Interpreting the Unfamiliar Early Career International Teaching Experiences and the Creation of the Professional Self

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THERE HAS BEEN LITTLE RESEARCH that explores how northern North American teachers, from the U.S. and Canada, who have participated in early-service international teaching experiences have integrated those experiences into their professional personae. When teachers return to their home countries after having taught internationally, anecdotal evidence suggests that they bring back new perspectives about pedagogy, the world, and the presentation of content, as well as increased flexibility in terms of working with students and families of many cultures. However, exploration of how these teachers articulate their experiences and their perceptions of how these experiences have specifically influenced their views about education has not been reported. An understanding of how teachers incorporate their international teaching experiences into their current practice is valuable because of recent calls to internationalize, globalize, and increase multicultural sensitivity in primary and secondary school curriculum. At the same time, northern North American teachers are expected to work with a more diverse student body. This study is an initial attempt to identify what specific learnings, strengths, and challenges are brought to schools and classrooms by teachers who began their careers teaching in international environments. Evidence from this work suggests that international teachers internalize a broader contextualization of who constitutes their teaching community, expand their repertoire of acceptable classroom pedagogical and curricular practices, and are more comfortable with cultural dissonance in their classrooms. Together, this indicates that international teachers tend to view the traditional classroom experience as an opportunity to extend their educational vision and practice while utilizing the diversities in their schools to support learning in, at times, non-traditional ways.
Literature Review

Calls for increasing the cultural diversity, internationalization, and globalization of U.S. and Canadian pedagogical practices and curricular development suggest that multicultural experiences are valued for both students and teachers (Garii, 2000; Heydl & McCarthy, 2003; Pinar, 2006; Villegas, 2007; Wiggins, Follo, & Eberly, 2007; Willard-Holt, 2001). This curricular trend may be related to the fact that classroom communities are becoming more diverse as students’ family structures and cultures become part of the realities of schooling, as evidenced by, for example, census figures (United States Census Bureau, 2002) and global transformations (Friedman, 2005). Thus, teachers are faced with the challenge of ensuring that the classroom experience is successful for all students, not just those who traditionally succeed in primary and secondary school environments (Villegas, 2007).

Furthermore, increasing immigration and the associated incorporation of a larger number of immigrant students bring new languages, perspectives, values, and social, communal, and academic needs and expectations into classroom experiences. Yet teachers who facilitate these multicultural curricular experiences often have limited contact with or knowledge of cultures not their own (Pinar, 2006; Wiggins, et al., 2007). Studies show that teachers’ experiences with students from different cultural backgrounds are often interpreted as confusing, problematic, or uncomfortable (Chan, Lam, & Covault, 2009; Roshan, 2005; Yeh, et al., 2005) by students, students’ families, school administrators, and teachers themselves. Moreover, there is little evidence that this lack of exposure will change anytime soon since the typical teacher in the U.S. and Canada comes from White, middle-class backgrounds with little experience with or knowledge of other cultures and historical imperatives (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005; Garii, 2000; Stachowski & Mahan, 1998). In fact, Villegas (2007) suggests that preservice teachers who are introduced to examples of challenging classroom situations in an attempt to encourage them to stretch their comfort zones respond by dismissing these examples as theoretical, unrealistic, and irrelevant to the actual practice of teaching.

Teaching, then, is becoming an uncertain occupation in that the pool of new teachers entering the profession do not reflect (and are increasingly less likely to reflect) the students they teach. This lack of congruence between teachers and students leads to cultural dissonance: teachers do not recognize, understand, and/or value the structures within which their students live. This dissonance may be understood as a form of educational colonization (Asher, 2003; Pinar, 2006). The classroom becomes a place where teachers attempt to reduce cultural diversities by interpreting student behaviors and responses within the teachers’ own cultural frameworks. Teachers reduce their uncertainty in the face of the unfamiliar by identifying archetypical models of classroom engagement that lead to stereotypical expectations of their own practice and their students’ performance (Gough, 2009; Kawaiilak, 2008). In other words, the curriculum and pedagogy of the modern multicultural classroom becomes a bastion of similarity as teachers, with little knowledge of educational and societal expectations outside of their own cultural understandings, try to make sense of their students’ classroom beliefs, practices, and participation goals. Teachers reinforce their own cultural norms while, perhaps inadvertently, undercutting the varieties of knowledge and hopes that their students bring to school.

Very few preservice teachers and early career teachers, defined here as teachers within the first two years of professional practice, have participated in overseas professional opportunities. Such overseas professional opportunities include student teaching or participation in structured, short-term practica experiences in host country schools outside of the U.S. or Canada or professional, full-time teaching employment at host country or international schools located outside of one’s home country (Hayden, 2006). Such limited participation in overseas teaching experiences has occurred despite evidence that suggests that participation in teaching abroad opportunities are associated with greater cultural awareness and sensitivity, increased “globalmindedness,” and
an expanded worldview (Cushner & Brennan, 2007; Mahan & Stachowski, 1985; Stachowski, 2007; Wolfer, 1990). Such opportunities offer teachers an extended range of options (Ling, Burman, Cooper, & Ling, 2006; Romano, 2007) that enable them access to a wider variety of classroom practices while adding breadth and depth to both cultural competence and content understanding (Garii, 2000; Herbel-Eisenmann, 2007).

More specifically, researchers recognize that overseas experiences positively impact curricular expectations, pedagogical perspectives, and classroom practices of early career teachers (Cushner & Brennan, 2007; Deardorff, 2006). Preservice teachers in particular return from such practica experiences better able to identify, empathize with, and support students who are not part of the dominant culture of North American schools (Stachowski, 2007; Wiggins, et al., 2007). Overseas teaching experiences support preservice teachers as they expand their understanding of their own teaching as they deconstruct and reconstruct knowledge of curricular integration, pedagogical decision-making and classroom practices (Chan, et al., 2009; Gough, 2009). Preservice teachers who engage in field placements that cross their cultural boundaries struggle to make sense of conflicting sets of values, cultural norms, and previously unrecognized stereotypes (Chan, et al., 2009; King, 1991; Malewski & Phillion, 2009). For example, building on Nina Asher’s (2005) insights into the ways in which attempts to transcend personal and professional borders influence one’s ability to recognize and articulate self-as-other and self-as-hegemonic, Kawalilak (2008) invited Canadian preservice teachers to confront the limits of their cultural knowledge within professional practices by engaging in intensive “border-crossing” field placements. By teaching in self-selected yet very unfamiliar contexts where the preservice teachers were not part of the majority community, the preservice teachers were encouraged to construct meaning and make sense of their own expectations of schooling, education, and self in very culturally diverse environments. Similarly, Malewski and Phillion (2009) worked with U.S. preservice teachers who spent three weeks teaching in a school in Honduras. Here, the new teachers’ confrontations with unfamiliar and ambiguous societal, cultural, and school-based expectations pushed them to think critically about the meaning of culture and society in the creation of a professional self. By dint of participating in these border-crossing experiences (Asher, 2003, 2005), these new teachers, most of whom were members of the dominant culture in northern North America, began to articulate an increased understanding of what it means to be an outsider, unable to make sense of the norms of a dominant culture. Thus, these new teachers are no longer able or willing to decrease their uncertainty (Gough, 2009) because they recognize that uncertainty is inherent and important in any professional practice in that uncertainty gives room for questions, possibilities, experimentation, and growth.

Recent work also documents positive results regarding the shaping of facets of teacher identities from overseas and other North American-based culturally-diverse professional teaching experiences, including working with Navajo students (Stachowski & Mahan, 1998) and working in urban, low-income, inner-city neighborhoods (Wiggins, et al., 2007). These facets of teacher identity include increased self-reliance and flexibility as well as enhanced awareness about and appreciation for other cultures, globalmindedness, and self-understanding (Kissock, 1997; Mahon & Cushner, 2002; Stachowski & Visconti, 1997). At the same time, preservice teachers who have participated in overseas teaching experiences are better able to understand the struggles and challenges of their own students due to their experiences as outsiders in new and different cultures (Stachowski, 2007).

However, few researchers have addressed the impact of early career professional teaching experiences on teachers’ practices upon their return to their home countries. Black and Scott (1997) report that returning teachers recognize their increased ability to work successfully with a wide range of students, especially students who do not mirror a school’s typical population. Yet, these teachers report that their experiences and knowledge are perceived as less valuable by potential employers because the teachers are perceived to have “los[t] the ability to relate to”
home country students (Black & Scott, 1997, p. 43). Additionally, these teachers are assumed to be less aware of curricular mandates and changes in their home countries. In contrast, several studies report that teachers teaching internationally exhibit increased intercultural literacy—the ability to recognize, articulate, and integrate a variety of dissonant cultural demands and expectations into their professional personae (Allan, 2002, 2003; Black & Scott, 1997; Heyward, 2002).

Most teachers participating in overseas classroom experiences encounter school structures that are somewhat familiar, yet the surrounding experiences outside of the school sensitize the teachers to issues of language and cultural knowledge that are unfamiliar (Black & Scott, 1997; Hayden, 2006). For example, learning how to negotiate local banking and bill paying systems, becoming conversant and comfortable with public transportation, and struggling to make sense of idiomatic conversation in an unfamiliar language often places these teachers in roles similar to that of multicultural students (e.g., students from the non-dominant culture) in classrooms in the teachers’ home countries. Thus, teachers who participate in international professional teaching opportunities begin to identify and better understand how communities shape and inform students’ involvement and participation in the school experience (Allan, 2002; Hayden, 2006; Romano, 2007; Stachowski & Mahan, 1998). Once back home in their own classrooms, they are able to reflect on their own struggles in their overseas placements and use these understandings to inform their perceptions of their role in classrooms and schools (Black & Scott, 1997; Romano, 2007) while recognizing some of the challenges faced by students in their classrooms who represent non-dominant culture.

Participation in overseas opportunities has been shown to increase awareness of and comfort with a diversity of perspectives in terms of professionalism (Allan, 2002, 2003; Black & Scott, 1997; Carrilio & Mathiesen, 2006; Wessel, 2007) and multicultural competence (Deardorff, 2006; Hayden, 2006; Ling, et al., 2006). Evidence suggests that preservice teachers who complete at least part of their professional teacher education outside of their home countries embrace diversity and incorporate a flexible pedagogical perspective in their classroom stance (Kawalilak, 2008; Ling, et al., 2006; Schlein, 2006). Additional studies indicate that preservice overseas teaching experiences affect the perspectives and practices of the new teachers upon their entry into professional practice. Some argue that such experiences occurring during training are the most influential component of the teacher education program (Conant, 1963; Cruickshank & Armaline, 1986; Goodlad, 1990; Stachowski, 2007). Student teachers’ eventual professional practice is greatly influenced by the characteristics in which the preservice teachers complete their field experience (Villegas, 2007), such as the routines, pedagogical practices, structures, norms, and values of the school(s) (Romano, 2007; Stachowski, 2007; Stachowski & Mahan, 1998). Thus, preservice teachers’ perspectives about their work are significantly shaped by the characteristics, practices, and structures of the schools where they participate in field experiences (Chan, et al., 2009; Cochran-Smith, 2000; Kawalilak, 2008; Wiggins, et al., 2007; Willard-Holt, 2001).

Clearly, there is ample evidence that structured preservice teaching experiences in overseas environments positively impact teachers’ development and articulation of their professional selves, especially as it relates to their pedagogy and understanding of curricular and classroom culture. This evidence, however, comes from the explorations of the experiences of preservice teachers (Cushner & Brennan, 2007; Wiggins, et al., 2007; Willard-Holt, 2001). Very little work explores the experiences of practicing teachers who return to their home countries (Black & Scott, 1997). More specifically, what is left unexplored is the impact of international teaching on the trajectory of professional identity among early career teachers.

When northern North American teachers participate in overseas professional teaching experiences, they often work in a primary or secondary International School in a host country in which the language of instruction is English. These International Schools serve international students living overseas due to parents’ employment and host country students whose parents are
able to afford the tuition. Some International Schools offer U.S.- or Canadian-based curriculum while other present a more diverse, internationally-based education culminating in an International Baccalaureate (IB) (Ahanhanzo, Odushin, & Bibi-Adelakoun, 2006; Gerner & Perry, 2000; Hayden, 2006; Hayden & Thompson, 1998). Regardless of the educational model in these International Schools, the student body and the faculty generally represent 30 or more countries and many of the students and other school personnel are multilingual (Al-Issa, 2004; Gillies, 2002; Hayden, 2006). Some schools, while maintaining a loose association with the U.S. or Canadian embassy and nominally mimicking a northern North American school environment, cater to students who have never been to the U.S. or Canada and speak little English upon entry.1 Regardless of whether or not the school follows a northern North American or IB curriculum, the general school structure and expectations reflect U.S./Canadian models of education and, thus, will be familiar to the U.S. and Canadian teachers. In some countries, International Schools fall under the purview of the host country’s Ministry of Education and are mandated to include host country language and/or cultural classes in the curriculum, while other countries allow International Schools to operate independent of host country oversight. Regardless of the International School’s interactions with the host country’s Ministry of Education, the international location of the school—making the school an oasis of “Americaanness” in a culturally and (often) linguistically unique environment—encourages teachers to expand their zones of cultural comfort, bridging the familiar with the unfamiliar. Even when the International School is not mandated to recognize host country culture, teachers themselves look for ways to identify, incorporate, and make relevant culture and concerns of importance in the host country (Oswald & Popinchalk, 2009; Tucker & Fall, 2007). Thus, there is an implicit recognition of the importance of integration of a variety of cultural perspectives into curricular understanding. Another point of entry for U.S. and Canadians to teach internationally is through the Peace Corps or similar organizations (such as VSO-CUSO). Those who begin their professional careers in the Peace Corps enter the teaching profession through an alternative route and, while holding at least an initial university degree, these volunteers often do not have any specific training in educational practice or pedagogy (Olebe, 2005; Vladero, 2005). They teach in host country schools that are often rural and less affluent, and their students reflect the challenges faced by marginalized peoples in the host country. The teaching experience is framed by both a Peace Corps-based short-term teacher preparation program with additional support from Peace Corps-produced training materials (Olebe, 2005; Peace Corps Center for Field Assistance and Applied Research, 2005; Vladero, 2005) and a “trial by fire” induction to the realities of the workplace (Mutiash, 2007; Olebe, 2005). Peace Corps teachers work with fellow professionals from the host country who represent a wide array of educational and cultural backgrounds that reflect a variety of understandings and expectations of teacher professional practices, pedagogies, and the roles of school in society.

Few northern North American teachers who begin their professional overseas practice teach in host country, non-Peace Corps supported schools. Their participation in more traditional host country schools is limited for several reasons. First, northern North American teachers may not have adequate professional and/or academic language skills that would allow them to teach in the language of the host country. Second, these teachers generally have not completed the requisite teacher education program that would enable them to obtain the credentials needed to teach in most host country schools. Finally, there are often visa restrictions that preclude northern North American teachers from obtaining employment. Thus, while overseas teaching in host country schools may be of interest to some teachers, there are few opportunities to do so.

Evidence suggests that students who attend international schools or local, village schools with Peace Corps volunteers on staff improve and increase their global and cultural understanding (Al-Issa, 2004; Hayden, Rancic, & Thompson, 2000; Higher education’s ‘hidden immigrants,’ 2005; Olebe, 2005; Peace Corps Center for Field Assistance and Applied Research, 2005). However, we are less clear about how teaching in an International School or in a Peace...
Corps-sponsored environment impacts and informs the self-perceptions of the teachers themselves. The evidence discussed earlier (Cushner & Brennan, 2007; Deardorff, 2006) addresses immediate impacts measured soon after preservice teachers return to northern North America. This evidence suggests that many preservice teachers who participate in border-crossing experiences recognize their own “otherness” and are able to articulate educational imperatives associated with the divide between dominant and non-dominant culture expectations, values, and mores (Asher, 2003; Kawailik, 2008; Malewski & Phillion, 2009). However, no work to date explicitly considers how early-career teaching in an overseas school impacts and informs teachers’ understandings of curriculum, pedagogy, and practice upon their return home. This is important because, as discussed earlier, these early career experiences inform and influence early career teachers’ professional identities and career trajectories. Specifically, such border-crossing experiences are associated with a heightened understanding of the role of uncertainty in the practices, pedagogies, and curricular expectations associated with the classroom experience (Asher, 2003; Kumishiro, 2004).

Similarly, no work expressly explores how northern North American teachers who have participated in early career teaching experiences in an overseas school have integrated those experiences into their professional perceptions. Thus, this paper begins to explore how early career teachers negotiate their shifting senses of professional identity, given their international teaching experiences. Two questions frame this research:

1. What are the impacts of early-career teaching experiences at an overseas school on teachers’ understandings of pedagogy and practice?
2. How do teachers make sense of their early-career experiences in an international environment?

Methods

Participants

Nine teachers (3 female—including the author of this paper, 6 male) participated in this initial exploration of the early teaching experiences of teachers in schools overseas. At the time of their first international teaching position, five teachers were certified to teach in the U.S. and one was certified in Canada. One participant was completing his teacher certification program during his first year of teaching overseas; the other two participants obtained their professional certification upon their return to the United States. Snowball sampling was used to identify study participants: the author contacted colleagues who had taught in American international schools early in their careers and invited them to participate in the study (N = 4). They in turn suggested other participants (N = 5). However, only the responses of eight teachers have been included in this analysis. The ninth teacher taught at an English-as-a-Second-Language program and was not affiliated with an International School or host-country school employing Peace Corps volunteers.

All eight participants had two years or less of professional teaching experience when they initially taught in an international school environment. At the time of their participation in this project, two of the participants had never taught in the U.S. or Canada and continue to teach overseas. Three returned to the U.S. and taught for at least 1 year upon return (see Table 1).
Table 1. Overview of Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pseudonym</th>
<th>Al</th>
<th>Barb</th>
<th>Bill</th>
<th>Deb</th>
<th>Jane</th>
<th>Paul</th>
<th>Rob</th>
<th>Zeb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initial Internat’l Experience</td>
<td>Burkina Faso</td>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>Kuwait</td>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>Sierra Leone (Peace Corps)</td>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>Jamaica (Peace Corps)</td>
<td>Indonesia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>African-American</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>White</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of Prior Teaching Experience</td>
<td>2 yrs</td>
<td>1 yr</td>
<td>0 yrs</td>
<td>1 yrs</td>
<td>0 yrs</td>
<td>0 yrs</td>
<td>0 yrs</td>
<td>0 yrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taught in North America after overseas experience?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No (moved into ed admin)</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Additional overseas teaching experiences</td>
<td>Indonesia Now resides in U.S.</td>
<td>Burkina Faso Now resides in U.S.</td>
<td>Thailand; Sri Lanka; Ukraine Now resides in U.S.</td>
<td>Now resides in U.S.</td>
<td>Now resides in U.S.</td>
<td>China; Paraguay; Ecuador Now resides in U.S.</td>
<td>Now resides in U.S.</td>
<td>Continues to teach in Indonesia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1: Author of this paper  
2: Received teaching certification at the end of 1st yr of teaching in Kuwait  
3:Received teaching certification upon return to the U.S.

While some reported memories that participants brought to this study may have been distorted due to the distance (in years) from the recalled event, this time frame also gave room for the participants to reflect on and contextualize their growth as educators, as seen through their own globalized lenses.

Procedures

Teachers were contacted by email and invited to participate in this study by completing a questionnaire or participating in an interview that asked them to reflect on their initial experiences teaching overseas. All teachers invited agreed to participate. Three participants (Al, Paul, and Zeb) completed the online questionnaire; three others (Deb, Jane, and Rob) were interviewed on the telephone; Bill was interviewed in person; Barb completed the questionnaire in a paper-
and-pencil format. The method of questionnaire completion was predicated on location of the participant at the time of the interview. The questionnaire asked teachers to describe and elaborate their reasons for teaching internationally and consider how these experiences have influenced their current teaching practices (see Table 2). Questions were designed to encourage the participants to articulate their experiences within the context of their more recent professional practices. More specifically, the intent of the questionnaire was to encourage participants to consider how their international experiences offered them opportunities to re-characterize themselves as teachers/educators.

Table 2. Key Questions to Explore Impacts of International Teaching

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Why did you decide to teach internationally early in your professional career?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What was most challenging about beginning your career internationally? What was most rewarding?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How have your overseas/international teaching experiences impacted your teaching?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How have these experiences impacted your understanding of what it means to be a teacher?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How do you see yourself as a teacher, similar to and different from your U.S. and/or Canadian colleagues?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In your international positions, I’m sure you have been in the position of welcoming teachers who were new to international teaching. How did the experience of working with new international teachers inform your own identities as a teacher and as an international teacher?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interview and questionnaire data were uploaded to NVIVO for analysis.

Data analysis

The study used phenomenological analysis (Creswell, 2007) of teachers’ understanding of the impact that early-service international experience had on their pedagogical practices. Within the context of exploring how teachers articulate their multicultural understanding, cultural diversity, and globalmindedness in U.S. classrooms, several queries considered the different ways that teachers identified and characterized their international teaching experiences, the pedagogical changes, and their growth as teachers due to their international experiences. Using NVIVO software to organize identified categories, the constant comparison method was employed to identify core concerns and responses (Charmaz, 2006; Richards, 2005) that illustrated teachers’ understanding of the role of their early-career international experiences in light of their more recent classroom practices.
Results

All participating teachers characterized their international teaching experiences across three themes: professional growth, wider understanding of “the teaching community,” and learning from unexpected challenges. While the schools they taught in represented a wide range of sizes, structures, and educational expectations (Table 3), the teachers in this study all reported similar personal and professional insights.

Table 3: Overview of Schools (All Schools were U.S. Accredited)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Student Population</th>
<th>Population Served</th>
<th>Teaching Personnel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Burkina Faso</td>
<td>Capital City</td>
<td>120 1st and 2nd grade students, 30+ countries represented; including 10% Canadian, less than 5% U.S., 1% host country nationals</td>
<td>Embassy, NGO, military representatives, international business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(AI)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>U.S., French, Lebanese, German, and Burkinabé</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>Major City</td>
<td>1200 1st and 2nd grade students, 95% Colombian, less than 2% U.S.</td>
<td>Host Country Nationals who wanted their children to have a bilingual education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Barb, Paul)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>Capital City</td>
<td>more than 1000, 1st and 2nd grade students, 60+ countries</td>
<td>Embassy personnel, NGO, international business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Zeb)</td>
<td></td>
<td>represented including U.S., Canadian, Western European, and host country nationals</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jamaica</td>
<td>Village</td>
<td>Large village 2nd school</td>
<td>Local (host country) students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Rob)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kuwait</td>
<td>Capital City</td>
<td>More than 1000 1st and 2nd grade students, 30+ countries represented including U.S., Canadian, Western European, and host country nationals</td>
<td>Embassy personnel, international business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Bill)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>Capital City</td>
<td>Large urban 1st grade school</td>
<td>Local (host country) students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Deb)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sierra Leone</td>
<td>Village</td>
<td>Village 2nd grade schools</td>
<td>Local (host country) students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Jane)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>Capital City</td>
<td>more than 1000, 1st and 2nd grade students, 60+ countries</td>
<td>Embassy personnel, NGO, international business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Zeb)</td>
<td></td>
<td>represented including U.S., Canadian, Western European, and host country nationals</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1: NGO, Non-Governmental Organizations, such as International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) or Care International
Professional Growth

All the schools offered a vibrant community within which these new teachers began to hone their craft. While all teachers understood that they were moving into an international environment, their teaching experiences forced them to confront a new sense of what it means to teach a diverse community. Zeb, who began his career in Indonesia and continues to teach there, described this by saying: “I am surrounded by International students, teachers, and a variety of perspectives that lend to my curriculum a personal education I do not feel I would have state-side.” Later, when discussing his work with teachers new to the school and to international teaching, Zeb noted that he found it “…interesting to speak with newly arrived teachers who have never been International before. It is not so much the teaching but the cultural nuances that inform the identities.”

Al’s career began in the U.S. (2 years). He then moved to Burkina Faso (2 years), returned to the U.S. (3 years), continued in Indonesia (3 years), and then returned to the United States. He noted that,

I have been able to see that other teachers have different priorities than I have. I was focused on the content area. Others have concentrated on the students, their families, or their individual studies as teacher/students. Different cultures have also brought different approaches to teaching. What teachers from other countries may find offensive in American schools may not be as offensive to me.

Within these schools, the teachers were offered unexpected opportunities to recreate themselves as teachers. Whether because of school needs (e.g., Paul’s experience in Colombia), the range of possibilities in the school (e.g., Zeb’s experience in Indonesia), or time to consider her role as a teacher (e.g., Barb’s experiences in Colombia), teachers were able to expand their professional range and hone their practice.

When I decided to become a teacher I envisioned myself teaching juniors and seniors [upper secondary students]…my first experience put me in middle school [upper primary/lower secondary] and over the years that is where I find myself most comfortable. So, I would say that going overseas has made me a middle school teacher. (Paul)

Because I was afforded the luxury of working in the elementary, middle, and high [primary and secondary] school realms I fell in love with the middle school [upper primary/lower secondary]. Having the time to really see the different levels was very powerful because it provided an authentic look at who I was and what I was really about. (Zeb)

Teaching has broadened me—for me, teaching is not limited to being in front of the classroom—I better recognize my students’ struggles and balances as they try to comprehend the world of school and the world of their out-of-school lives. Not just international students but all students. That feeling of “who am I? where do I fit?” is pervasive—being an international teacher, I had to confront that on a daily basis—by upsetting my routine, I was forced to reassess who I was as a teacher…what did it mean to be a teacher. So now, I bring that to the classroom and recognize that my students are asking those questions of themselves all the time. (Barb)
Deb, who began her undergraduate education in the United States, completed her teacher education program at a Mexican/U.S. university in Mexico where she earned teaching credentials recognized in both nations. Upon graduation, she taught briefly in the U.S. and then returned to Mexico where she taught at a Mexican primary school for several years. As a well educated, bilingual, African-American woman in the United States, she found herself to be “apart from” both the dominant culture teachers and the bulk of the African-American community in the United States at that time (early 1970s). In Mexico, she described her life as uneventful and typical; she “fit in” in many ways that were unusual in the U.S. at that time. Thus, Deb’s experience fortified her sense of professionalism in that she was recognized as similar to the other professionals at her school in Mexico, rather than different from her colleagues, as was the case in the United States.

Teaching Community

Teaching in international environments affords teachers opportunities to interact with their students and colleagues more frequently, in both formal and informal circumstances. Most simplistically, teachers articulated that colleagues were supportive and willing to share ideas and that the schools themselves helped them nurture positive relationships with students and their parents. More specifically, the teachers recognized this nurturance as a valuable tool that enhances their ability to work with their students. In effect, the students themselves have become part of the teaching community.

Teachers at International Schools develop a lot closer relationships with their students than they do in the United States. You spend more time with them, you’re teaching them, coaching them, and traveling internationally with them for sporting events. International schools tend to be the hub of all social activity for students, teachers, parents and all members of that school community. Therefore, you spend time socially with your students as well as academically. This increased bonding allows the teacher to understand individual student needs at a far greater level than any teacher in the states could ever hope to achieve. (Bill)

Additionally, the host country itself becomes part of the “teaching community,” because it informs and impacts teachers’ abilities to understand their students, their new communities, and their decision-making.

My main goal when I worked with new international teachers was to help them recognize and become comfortable with the shaky ground—not only does teaching require an ability to work within the unknown (issues with students, etc.) but teaching internationally requires that we suspend judgment because no matter what, we don’t have all the information (we can’t make value judgments because we are not part of the local culture—we don’t necessarily understand local decision making protocols, reasons, etc). (Barb)

Both Jane and Rob experienced teaching as true neophytes, having entered the profession through the Peace Corps where they received less than 6 months of training before being sent to their sites. Both stressed the immediate “fish-out-of-water” feelings in terms of both culture
shock and teacher shock. They were living in unfamiliar environments and working in professions for which they had little background and understanding. Yet they both took advantage of many opportunities to learn from their local colleagues and from fellow Peace Corps volunteers. For example, Jane prepared for her Peace Corps position by collecting a variety of teaching support materials in the United States that she carried with her to Sierra Leone, expecting to use them in her classroom practice. Upon her arrival in her village, she discovered that the students had no context with which to understand the information she wanted to present. Simultaneously, she also realized that she had no access to tools that she assumed would be easily available (such as scissors, paper, and electricity). Jane recognized and articulated her own learning curve as she described working closely with colleagues and her students to revamp her cultural and pedagogical expectations to better fit with the needs of the community she was serving.

Learning from Unexpected Challenges

Bill, who began his teaching career in Kuwait, noted that, “...learning how to teach while learning how to live in a new culture made both more challenging.” Bill’s comments are reflected by Al’s concerns. Although Al had taught for 2 years in the U.S. before moving overseas, his assignment in Burkina Faso was in a new grade level: “I was at a small school…and would have benefited greatly from colleagues teaching the same grade level as myself to collaborate with.” Barb’s concerns were couched outside of the school environment. Because of limited language skills, she did “not always understand...what was going on around me. [I] sometimes [tried] to put my expectations into a system that didn’t value my point of view.”

Jane and Rob, as Peace Corps volunteers and as professional teachers within their host countries, grappled with trying to straddle two sets of cultural realities. As representatives of the U.S. and (technically) as U.S. government employees, there were restrictions imposed on them in terms of living conditions (e.g., they were not permitted to fully engage in village life, due to housing and medical mandates). Yet they attempted to become part of their local communities by making friends with their colleagues at their schools. However, both Jane and Rob were aware that many of their colleagues kept their distance from the Peace Corps volunteers and did not invite Jane and Rob to become part of the social community. Rob speculated that this may have been associated with a general feeling of unease and concern that the Peace Corps would impose their expectations and values on the local school community.

Deb’s articulation of her experience in Mexico suggests that the “normality” of her life in Mexico was in stark contrast to her “differentness” in the United States.

The experience of teaching overseas for a Black American and a White American…the impact on them [is] different...[At home, in the U.S.], a Black American from the middle class, you’ve already had to think about flexibility, you’ve had to think about “I don’t own this.” You have to think about where do I fit in, how do I adjust. A White American is the norm...[White Americans expect] you come over...and fit with [them] and line up with [them]...The experience of a Black American and a White American, put both of them in the same setting outside the U.S. and what they see, the lenses and experiences...will be different...It’s even how they’re treated. How I was treated [in Mexico] as opposed to a White American, I know how I was treated was different. I was very much accepted...I kept asking myself, why is it so comfortable here? One is because I
know the language…and also how the people received me. I was just another person there. No one was asking “why are you here” I was just another person there.

Deb’s experiences in Mexico encouraged her to rethink her understanding of herself as a professional. As a Spanish-speaking African-American teacher in Mexico, she was accepted as a teacher and a professional first and foremost. As the same person in the U.S., her presence in her own classroom was always questioned. Teaching in Mexico gave her the opportunity to be “the norm” as opposed to trying to fit into the norm. The cultural dissonance she experienced at home, in the U.S., was mitigated by her experiences in Mexico.

These challenges allowed all the participants to reconsider what it means to be an outsider in a familiar-seeming environment. In order to be successful in their overseas classrooms and in their professions, the seven White teachers were forced to grapple with unexpected uncertainty, due to the diverse cultural and educational expectations of their students, fellow teachers, and school administrators. The African-American teacher developed a professional persona that strengthened her teaching self and allowed her to better understand her struggles at home, in the U.S., as both a professional and as a marginalized member of society.

Paul summed up the challenges that face teachers in International Schools succinctly: “While the name of the school might include the word ‘American’ or ‘International’ [we] are really the strangers and…[we] need to be patient and flexible.”

**Discussion**

The three themes identified by the teachers—professional growth, wider understanding of the teaching community, and learning from unexpected challenges—suggest that professional teaching experiences in international environments are, at times, overwhelming and all-consuming. Yet the teachers’ expanded comments indicate an underlying realization of positive growth and change associated with the ability to be self-reflective and insightful. Their comments are reflective of previous work (Black & Scott, 1997; Hayden & Thompson, 1998; Stachowski, 2007; Wiggins, et al., 2007) that associates teachers’ flexibility, intercultural literacy, and comfort with cultural dissonance with teachers’ diverse, international experiences. Although often unacknowledged during their time overseas, participation in this wider community of practice supported teachers’ learning through a variety of unexpected challenges, including personal and professional cultural and linguistic marginalization. Ultimately, participation in this wider community helped these teachers better recognize and support their students’ learning challenges in culturally dissonant environments. These teachers reported an expansion of their own cultural boundaries in professional environments, defined by what they recognized as acceptable teaching and learning practices and behaviors. Finally, this acceptance, incorporation, and encouragement of flexible pedagogies and diversities of thinking and learning strategies set them apart from their U.S.-based colleagues in ways that were often uncomfortable and, at times, divisive. Intercultural competency was manifested by the ability to recognize and work within a structure of cultural dissonance, both in their overseas positions and back in northern North America.

More specifically, the three themes informed the teachers’ perspectives on their professional practices in several ways. First, teachers recognized a need to have a more flexible sense of themselves and their own teaching. This flexibility included a deeper, less theoretical, under-
standing that nuances of culture and differing priorities impact teaching practice. Additionally, the necessity to be flexible offered the teachers opportunities to explore their own classroom strengths and teaching interests. Thus, this flexibility became an opportunity to grow as professionals.

Second, these teachers also described an increased comfort and ability to work with ambiguity and uncertainty. When teachers’ standard professional routines are “upset” (to use Barb’s word) or recognized as not relevant (reflecting Jane’s discussion of the teaching supports she carried with her), they are forced to reassess their teaching practices and their interactions with colleagues. Similarly, recognizing themselves as “strangers” (as Paul suggested) or “other” (as Deb’s contradictory experiences in the U.S. and Mexico suggested) obliges teachers to become less ill-at-ease with their inability to make sense of everything they see and hear. Reflective of Hayden’s contentions (Hayden, 2006; Hayden & Thompson, 1998), although teachers in international milieux work in a somewhat familiar educational environment, the school itself is located in an unfamiliar place. Therefore, the teachers’ cultural grounding has been displaced and the teachers are faced with learning to incorporate this uncertainty into their professional personae: How do you teach effectively when the surrounding culture may not recognize, reflect, or support your professional decisions? It is this ambiguity that led to the teachers’ flexibility. Ultimately, their uncertainty gave them the room to explore different practices, different teaching styles, and different professional personae.

Finally, this ability to work successfully with ambiguity translates into increased self-confidence (Asher, 2003; Cushner & Brennan, 2007; Kumishiro, 2004; Stachowski, 2007). All eight teachers acknowledged their ability to succeed in unfamiliar environments. While the lack of teaching colleagues at grade level may be troubling and inadequate language skills may prevent full comprehension of the outside-of-school community, the teachers articulated their successes in a variety of ways. Zeb relished “an authentic look at who I was” while Bill reported that he was able to develop strong relationships with his students outside of traditional classroom experiences. Paul’s comment, that teachers need to be patient and flexible, suggests his recognition that the ability to teach effectively—whether internationally or at home—requires time to breathe, while getting to know the community, the students, and the school.

Although five of these teachers all taught in International Schools which nominally mimicked a northern North American school environment, these schools were located in unfamiliar cultures (Colombia, Burkina Faso, Kuwait, Indonesia) and the local populations spoke languages other than English (Spanish, French and Moré, Arabic, Bahasa Indonesian). The schools themselves reflected a combination of northern North American and international practices due to the student and teacher populations and local expectations. While Jane and Rob taught in English-speaking nations (Sierra Leone, Jamaica), they worked in rural, poverty-stricken environments that reflected a very different set of realities, values, and expectations than they had experienced previously in the United States. Deb was perhaps most at-home in her international life, having completed her education in Mexico and speaking Spanish fluently. Her challenge was to translate her professional success in Mexico back to the reality of teaching in the United States as a well-educated African-American woman. Thus, it appears that the teachers who participated in this study were aware that they were learning along with their students: while all teachers learn from and with their students, these international teachers were explicitly cognizant of their learning to function effectively in unfamiliar and/or discomforting cultures. The specific learnings that these teachers internalized, including the recognition of the frustrations associated with acclimatization to unfamiliar social and professional expectations and the difficulties experienced when convers-
ing with friends and colleagues in an unfamiliar language, reflect the challenges that students from non-dominant cultures bring to the classroom experience. The teachers’ active, ongoing participation in the process of learning the local environment, culture, and language seems to positively inform their understanding of their students’ struggles as learners. When these teachers spoke of their growth as professionals, they were also tacitly recognizing their growth as learners. Their recognition of various layers of community reflected their expanded understanding of learning as a community process. The challenges they identified were the catalysts for their growth experiences.

**Implications**

This work suggests that early career international teaching enables new teachers to rapidly incorporate flexible pedagogies and culturally nuanced understandings of classroom realities into their professional practices. Because they were in professional contexts, expected to manage their own classrooms without the external structure associated with practica, student teaching, or other field placement experiences, these teachers had to quickly reinterpret and reconstruct their educational expectations and pedagogical mandates. Thus, the intercultural competencies that we hope new teachers will bring to the classroom are learned more quickly, more robustly, and are better internalized when learned in culturally and/or linguistically unfamiliar professional circumstances. By taking teachers out of their place of comfort as a member of their dominant culture at home, teachers move into the role of “marginalized outsiders” who must identify the source of their discomfort in the professional setting and internalize a new set of rules and expectations (Kumishiro, 2004). Even Deb, who was marginalized at home and seen as a part of the professional elite while teaching in Mexico, had to rethink her sense of professional identity because—it can be argued—prior to teaching in Mexico, her “place of comfort” was as an outsider.

Ultimately, the ability to articulate one’s own marginalization may point to a strengthened rapport with similar challenges faced by all students in diverse, multicultural classrooms. While teacher education programs incorporate a variety of multicultural discussions and invite preservice teachers to explore different interpretive lenses with which to understand the cultural realities of their students (Cochran-Smith, 2000; Herbel-Eisenmann, 2007; Villegas, 2007), these discussions are, by necessity, theoretical in nature. Professional overseas teaching experiences (as opposed to the sheltered and often structured experiences of preservice teachers) remove teachers from the theories of marginalization associated with multiculturalism and diversity and place the teachers in the heart of the reality and practice of what it means to be marginalized. It is not enough to ask new teachers to discuss and recognize cultural dissonance in their classrooms nor is it enough to ask teachers to create lessons and units that are sensitive to issues of diversity and social justice. This work suggests that teachers who are familiar with their own marginalization as teachers and as learners bring a stronger sense of educational justice to the classroom (Asher, 2003, 2005; Kumishiro, 2004; Pinar, 2006). As Asher (2005) suggests, and as this work supports, the “decolonization” of the classroom” can only occur when teachers have experienced the disparities of power that occur when cultural knowledge and understandings are not equally distributed and when their own sense of power, participation, and effectiveness is negatively impacted by these disparities. Although many professional teacher education programs include discussion of the implications of social injustice (e.g., the disparities of power) and social justice
rectification (Garii, 2000; Herbel-Eisenmann, 2007; Villegas, 2007; Wiggins, et al., 2007), this
type of knowledge is neither understood nor valued until and unless experiences associated with
this knowledge are internalized (Chan, et al., 2009; Cochran-Smith, 2000; Kumishiro, 2004). Thus,
we must create opportunities for teachers to be both marginalized and successful in order
for teachers to recognize, incorporate, and value the challenges, supports, and strengths asso-
ciated with diversity teaching and learning the changing classrooms of northern North America.

This work suggests that early career teachers who teach in international environments expand
their perspectives of teaching due to both their professional and personal experiences while
living internationally. Their professional experiences introduce them to a diverse community of
colleagues and students who bring different expectations of school. Their personal experiences in
the community remind them that making sense of a new culture is a struggle and that cultural
nuances are important. By learning to work with a variety of cultural expectations, these teachers
began to understand the depth and breadth of the struggles that their own culturally diverse
students experience.

What these teachers bring to the classroom, then, is an understanding of their students’
challenges. Whether students are in their home countries or elsewhere, the process of schooling
asks students to push beyond their own personal and cultural boundaries. Teachers who have
taught internationally have lived and worked outside of their own comfort zones or have had the
opportunity to consider how to perpetually live as “other,” linguistically, culturally, and/or
professionally. While these teachers articulated their successes, they also recognized their
challenges. It is, perhaps, the recognition of their own challenges that will prove to be most
important in their ability to work with all students successfully.

This study, then, raises a number of questions that should be addressed in a larger venue.
First, when northern North American teachers who have taught in international settings return to
their U.S. or Canadian homes, how does their increased flexibility impact their teaching practice
in their home country? As both the U.S. and Canada continue to measure student success with
high stakes standardized tests, this flexibility may be challenged. Second, how do these teachers
measure their own success? This work suggests that success is identified in terms of creating
community and growing professionally in unexpected ways. Third, when North American
teachers from non-dominant cultures work in international environments, what lessons do they
learn and how are these lessons translated into later professional practice? Traditional work has
assumed that when North American teachers teach overseas, they recognize themselves as
“other” and bring home an enhanced understanding of what it means to be different. Initial
evidence in this study suggests that this paradigm is experienced differently by non-dominant
culture teachers given their home country experiences. Finally, how do these teachers define
‘diversity’ in the classroom? Due to their experiences, these teachers are both more sensitive to
and more comfortable with linguistic, cultural, and other “differences” in classroom attitudes,
participation, and expectations. How does this translate into teaching perspectives in the U.S. and
Canada?

As an initial study, this work provides evidence that teaching in international environments
does not replicate teaching experiences in the U.S. or Canada. Teachers in these schools have
unique opportunities to work with international colleagues, thereby expanding their professional
repertoires and professional perspectives. Simultaneously, these teachers have opportunities to
work with international students who bring to the classroom different values, cultures, and
languages. Finally, the teachers themselves are active learners while in the host country. It is
likely that the integration of these experiences informs their understanding of multicultural
realities while increasing sensitivity to diverse teaching and learning practices. International teachers explicitly value expanded educational communities and contexts, and they recognize that within such communities and contexts, different sets of curricular perspectives, expectations, and values thrive. In such an expansive environment, success of both teachers and students is understood to be specific to an individual’s needs, views, and circumstances and cannot be measured in traditional ways. Thus, understanding how these teachers’ changing perspectives inform their classroom practices will offer a new set of questions that we may use to reinterpret our understanding of what it means to be a multicultural educator in our home country.

NOTES

1. While Canada is a bilingual nation, the overseas Canadian schools most often maintain English as the language of instruction and follow an Anglo-Canadian curricular model.

REFERENCES


