appeared to be closely correlated with acculturation to the host culture as measured by the ARS. In fact, a correlation analysis resulted in a high correlation between the two (r = -.508, p < .001). As the amount of time overseas increased, the score on the ARS decreased, indicating a deeper acculturation to the host culture over time. Another supplemental analysis was performed to test this idea. The forward selection multiple regression procedure was run two supplemental times, first removing PD from the model, and second, removing ACC from the model. In the first instance, after ACC was entered into the model, TO [F (1, 83) = .0001, p > .1] was not significant at the .05 level. In the second instance after PD was first entered into the model, without ACC in the model, TO [F (1, 84) = 3.11, p > .1], though still not significant at the .05 level, showed a greater trend towards significance than in the first instance. In the first instance, TO accounted for no detectable change in model R-Square from having only ACC in the model and with TO entered. In the second instance, TO accounted for a change from a model R-Square of .107 with only PD in the model to .124 with TO entered along with PD. These results indicated that TO accounted for 1.7% of the variability in reentry

shock. It would seem logical that Time and Acculturation are highly correlated or are measuring some common factors. This can be explained in that ACC measured that which happened over time which would correlate closely with Time Overseas itself. Given the possibility that TO correlates highly with ACC, in future analyses it would be necessary to consider both Time Overseas and ACC as factors in order to examine the effects of acculturation to the host culture over and above the amount of time spent in the host culture. Although it is clear that TO and ACC are highly related variables, it is clearer yet that depth of acculturation to the host culture is the primary factor explaining the variability in reentry shock rather than simply the length of time spent overseas.

For the counseling practitioner or other human service professional, Time Overseas should be an signal to consider depth of acculturation as a factor in a returners' adjustment. Results of analyses of the relation of Time alone to reentry shock were too inconclusive to use it as anything other than a signal for further investigation.

General Family Functioning

As was reported in Chapter IV, there was no instance where Family was found to be a significant predictor of reentry shock. As a categorized variable, the skewness coefficient indicated that Family was not a normal distribution. When Family was analyzed as a continuous variable,

the skew was decreased, but it retained a shift toward healthy family functioning. There are several possible reasons for these results. First, it is possible that adolescents' perception of their families' functioning seems healthier to them when they are separated from their families. As can be seen in Chapter III, 51.7% of the respondents reported their families to be overseas at the time of the study. Another 17.3% reported their families to be in the United States, but not in their immediate area. That is a total of 69% who were separated from their parents at the time of the study. Given the possibility that they could be feeling grief or homesickness, their perception of family functioning could be "tainted." Second, it is possible that TCKs' families are closer than the average family in the United States due to the necessary dependence on each other in the host culture. This is supported in the literature (Useem & Downie, 1976). Third, the General Functioning Scale of the McMaster Family Assessment Device (Epstein et al., 1983) may be too brief a measure of family functioning. In only 12 items, the scale may not be able to address the full spectrum of family functioning. Fourth, the items on the FAD may be measuring different constructs from those measured by the MPD or by the HCSS. Fifth, Family may be highly correlated with another variables which are in the model. The results of the correlation with psychosocial development ($r = -.318$, $p < .01$) were significant at the .01

level. This statistic indicated that higher scores on the MPD (greater ability to solve psychosocial crises) was significantly correlated to lower scores on the General Functioning Scale of the McMaster Family Assessment Device (perception of healthier family functioning). Although this indicated that there was a relation between family functioning and psychosocial development, the mean of family functioning in this study was almost one full standard deviation better than the mean of the norming group. Regardless of the correlation between psychosocial development and family functioning, the results of this study indicated that adolescents from healthy and unhealthy families are experiencing reentry shock. The FAD did not measure family functioning in a way that indicated that it was a predictor of reentry shock. One must note, however, that the relatively small N for this study may not have been representative of those returners who come from families who are "unhealthy." It is not possible to know how adolescents whose families are not healthy would have scored on the HCSS.

Sub-Scales of the HCSS

The sub-scales of the HCSS, Interpersonal Distance, Grief, and Cultural Distance were substituted for reentry shock (HCSS) as the dependent variable for three separate regression analyses. The results of those analyses were presented in Chapter IV. However, those results, as with the results of the analysis of the independent variable,

Identity versus Identity Confusion, are tentative, at best. In the original study of HCSS (Fray, 1988), the correlation between the Culture Shock scale of the HCSS and the three sub-scales ranged from .87 to .63, all significant at the .05 level. The correlations between ID and GR, ID and CD, and GR and CD were .32, .39, and .39, respectively, once again all significant at the .05 level (Fray, 1992, p. 22). In the current study, the correlation coefficients between each of the sub-scales and the Culture Shock scale of the HCSS ranged from .91 to .74, all significant at the .0001 level. The correlations between ID and GR, ID and CD, and GR and CD were .54, .64, and .50, once again all significant at the .0001 level. Given these correlations, it is difficult to see these scales as independent of each other. At best one could conclude that a common dimension exists between them. All data resulting from analyses using these scales as dependent variables should be considered carefully and not without further research.

The overall analyses indicated that the factors of Interpersonal Distance and Cultural Distance carried the relation between reentry shock and the dependent variables more than did the Grief factor. The models for predicting each of these two (ID and CD) dependent variables were significant at the .05 (see Chapter 4) level whereas the model for predicting Grief was not significant ($p > .1$) (see Chapter 4).

Interpersonal Distance. The Interpersonal Distance Scale of the HCSS focuses on areas of social alienation, loneliness, lack of acceptance, or lack of identification with some significant cohort group in the home country. It is interesting to note that when this scale was the dependent variable in the full model, the model results [F (8, 77) = 3.41, $p < .01$] were significant. In addition, in the model with Identity versus Identity Confusion as an independent variable, Identity versus Identity Confusion was a highly significant predictor of high scores on the ID Scale. The results yielded an F (4, 82) value of 19.63 $p < .001$. This analysis was an interesting reliability check for the scales of Identity versus Identity Confusion and the Interpersonal Distance scale of the HCSS. It could be concluded that lower scores on the Identity versus Identity Confusion would be predictive of potential social isolation, loneliness, lack of acceptance, or lack of identification of adolescents with their cohort group.

Grief. The Grief Scale of the HCSS is concerned with separation, homesickness, and feelings of loss for a former way of life overseas. Returners who scored high on this scale would be considered to be grieving the loss of a familiar and cherished way of life. Though no other variable appeared to be a significant predictor of high scores on the Grief Scale of the HCSS (indicating more grief), the Grief Scale did significantly correlate with low

scores on the ARS (indicating more acculturation to the host culture) (r = -.253, p < .05), and with the participants' perception of culture distance (r = .291, p < .01). The former correlation seemed to indicate a relation between the degree to which persons become a part of the host culture and the loss they feel when having to leave the host culture. Since the HCSS is completed while living in the United States, the latter correlation could indicate that those who perceive their host cultures to be "far" from the U.S. culture have a more difficult time with reentry shock, and grieve more for the home they left which is perceived as quite different from the country where they live now.

Cultural Distance. The Cultural Distance Scale of the HCSS consists of items that are concerned with general cultural customs. This scale measures the distance or dissonance participants feel between themselves and the general values, beliefs, and customs of the new society in which they are living, in this study the United States. This scale appeared to relate directly to the ARS. In the full model, ARS is indicated to be a significant predictor of high scores on the Cultural Distance Scale. In a correlation analysis, the Cultural Distance Scale correlated significantly with ARS (r = -.356 p < .001). It is noteworthy that the ARS measures depth of acculturation to the host culture, and the CD Scale measures dissonance between individuals' values, beliefs, and customs and those of the United

States. The scale that measures closeness to the host culture correlated with the scale that measures distance from the home culture. The correlation of the scores on the CD Scale with the MPD (r = -.228, p < .05) supported the primary research question in this study, that one's psychosocial development will increase one's difficulty in adjusting to the new culture upon return to the United States from a host culture.

Perceived Culture Distance

Participants' perceived culture distance was collected as a part of the preliminary questionnaire. The three culture distance levels were "near" (very much like the United States), "intermediate" (somewhat like the United States, and somewhat different from the United States), and "far" (very different from the United States). No participant indicated that their host country was like the United States. Of the two other groups, 38 (43.7%) perceived their overseas homes to be "intermediate," and 49 (56.3%) perceived their overseas homes to be "far." A t-test on these two groups with reentry shock as the variable indicated a significant difference between the two groups at the .05 level. The results of a correlation analysis between perceived culture distance and the Cultural Distance Scale of the HCSS (r = .238, p < .05) was significant at the .05 level. These results of this correlation analysis indicated that the participants' perceptions of the distance between

their culture and the United States seemed reliable when compared to the measure of their feelings of culture distance on the CD Scale of the HCSS.

When perceived culture distance is added to the full regression model as an additional independent variable, it is significant when considering the type I sums of squares [F (1, 84) = 10.20, p < .01] and the type III sums of squares [F (1, 84) = 9.36, p < .01]. The difference in the R-Square with perceived culture distance in the model and with it not in the model is .07, indicating that alone it accounted for seven percent of the variance in reentry shock. It was the only variable in the revised full model that made a significant unique contribution to the model. Based on these results, it can be tentatively concluded that overseas adolescents' perception of the culture distance between their host culture and the United States may be a significant predictor of the amount of reentry shock they will experience upon their return.

Implications for the Study

Implications for this study fall into the categories of implications for counselors and other human service providers, implications for sending agencies, implications for schools overseas and other receiving agencies, and implications for the adolescents themselves and their families.

Many of the implications for the study have been discussed in preceding sections. It could be summarized that

there are three steps in the process of using the information of this study: gaining awareness of the overseas adolescent, that there is potential for difference in psychosocial development and acculturation; gaining knowledge of the overseas adolescent in order to put together programs and treatment plans that are appropriate for addressing the reentry issues that returners face; developing skill in delivering services to: (1) adolescents who may not be at the same developmental level as their monocultural cohort group, and who may not have the same cultural base as their U.S. cohort group, although overseas adolescents look like their monocultural counterparts and are citizens of the United States; and (2) adolescents who may not identify with the United States from the standpoint of cultural identity or from the standpoint of personal identity.

By way of recapitulation, the primary implication is with regard to the provision of services by counselors and other human service professionals, including counselors in schools. The awareness that psychosocial development is a significant variable in adolescents' difficulty in readjusting to the United States after living overseas can be integral to understanding and appropriate treatment planning by those who are attempting to assist those adolescents with their readjustment. Helping professionals who realize that adolescents they are treating are not as psychosocially developed as their monocultural cohort group will adjust

their treatment methods to give the adolescents the maximum benefit of their services. That may necessitate outside study, or supervision by another trained professional. Being sensitive to the developmental needs of returning adolescents and developing treatment modalities that address those specific developmental needs will be the responsibility of the professional who works with the adolescents. Similarly, helping professionals who are aware that overseas adolescents may not have the same cultural base as their American counterparts will be able to develop a type of multicultural sensitivity to the adolescents' "third culture," and will have a greater potential for being able to provide useful services to the returning TCK.

Sending agencies should understand that families that are moved to a foreign (host) culture and stay in the host culture for a number of years are likely to acculturate to the culture to some degree. Children in those families may not develop at the same rate as their American cohort group. Therefore, sending agencies have a responsibility to the families and children to provide training for adjustment to the host culture, and to provide reentry seminars or workshops for returners.

Schools overseas and other overseas receiving agencies can utilize the results from this study to: (1) understand the developmental processes in their overseas "third culture" setting, and (2) to provide services when adolescents

arrive to assist with the effects of culture shock, and to provide preparation when adolescents leave to assist with the effects of reentry shock. Raschio (1987) indicated that returners reported that they needed more informal opportunities to discuss experiences and feelings, that they needed time to get individual help with reentry issues, and they needed to communicate with other returners prior to arrival in the United States, thereby establishing contacts while still in the host country.

Implications for adolescents and their families. There are some implications for adolescents and their families. First, adolescents and their parents should be prepared to experience reentry shock by understanding that it exists and can be overcome. Second, they should realize the possibility that their development was different in their host situation than it would have been had they been in the United States. Given that realization, they also should realize that their difference in development in the home country is not an indicator of deviance. Without the understanding that their development was normal for the situation where they were, the possibility increases of damage to self-esteem, and in the long run, a more difficult time in adjusting to their new home culture.

Conclusions

Four main conclusions can be drawn as a result of this study. First, adolescent psychosocial development, as de-

scribed by the stages in Erikson's (1963) theory, is a significant predictor of reentry shock. As a global measure, the degree to which an adolescent is able to resolve the crises associated with Erikson's stages is the criterion by which development is determined. The better adolescents are at resolving the crises, the less reentry shock they will experience. Second, the degree to which adolescents acculturate to the host culture will affect the amount of reentry shock they experience. Deeper acculturation is a predictor of more reentry shock. Third, adolescents from healthy families and from unhealthy families, as measured by the McMaster Family Assessment Device (Epstein et al., 1983) experience reentry shock. Fourth, when examining interactions of these varibles, consistent significant differences are detected when the extremes involving psychosocial development and acculturation (particularly acculturation) are compared. For example, when comparing those who have been overseas more than 12 years, scored below the norm group on the MPD, and scored "host/bicultural" on the ARS to those who have been overseas less than 12 years, scored in or above the norm group on the MPD, and scored "American" on the ARS, the difference was significant [t (34) = 2.35, p < .05). However, other interactions which involved these three variables were not significant. Because of the high correlation between Time and ARS, it seemed as though those

two variables acted conjointly, with acculturation being the dominant variable.

Although the majority of the respondents in this study scored in the normal range on the MPD, the correlation between scores on the MPD and the HCSS were significant enough for psychosocial development to be a statistically significant predictor of reentry shock. Conversely, those who scored above the normal range scored significantly lower on the HCSS. Similar results with the ARS (deeper acculturation yields higher scores on the HCSS, less acculturation yields lower scores on the HCSS) emphasize the importance of understanding the acculturation level of returning adolescents. However, even in the light of these findings, several recommendations arise which should be addressed in further research.

Recommendations for Further Research

First, in an overall sense, when considering the best model, with the most variables, only about 25% of the variance in the dependent variable is accounted for by the independent variables in the model. What is accounting for the remaining variance in reentry shock? The first recommendation is for more studies which address the particular multicultural issues of TCKs to be conducted which would include the delineation of the characteristics of TCKs.

Second, future research should continue to examine the relationships between psychosocial development and reentry

shock, particularly with reference to the stages of Erikson's (1963) theory. A secondary recommendation under psychosocial development is to develop or discover a measure of psychosocial development that is not dependent on difference scores with the concomitant potential error. Other scales in Erikson's stages should be examined, especially if the adolescent lived in the host culture from early childhood or birth.

Third, as was mentioned earlier, a measure of acculturation which takes into account the individuals' acculturation to the "third culture" is needed for research with TCKs and their families. The ARS, with the items relating to genealogy, skewed results toward "American," whereas the vast majority of the respondents rated themselves as "bicultural" on item 20 on the ARS. Although the overall scores on the ARS related significantly to the respondents' report of reentry shock, a new scale developed for the "third culture person" would enhance the power of a study.

Fourth, additional research is needed to examine the relation between family functioning and reentry shock. Although this study resulted in no statistical significance for family functioning as a predictor of reentry shock, other studies have indicated that family functioning is indeed an integral factor in the degree of reentry shock that is experienced. Even though the impact of the family was not significant in this study, it is logical to assume

that family functioning relates to psychosocial development, and would be a mediating variable in depth of acculturation to the host culture. In addressing this question, descriptive research delineating the characteristics of third culture families is needed with subsequent research on the differences between third culture families and monocultural U.S. families.

Fifth, research is needed which will examine the perceptions of culture distance by overseas sojourners. In this study, perception of culture distance was an ancillary analysis to correlate the respondents' self-reported perception of culture distance with a measure of culture distance. Since the results indicated a significant correlation, and a separate analysis of the difference between the reentry shock scores (HCSS scores) of those who perceived their overseas culture to be "near" and those who perceived their overseas culture to be "far" was significant [t (85) = 3.094, $p < .01$], perception appears to be highly related to the experience of reentry shock. It is implies that perception of "far" culture distance, even when culture distance is not "far" could have an impact on experience of reentry shock.

Finally, when considering the reactions of Americans to the returners, and the reactions of returners to America, Werkman (1986) recommends that a body of literature be developed to help explain America with all of its cultural

diversity to Americans, and to explain returning Americans to those who have never traveled. In turn, returning Americans need an introduction or re-introduction to the American people and America.

This study has been an extensive examination of four variables identified in the literature as related to reentry shock: psychosocial development, acculturation to the host culture, time overseas, and family functioning. Relationships between variables have been examined, and questions have been answered. Questions also have been raised which led to recommendations for further research. Hopefully, the findings of this research project will provide additional clarification and understanding of the reentry experience for adolescents, and will provide a starting point for follow-up studies. In addition, this researcher hopes that counselors can use the findings of this project to develop plans and programs that will assist adolescent returners to the United States to make a full and healthy adjustment to life in their "home" country.

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APPENDIX A

PARTICIPANT REQUEST LETTER

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA AT GREENSBORO
Greensboro, NC

April 6, 1994

1~

Dear 2~,

My name is Jim Fuller. I am a doctoral student at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro. Because I have been a long-term resident overseas (12 years in Seoul, Korea), and because of some of the "obstacles" my family and I encountered when we returned to the United States, I have decided to conduct a research study on the effects of an overseas culture on a person's development. In particular, I am interested in finding out how (1) the number of years you lived overseas, (2) your depth of adjustment to the overseas culture, (3) the difference between your overseas culture and the U.S., and (4) family functioning interact to affect your development and readjustment to the U.S.

I am in hopes that the results of this study will help advisors in colleges, universities, corporations and other sending groups to understand the complexities of living overseas, and of returning to the U.S. I have found in informal conversations and in some readings that U. S. citizens who have lived overseas are a special group of people who are often not completely understood by those who have not lived overseas.

Your name was given to me by 3~, who said you might meet the qualifications for the study. Those qualifications are that: (1) you are between the ages of 17 and 20, (2) you have lived outside the United States for at least one year during your school age years, (3) you have not been back in the U. S. more than 20 months, and (4) you are a U.S. citizen.

The study consists of filling out a questionnaire, and completing four relatively short instruments. The entire process should take you no more than 30 minutes. You do not have to be identified by name after the original mailing. When the completed forms are returned to me, they are coded on the basis of first-come, first-serve. You may send your name if you would like to receive the results of the study.

Enclosed in this letter you will find a self-addressed, stamped post card. If you meet the qualifications for the study and would like to participate, please send the post card back to me with an address where you can be reached anytime in the next two months. I will mail to you a set of materials along with postage paid return envelopes as soon as I receive your card. If you do not qualify for the study or if you do not want to participate, please mark the "Cannot participate" box on the card and return the card to me. There is certainly no penalty for not participating, and there is no risk in participating should you choose to do so.

Thank you for your time. I am looking forward to hearing from you.

Sincerely,

James O. Fuller
Doctoral Candidate, UNC-Greensboro

APPENDIX B

CONSENT LETTER

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA AT GREENSBORO

CONSENT FORM

NAME: 1~

DATE OF CONSENT_____

PROJECT TITLE: "PREDICTORS OF REENTRY SHOCK IN AMERICAN ADOLESCENTS WHO HAVE LIVED OVERSEAS"

DESCRIPTION AND EXPLANATION OF PROCEDURES:

This study is intended to examine the relationship between reentry shock and five aspects of a person's experience: (1) psychosocial development; (2) the number of years overseas; (3) the level of integration into the overseas culture; (4) the distance (or difference) between the overseas culture and the U.S.; and (5) the impact of the individual's family on the adjustment back to the U.S. Each participant will receive a set of materials in the mail. The set will include one questionnaire and four instruments. The entire process of completing the set for return will take approximately 30 minutes. Upon completion, **all** materials will be returned to the researcher in self-addressed, stamped envelopes. The participants name is not required to appear anywhere on returned materials, unless he/she would like to receive results of the study.

RISKS AND BENEFITS:

There are no risks to the study, no potential for injury, and no penalty for not participating or for withdrawing from participation at any time. The benefits are related to the ability of helping professionals, overseas educators, and sending agencies to better understand the overseas adolescent in order to better assist him/her in making the necessary transition back to the United States.

CONSENT: I have been satisfactorily informed about the procedures described above and the possible risks and benefits of the project, and I agree to participate in this project. Any questions that I have about the procedures have been answered. I understand that this project and this consent form have been approved by the University Institutional Review Board which ensures that research projects involving human subjects follow federal regulations. If I have any questions about this, I will call the Office of Research Services at (919) 334-5878.

I understand that I am free to withdraw my consent to participate in the project at any time without penalty or prejudice. In addition, I will not be identified by name as a participant in this project. Any new information that might develop during the project will be provided for me if that information might affect my willingness to participate in the project.

_____ _____

Subject's Signature **Witness to Signature**

If subject is a minor or for some other reason unable to sign, complete the following:
Subject is _____ years old or unable to sign because _____

_____

_____

Parent(s)/Guardian Signature

APPENDIX C

PARTICIPANT INSTRUCTION LETTER

James O. Fuller
1930 Greenstone Place
High Point, NC 27265
(919) 883-7640 (H); (919) 334-5100 ext. 272 (W)

April 6, 1994

1~
2~

Dear 3~,

Thank you for volunteering to participate in this research project. The purpose is to discover the relationship between several factors in overseas living and the amount of culture shock you experienced upon your return to the United States.

In this packet you will find the questionnaire and instruments that you will be completing for the project. Please fill them out completely and return them in the self-addressed, stamped envelope which I have provided. Please remember to return the Item Booklet for the Measures of Psychosocial Development.

You should have the following items in your packet:

1. This letter you are currently reading.
2. A Consent Form.
3. The "Item Booklet" for the Measures of Psychosocial Development.
4. An answer sheet for the Measures of Psychosocial Development.
5. A preliminary questionnaire on which you give me information about yourself.
6. The Acculturation Rating Scale.
7. General Family Functioning Scale of the McMaster Family Assessment Device.
8. The Homecomer Culture Shock Scale.

Sounds like a lot, but it should only take about thirty minutes to complete everything. Please return all the above items to me with the exception of this letter.

Please read the instructions on each section carefully, and if you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at the address or phone numbers above.

Thank you once again. Your participation is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

James O. Fuller
Doctoral Candidate

P.S. **Please note that the "Assessment of Reentry" instruments, sections 1-4, are printed on both front and back.**

APPENDIX D

PRELIMINARY QUESTIONNAIRE

Assessment of Reentry

Preliminary Questionnaire

Instructions: Please answer each item completely and accurately. Your help is greatly appreciated in this research. **Please read all instructions and questions carefully.**

Section 1

1. Date completing this questionnaire:_____

2. Current age:_____ 3. Gender:_____

4. Age when you first moved overseas:_____

5. Number of years you lived overseas:_____

6. Reason for your being overseas:_____

7. Type of school you attended overseas (circle one letter):
   a. missionary. b. international.
   c. Department of Defense. d. home schooled.
   e. Other_____

8. Number of foreign countries in which you lived:____

9. Please list the foreign countries in which you lived.

   _____

   _____

10. Number of months you have been back in the U.S.:___

11. Your perception of the cultural distance between the country you were in overseas and the U.S (please circle one letter):
   a. Near: quite like the U.S.
   b. Intermediate: some things like the U.S. Some things different from U.S.
   c. Far: quite unlike the U.S.

12. Where are your parents now? (Circle one letter)
   a. overseas
   b. in the United States, but not in my area
   c. in my area

13. Marital Status:
   a. Single
   b. married
   c. divorced

14. Country outside the U.S. where you felt the most "at home."

   _____

15. Approximate number of years you spent overseas during grades 1 - 7: _____

16. Approximate number of years you spent overseas during grades 8 - 12: _____

17. Have you attended any seminars or workshops that were designed to help you adjust to living in the United States?

_____Yes _____No

As a participant in this study you are not required to give your name. However, if you would like to have a copy of the results, please print your name and address in the space below. Once again, thank you for your cooperation.

Name: _____

Address: _____

City, State, Zip: _____

_____

Please write any comments you might have about the preliminary questionnaire in the space below. Thank you.

APPENDIX E

INSTRUMENTS

APPENDIX E
Pages 161-172