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The Assimilation and Adjustment of Chinese Scholars
in Canada after the 1989 Tiananmen Square Incident

by

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Dedicated
to
Patricia Wang Lee, Alex Zhuli Lee, & Norman Zhu Lee
who
so generously assimilated & adjusted themselves
to
this study of assimilation & adjustment in Canada

Abstract

This dissertation discusses the results of an inquiry into the assimilation and the issues relating to such assimilation of approximately 50,000 Chinese scholars who were granted immigrant status or citizenship by the Canadian government on “humanitarian and compassionate grounds” arising from the political incident that occurred in Tiananmen Square on June 4, 1989. The guiding research question was: *How have these Chinese scholars, who, prima facie, did not have opportunities to become “landed immigrants”, but were “forced” to stay in Canada, assimilated via post-secondary education, and otherwise adjusted to Canadian life ?*

During 1995, the collection of quantitative data for this dissertation research was undertaken in Calgary, Edmonton, Saskatoon, Regina, Winnipeg, Vancouver, Victoria, Ottawa, Montreal and Toronto, which are the major Canadian urban centers where the majority of the Chinese scholars have studied, worked and lived since they emigrated from China before or soon after the 1989 Tiananmen Square Incident. The sample group for the survey questionnaire was chosen to accurately reflect the actual distribution of the samples across Canada while at the same time to facilitate significant data collection.

The conceptual framework of this dissertation was drawn from theories of assimilation and adjustment. Relevant questions were posed with respect to the case of the Chinese scholars in Canada. A questionnaire was designed for distribution among a sample of qualified respondents. The basic data sources were the questionnaire responses enhanced by individual and group interviews with 49 Chinese scholars, 74 discussants in conference panels, a large amount of electronic and other written correspondence. In addition, data from primary documents and literature review were collected and discussed to support the conceptual framework. Results of the research were intended to produce a critical analysis of theoretical issues about assimilation and personal adjustment of well-educated immigrants and refugees in Canada.

The findings revealed that these Chinese scholars compose a unique minority group in Canada. Their psychological adjustment and education have significant influence on the process of cultural assimilation into Canadian mainstream society. However, due to the strong influence of their original culture and society, the assimilation of those Chinese scholars in Canada will remain at a primary stage. Their generation will not be totally assimilated culturally or structurally in Canada. Whether they stay in Canada permanently or not, they will maintain their Chinese identities.

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The Assimilation & Adjustment of Chinese Scholars in Canada after the 1989 Tiananmen Square Incident

Foreword

According to Chinese historical documents, a total of five generations of Chinese scholars have ventured abroad during the last 125 years. On August 11, 1872, 30 years after the Opium War (1840-1842), which forced China to formally sign the Treaty of Nanjing (Nanking) to cede Hong Kong to UK “in perpetuity,” the Chinese Qing Feudal Government decided to send the first batch of scholars to study in the United States and Europe when it realized that China needed modern science and technology to protect the integrity of its kingdom (Zhang, 1996, p. 5). The period of the first generation was from the 1870’s to 1880’s as Dr. L. Shyu, a historian, has indicated. The second generation was mainly sent to Japan between 1890’s and 1910’s, the third to Europe, Japan, and Soviet Union between 1920’s and 1930’s, then, between 1950’s and 1970’s, the fourth to the former Soviet Union for mainland scholars, and to US, UK, and Canada mainly for those from Taiwan and Hong Kong. The current and largest fifth generation, has gone to almost every developed country around the world since the late 1970s. These different generations responded to the trends of various historical periods, but their purpose remained the same: to learn from the advanced countries and utilize modern knowledge to make themselves and China strong.

The latest 1996 statistics from the Chinese government authorities indicate that China has sent at least 250,000 scholars abroad to approximately 70 countries as part of the fifth generation since 1980 (Zhang, 1996, p. 6). At least 50,000 Chinese scholars currently reside in Canada (Jiang, 1997, p. 3). Soon after the 1989 June 4 Incident in Tiananmen Square, a majority of the Chinese scholars in Canada became landed immigrants or Canadian citizens. *How have these Chinese scholars, who, prima facie, did not have opportunities to become “landed immigrants”, but were “forced” to stay in Canada,*

assimilated via post-secondary education, and otherwise adjusted to Canadian life ? This question initiated the survey for this dissertation research.

The structure of this dissertation is as follows: Chapter 1: Introduction; Chapter 2: Literature Review, Problems and Hypotheses; Chapter 3: Methodology; Chapter 4: Results and Discussions, and, Chapter 5: Conclusions and Predictions.

Chapter 1 offers the definitions of the “June 4 Incident” and “June 4 scholars.” It also provides the background information, which includes: 1) the June 4 scholar’s education in China and Canada, 2) a brief and comprehensive description of the social conditions which led to the 1989 Tiananmen Square Incident, 3) a historical review of the incident, 4) the Chinese government’s open door policies of sending its scholars abroad (the emphasis is on the evolving policies of the 1980s and the adjusted policies during the early 1990s soon after the June 4 Incident), and 5) the Canadian government’s special policies towards Chinese scholars soon after the 1989 Tiananmen Square incident.

Chapter 2 reviews the literature, which consists of an overview of the research problem and an indication of why the problem is worth exploring and what contribution the proposed study is likely to make to theory and practice. The literature review focuses on the basic theoretical aspects of assimilation and adjustment. This chapter also presents the statement based on the research question and its sub-questions, which are used in the research to investigate significant themes. The statement of the research problem, together with a precise exposition of the research questions, serves as a transition between the literature review and the description of the methodology for this research. Hypotheses relevant to the theme and research questions of this dissertation are outlined in this chapter.

Chapter 3 provides a thorough description of the specific methods which are adopted in this research project. It presents how and why this dissertation uses the quantitative research approach. This chapter includes four sections: 1) Subjects: Selection of Site and Informants; 2) Instrumentation: Questionnaire, Research Question, Sub-questions, and Selected Tools; 3) Procedures: Questionnaire Collection and Data Analysis,

which includes avenues of questionnaire distribution, scope, response rate, and the appropriate data treatment; and 4) Limitation of the methods utilized by this research.

Chapter 4 provides a discussion of research results, including a descriptive analysis of the sample. An overview of the basic data is presented by tables, figures, and their summaries. Further discussion on measurement and findings includes the model for SPSS analysis and logistic regression.

Chapter 5 offers a summary of the previous four chapters with an emphasis on chapters 2 and 4. This chapter provides the highlights of the literature review, research results, and comments on research issues. The negative and positive impact of the June 4 Incident is summarized. For further academic research, the future of the June 4 scholars is also predicted in this chapter.

As a possible contribution to knowledge, this dissertation attempts to produce an understanding of the process and phenomena of assimilation and adjustment in a visible minority group. It is the author's hope that this dissertation can contribute to the scholarly literature in the fields of education and sociology. The Chinese scholars, who will be referred to as the "June 4 scholars" in this dissertation, have formed a unique minority immigrant group in Canada due to their high educational background, relatively low income, and the special circumstances regarding their landing in Canada based on "humanitarian and compassionate grounds" arising from the 1989 June 4 Incident. By sampling the June 4 Chinese scholars, this dissertation research may offer insights that contribute to theories and practices relating to immigrants, and to the implementation of relevant policies by both the Chinese and Canadian governments.

Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1. Definitions of the June 4 Incident & Identities of the June 4 Scholars

1.1.1. Definitions of the June 4 Incident

What the author refers to as the “June 4 Incident” has been called the “June 4 Massacre”, “June 4 Event”, “June 4 Suppression”, and “June 4 Tragedy” etc. The author of this research prefers to refer to as the “June 4 Incident” for the following major reasons:

1) According to both the Oxford Advanced Learner’s English-Chinese Dictionary (Third Edition of 1989 publication) and A New English Chinese Dictionary (1985 Enlarged Edition), “Incident” is defined as less important event, but also defined as a political happening due to various reasons which may not be described precisely by persons in authority according to their wish.

2) “Event” refers to an important happening, but does not specifically indicate if the happening has any political characteristics or not. The words “massacre”, “suppression”, and “tragedy” reflect certain facts of the incident; however, they are negative words which do not really imply any possible positive results from a complex political event.

3) From historical and academic perspectives, the word “incident” captures the essence of the long term effect of what happened in Tiananmen Square on June 4, 1989. In this research project, the study focuses on the objective analysis of known facts as reported by reputable sources over that period of time following the June 4 Incident.

1. 1. 2. Identities of the June 4 Scholars

In this research project, the author defines the Chinese scholars in Canada as “June 4 scholars.” According to the Oxford Advanced Learner’s English-Chinese Dictionary (Hornby, A., Cowie, A. 1989, p. 1017), “scholar” refers to:

1) student, who, after a competitive examination or other means of selection, is awarded money or other help so that he may attend school or college, or pursue further education; 2) person with much knowledge (usually of a particular subject, and especially one who gives careful attention to evidence, method, etc.).

Since almost all the Chinese scholars in Canada during the period of the June 4 Incident belong to either of the above two categories, “scholar” will henceforth be used to define those Chinese from mainland China, whether they came to Canada to research their particular subjects, or pursue further education by attending Canadian post-secondary institutions with funding from any resources.

Specifying “June 4” as the attribute in front of “scholars” indicates that those Chinese are significantly affected by the incident that happened in China. The processes of those scholars’ assimilation in Canada are mainly caused by the 1989 June 4 Incident, without which, the Canadian government would not have adopted the special policies and measures for allowing those Chinese scholars permanent residence in Canada.

Hence, the phrase “June 4 scholars ” in this research project refers to those Chinese intellectuals who came from mainland China to study, do research work, and live in Canada after the late 80s. Most of them arrived in Canada before the June 4 Incident, and some came to Canada shortly after the incident. When they were in China, many were university students, lecturers, professors, researchers, engineers, doctors, and other professionals.

According to Mr. Jiang Yong, Ex-President of the Federation of Chinese Students and Scholars, Canada (FCSSC), in 1993 there were about 40,000 Chinese scholars in Canada (including their spouses, most of whom had received their post-secondary education in China before they immigrated to Canada). Between June 19, 1989 and June 19, 1990, 9,800 applied for landed immigrant status, and 2,800 applied for refugee status in Canada (Guideline, Oct. 19, 1990, C. Taylor, Director of Immigrant and Visitor Programs, NHQ, Government of Canada). Besides those 12,600 Chinese scholars who applied for either immigrant or refugee status before June 19, 1990, approximately 27,400

other Chinese scholars and their family members landed in Canada, they were among 36,735 Chinese mainland immigrants between 1991 - 1992 (Immigration Canada, 1992)¹. Most of the Chinese scholars are scattered amongst major universities across Canada and are members of local Chinese Students and Scholars Associations (CSSA), which became independent societies soon after the 1989 June 4 Tiananmen Square Incident, but have connections to both FCSSC and the Chinese Embassy or one of the Chinese Consul Generals' offices in Canada (China Canada Monthly, p. 4, January, 15, 1994).

Before the June 4 Incident in 1989, the majority of these Chinese scholars were financially sponsored by the Chinese government according to relevant contracts. Their status in Canada could be identified and divided into two major categories: (1) visiting scholars for research projects; (2) visa students in masters or doctorate programs.

"June 4 scholars" also refers to those Chinese intellectuals who declared themselves actively involved in supporting the 1989 democratic movement in China, and dared not return to China due to possible political sanctions. They applied for political refugee or landed immigrant status in Canada soon after the Chinese authorities officially issued the announcement to arrest student leaders of the Tiananmen Square incident. According to some personal interviews for this research project, a certain number of the Chinese intellectuals were not actively involved in the 1989 democratic movement either in Canada or China during the time of the incident as they declared. However, together with those who really participated in the movement, they took the historical opportunity to apply for Canadian permanent resident status they otherwise would not have had. They had a "free ride", although they might feel guilty for telling white lies to the Canadian authorities.

In response to those Chinese scholars' applications, the Canadian government granted these persons a Minister's permit and work permit, followed by a landed immigrant status on the basis of "humanitarian and compassionate considerations" (Employment and Immigrant Canada, Operations Memorandum IS 399 - Supplement 1, July 19, 1989).

¹ However, these numbers appear to be estimates. Other publications cite different numbers.

Accordingly, the Chinese government ceased financial aid to those scholars who were supposed to return to China as soon as their contracts terminated. Consequently, many Chinese visiting scholars renewed their research contracts in Canada or transferred to the masters or doctorate programs to extend their stay. Those who were already in programs continued their studies as new immigrants. In accordance with the results from the 1995 survey of this study, 45.5% of these Chinese scholars hold landed immigrant status, while 50% of them have obtained Canadian citizenship; only 4.5% of them have student authorizations (Zhu, Question 6, 1995 Survey Questionnaire). During the period of this research project, they could be classified into three major categories: (1) Those who are still in the masters or doctorate programs; (2) Those who kept their research projects as middle-level academic assistants or post-doctoral staff; and (3) Those who completed their graduate programs and found jobs in Canada.

1.2. June 4 Scholars' Education in China and Canada

Most of the June 4 scholars had completed their undergraduate studies before they left China. Some of them had even obtained their masters or doctorate degrees. Thus, they were generally considered an educated elite in China, because only a small portion of high school graduates, even with excellent grades, are able to enter the universities due to the tough competition in China. Academically, the June 4 scholars are widely distributed throughout various fields; a high percentage are concentrated in science and engineering, especially in chemistry, physics, electronics, mechanics, mathematics, statistics, medical science and computer science. For example, FCSSC 1989 Survey among Chinese scholars across Canada indicated their levels of education as in the following Table 1 :

Table 1: Enrollment in Educational Program (up to 1989)

Levels	Percentage		Levels	Percentage
Ph.D.	40.7%		Master's	31.1%
Undergraduate	2.0%		ESL	10.3%
Research/training	8.1%		Unstated	7.8%
			Total:	100%

Source: FCSSC 1989 Survey

In Table 1, more than 71.8% of the respondents were enrolled at or above the Master's level. Some Chinese scholars with post-doctoral status are included in the 8.1% for research or training programs. According to the data from personal interviews, most of the Chinese ESL students had Bachelor's degrees, and some of them even had Master's degrees. Given these facts, although their command of English needed improvement, there was no doubt that these students and scholars had high academic and professional backgrounds and great potential; their employment expectations in Canada therefore would be very high.

Table 2: Highest Education Completed (up to October 1989)

Levels	Percentage		Levels	Percentage
Ph.D.	18.8%		Master's	45.5%
Undergraduate	22.7%		High School	1.5%
Unstated	11.5%		Total:	100 %

Source: FCSSC 1989 Survey

Obviously, as indicated in Table 2, those who completed their Master's or doctorate programs in 1989 are the majority, they represent 64.3 % of the 4,650 Chinese students scholars who were involved in the survey. Undergraduates represented 24.2% of the total students surveyed , not including the 11.4% unstated informants. According to another

survey implemented by Dr. Martin Singer, professor at Concordia University in Montreal, most of those who finished their undergraduate programs pursued graduate studies in Canada, even though these junior Chinese academics were frustrated in their further studies (Singer, 1996, p. 12).

Table 3: Fields of Study & Research of Chinese Scholars in Canada, 1989

FIELDS	PERCENTAGE		FIELDS	PERCENTAGE
Social science	6.5 %		Engineering	25.7 %
Business	0.2%		Geology	0.4%
Economics	2.2%		Civil Engineering	2.8%
International Affairs	2.1%		Electronic engineering	5.7%
Law	0.2%		Computer engineering	0.5%
Psychology	0.4%		Mechanical engineering	6.5%
Sociology	0.5%		Architecture	0.9%
Public administration	0.2%		Chemical engineering	2.1%
Geography	0.7%		Other engineering	6.8%
Science	33.5 %		Other fields	34.3 %
Biology	5.4%		Physical Education	0.4%
Chemistry	7.1%		Agriculture	1.7%
Information science	0.2%		Arts	4.7%
Math & statistics	4.4%		Unstated	27.5%
Physics	7.9%			
Computer science	3.5%			
Biochemistry	0.4%			
Medical science	4.6%		Total:	100 %

Source: FCSSC 1989 Survey

According to Table 3, the majority of the Chinese scholars are in the fields of engineering and applied sciences; they represent 59.2 % of the total. In terms of individual academic majors, 7.9% are in physics, the highest percentage. It is interesting to note that those in business, public administration, and information science are only 0.2 % each, even less than those in physical education (0.4 %). 27.5% indicated “unstated”, a seemingly high figure. Education, linguistics, religion, philosophy, history, and other majors of humanities should be included in the unstated fields. It is not surprising that there are only a

few Chinese scholars in the fields of law, education, and linguistics, when one considers the language barrier and different cultural backgrounds.

The following statistical findings can be considered more updated data than those collected in 1989 by FCSPC regarding the educational background of the Chinese scholars:

Table 4: Highest Education Completed (up to Dec. 1996) - Q2

Levels	Percentage	Number of informants
Ph.D.	31.8%	48
Master's	18.2%	28
Others	13.6%	21 (bachelors and/or certificates)
Still in programs	36.4%	56 (Ph.D. or Master programs)
Total:		100 % 153 informants

The table above clearly indicates that most of the Chinese students and scholars have completed their higher education; out of 153 surveyed cases, 28 persons obtained masters degrees, which is 18.2 percent of the sample; while 48 persons gained their Ph.D. degrees, which is 31.8% of the sample; another 56 persons, 36.4% of the 153 surveyed cases, were in Ph.D. or master's programs in 1995. Thus, more than 86%, i.e., 111 people were at or above the level of master's degrees. These figures reflect the actual educational levels of Chinese students and scholars currently in Canada.

Table 5: Enrollment in Educational Program (up to 1996) -Q1

Levels	No.	Percentage	I	Levels	No.	Percentage
Ph. D.	28	18.2%	I	Master's	21	13.6%
Post-Doctorate	21	13.6%	I	Other specified	55	36.4%
Technician	14	9.1%	I	Unstated	14	9.1%
Total:		153 informants, 100 %				

Table 5 shows that 18.2 % of the respondents were enrolled in doctoral programs, and 3.6% were in masters programs, and 13.6% acted as post-doctoral fellows in 1995. The 1989 survey did not indicate clearly the percentage of Chinese scholars who were in post-doctoral programs.

By comparing the 1989 and the 1996 surveys, the following can be summarized:

1) 31.8% respondents finished their Ph.D. programs in 1996, compared to 18.8% of the respondents who completed their Ph.D. programs in 1989. This indicates that 69.15% more Chinese scholars obtained their doctoral degrees in 1996 than those in 1989.

2) Table 1 shows that 31.1% of the respondents enrolled in master's programs in 1989. Table 5 indicates that only 13.6% of the respondents enrolled in masters programs in 1996. The enrollment in 1996 was 17.5 % less in than that of 1989. According to Table 4, a total of 18.2% of the informants completed their masters program in 1996, while 45.5% completed in 1989 as Table 2 indicates. The percentage in 1989 was 60% higher than the rate in 1996. This indicates that more Chinese scholars completed their masters programs in 1989 than those in 1996. Some of those who obtained their masters degrees in 1989 might have joined the Canadian work force, or some may have further pursued doctoral degrees or acted as post-doctorates in Canadian educational institutions .

3) Table 1 indicates that 40.7% of the informants enrolled in Ph.D. programs in 1989, while in 1996, 18.2% of the informants enrolled in Ph.D. programs, and 13.6 % in post-doctorate programs, totaling 31.8%, which was 8.9% less than the percentage in 1989. The decrease may indicate that in 1996 some obtained their doctoral degrees, and then either enrolled in post-doctorate programs or joined the work force.

To summarize, at least 50% of the Chinese students have completed their post-graduate programs in Canada since 1989; more of them integrated themselves into Canadian society in 1996 than in 1989, when the majority were in their masters or doctorate programs.

1.3. Historical Background

1.3.1. The 1989 Tiananmen Square Incident and Its Social Condition

Tiananmen Square, in China's capital city of Beijing, is the largest open political space in the world, unlike a European Piazza. It is more than 100 acres in size and capable of holding hundreds of thousands of people (Harrison, 1990, p. xi). Tiananmen Square has been the witness of many influential and historic incidents in China since this century. For example, on October 1, 1949, Mao Zedong stood on the tower over the Tiananmen Gate in front of the square and announced to the world the establishment of the People's Republic of China. It was a historic moment when the Communist Party of China (CPC) headed by Mao established a proletarian dictatorship over China, excluding Taiwan.

During the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution of 1967-1976, Mao Zedong inspected millions of Red Guards on eight occasions in Tiananmen Square, and brought China into another historic stage. On January 8, 1976, Premier Zhou Enlai died of illness, and Hua Guofeng was named Acting Premier by Mao Zedong later in the month. On April 5, 1976, millions of people gathered at Tiananmen Square in memory of Zhou. However, the event was bloodily suppressed and declared "counter-revolutionary" by the "Gang of Four," which was formed by Jiang Qing, Mao's wife, Wang Hongwen, the CPC new chief selected by Mao, Zhang Chunqiao, and Yao Wenyuan, both were members in the Political Bureau of CPC. Following the event, Deng Xiaoping was dismissed from all his posts. However, soon after the death of Mao Zedong on September 9, 1976, a few powerful Chinese military veteran officials started a coup on October 6 and arrested the Gang of the Four, which was considered the ultra-leftists in the Chinese government at that time. Deng Xiaoping came to power again in July 1977 by the decision of the Third Plenum of the 10th Congress of CCP. Since then, Deng obtained the opportunity to further promote his policies of the "Four Modernizations" and opened China to the world for international economic cooperation.

Deng's "Open Door" policy earned him much praise from most Chinese and many Westerners. In the following 10 years, the Chinese government became stable, foreign investment flooded into China, international aid programs and trade increased tremendously, millions of Chinese peasants saw their incomes jump, urban workers benefited as the Chinese authorities implemented a bonus system which rewarded productivity, and the "responsibility system" allowed many officials of Chinese governmental enterprises and organizations to get on with the business of earning money without the previously strict limits.

However, Chinese intellectuals and university students were rarely the beneficiaries of the booming economy. For example, academic researchers, professors, and doctors continued to receive low salaries, which barely kept up with increasing inflation; meanwhile, millions of university students received education from inadequately trained teachers in dilapidated classrooms, lived in cramped dormitories, and ate dreadful food (Simmie, Nixon, 1989, pp. 4 - 5). Thus, their dissatisfaction and anger accumulated along with the increased inflation, corruption, and bureaucracy in the process of the decade-long economic reform.

Inflation, the worst since the founding of the People's Republic of China in 1949, triggered runs on banks and people's panic buying of groceries in many Chinese cities in 1988 (Mu and Thompson, 1989, p. 7). Despite the Chinese government's effort to curb inflation by tightening economic controls and slowing down growth, prices of goods continued upward and remained distressingly high. The efforts to rein in inflation not only failed to solve the problem, but created more confusion and frustration among the Chinese people, especially among university students and intellectuals. Inflation reflected the new economic crisis which aggravated long-standing grievances of the public against widespread corruption among government officials, neglect of education, the perceived decline of social morality, and a general sense of psychological dislocation as a result of uncontrolled rapid change. For example, many people did not consider it an honor or

obligation to do voluntary jobs for communities. They thought it stupid to help others without making a profit for themselves. Meanwhile, people, especially the younger generation, felt a lack of spiritual ballast after they realized that the communist ideals were far from perfect in theory or practice, but they could find no other reliable replacement.

Corruption, a predominant factor in the fall of ruling regimes throughout Chinese history, once again became rampant during the late 1980s. The Chinese government found itself increasingly alienated from the people due to its inability to stop corruption, especially among high-ranking officials and their families. One common form of corruption that raised the immediate concern of the public was what the Chinese termed as *guandao*, or official profiteering, because *guandao* greatly affected the life of many ordinary people. For example, the officials who had control of rationing certain scarce commodities could make enormous profits by issuing ration coupons. They gave coupons to their relatives or friends, who in turn sold the coupons to others. By the time the coupons reached the consumers without official connections, those officials and their relatives or friends had made large profits on the illicit transactions. When Deng Xiaoping's own son, Deng Pufang, and other high ranking officials' relatives, were rumored to be profiting unduly through *guandao*, the public became more angry. The higher the government officials, the greater the public outrage. To comfort the people and maintain social stability in China, the Chinese authorities had always been somewhat responsive to such public outcries. Government-sponsored crusades against corruption can be traced back to the beginning of the People's Republic of China (Mu and Thompson, 1989, p. 11). During this period, corruption recurred many times following each anti-corruption movement and often, the authorities failed to match words with actions, particularly when corruption and higher ranking officials were suspected.

On 15 April, 1989, Hu Yaobang, Politburo member and former general secretary of the Communist Party, died of a heart attack at age 73. His death prompted the students and other Chinese to begin airing their grievances against inflation, corruption, and the

bureaucracy. Actually Hu's death was the stimulus for the 1989 Democracy Movement in China. To memorialize Hu Yaobang's contributions to promote democracy in China, thousands of Beijing students began to organize demonstrations. They brought banners. "Hu Yaobang, the Soul of China" to Tiananmen Square on April 18, 1989, thus setting the stage for the June 4 Incident. In the following 46 days, the demonstration in Tiananmen Square evolved into a national scale movement with the involvement of more students and millions of other people across the country. The following chronology records the major events that occurred before June 4, 1989:

- 22 April 55,000 university students in Beijing ignored a government order and stayed all night in Tiananmen Square for Hu's state funeral.
- 24 April Tens of thousands of students in Beijing began class boycotts to demand talks with the Chinese central government.
- 25 April The People's Daily, Chinese Television, and other government media started to label the unrest caused by students as a conspiracy to negate the leadership of the Communist Party.
- 27 April 150,000 university students marched through Beijing streets in protest against the editorials of the government media. Half a million people lined the streets to cheer the students. The government agreed to talks.
- 4 May After a week of inconclusive discussions, university students held another large scale demonstration in memory of the May 4 Movement of 1919.
- 10 May More than 1,000 journalists demanded talks to discuss press freedom, and students protested against media censorship.

- 13 May Several hundred students began hunger strikes in Tiananmen Square to demand televised talks with the government and retraction of the People's Daily editorial.
- 15 May Mikhail Gorbachev, the General Secretary of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, arrived in Beijing for a Sino-Soviet summit, and the Chinese government requested hunger strikers to clear Tiananmen Square, but they refused. Their numbers increased.
- 17 May Millions of people from all sectors of society in Beijing marched in streets to support the hunger strike. Similar marches and disturbances happened across many urban centers in China.
- 19 May After meeting with the student leaders and requesting them to end the hunger strike on 18 May, Li Peng and Zhao Ziyang visited the hunger strikers in Tiananmen Square and requested them again to end the strike. The students refused and persisted in their previous demands.
- 20 May Li Peng called in the army to end the chaos. Students ended the hunger strike but vowed to hold Tiananmen Square. Li declared martial law over parts of Beijing; troops started to approach Beijing.
- 23 May A million people marched to demand that Li resign and martial law be withdrawn. Most soldiers, blocked by Beijing citizens, returned back to their camps on the outskirts of the city.
- 2 June Troops began to move towards Tiananmen Square again, but people blocked their progress.
- 3 June Demonstrators clashed with soldiers near the Tiananmen Square. Troop convoys began moving into Beijing. Soldiers began firing on people at Muxidi in west Beijing.

In the early morning of 4 June, the incident happened. After a few hours of bloody fighting, soldiers and tanks advanced into Tiananmen Square. Those remaining students had to leave. The government then issued an announcement to arrest the student leaders across China according to a wanted list. As western media reported, hundreds of people, including students, citizens, and soldiers, died in the incident. Probably thousands of people were injured. However, no one is able to provide accurate numbers unless the Chinese authorities release them (Simmie and Nixon, 1989 pp. 175-196, p.198; Mu and Thompson, 1989, pp. 78 - 96; Salisbury, 1989, p. 77; Yu & Harrison, pp. 15 - 35, 1990).

According to the above synthesized review of the relevant background information from the perspectives of history, politics, and economics, a brief summary can be made to explain how and why the incident happened. Along with the development and the problems of economic reform in China in the late 1980s, the Chinese people, especially students and intellectuals, traditional pioneers of democratic and political movements in the modern history of China, demanded more freedom to express their concerns about the country's democratic future and peoples' civic lives. The people resented the inflation, the corruption, and the bureaucracy, and hoped that the government would take effective measures to limit or abolish these social, economic, and political problems. After Hu Yaobang's death, the people voiced their dissatisfaction and began to demonstrate for social and political reform. However, the June 4 government crack-down ended the people's democratic dreams, and surprised the world. The Chinese government re-established control over Tiananmen Square and the whole of China by military force and political measures. The impact of the June 4 Incident affected not only the people in China, but also the Chinese who were overseas. Many Chinese scholars in Canada sympathized with the movement on Tiananmen Square. They organized supporting demonstrations on campuses and streets in Canadian urban centers prior to and after the June 4 Incident. As a consequence of their actions, which were considered against the Chinese government, they assumed that the Chinese authorities

would punish them. This predicament was expressed to the Canadian authorities and the media in an attempt to gain Canada's support and protection.

1.3.2. The Open Door Policies of the Chinese Government

“Opening the door to the outside world” was one of the basic state policies of the Chinese government, which had been implemented since the late 70s. An important component of the policy was to conduct educational exchanges with other countries like the United States, the United Kingdom, and Canada. The Chinese government's open door policies of sending its scholars and graduate students abroad can be traced from 1978, soon after the end of the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution. For example, China sent out more than 60,000 students and scholars to over 80 countries and regions between 1978 and 1987. Five times the accumulated total between 1949 and 1977. China also received nearly 10,000 foreign students from over 110 countries and invited thousands of foreign experts to teach and work in China between 1978 and 1989. Since 1978, more than 210 Chinese higher institutions have established contacts with about 600 universities, research institutes and corporations in 34 countries to undertake various kinds of exchanges and cooperative activities such as joint training of Ph.D. students and advanced collaborative scientific research projects. Meanwhile, China has dispatched large numbers of scholars to participate in international academic and scientific conferences abroad (The State Educational Commission of the People's Republic of China, 1988, pp. 12, 32).

Up to the end of 1990, China sent 150,000 scholars abroad, among whom nearly 50,000 returned to China and 100,000 continued to pursue their studies or work abroad, mainly in the United States, Canada, Germany, Japan, and Australia - either at state or their own expense (The State Educational Commission of the People's Republic of China, 1991, p. 1). According to the Conference of Chinese National Personnel System on Overseas Scholars Affairs held in Beijing on October 14, 1995, a total of nearly 80,000 Chinese

scholars have returned to China, but there are still about 150,000 abroad, most of whom have completed their studies and joined the work force or just stayed in foreign countries (People's Daily, p. 3, Nov. 15, Wed., 1995).

China sends scholars abroad with the hope that they will return to serve China. However, even though they have completed their studies and their original assigned research, more and more Chinese scholars chose not to return due to economic, political and other reasons, especially after the June 4 Tiananmen Square Incident. In order to recall the majority of those scholars and reduce the cost for sending them abroad, the Chinese government has revised relevant regulations since the end of 1989 while maintaining its open door policy. The revisions include: 1) increasing the number of students going abroad in the field of applied sciences for master or doctoral degrees; 2) sending no students for a Bachelor's degree, rather send more as visiting scholars; 3) not approving applications from those who have not served a prescribed work term for China if they are state-funded university graduates; 4) welcoming all scholars who have studied abroad with private funds to return to China on the same conditions as those who are government-sponsored; and 5) absorbing whatever is beneficial to China from various countries other than only the United States, Canada, Japan, UK, Germany, and Russia. Some other countries may provide good experience and conditions which are not available in those five developed countries. Students will be more evenly spread out overseas. More students will be dispatched to countries such as Russia, New Zealand, India, South Korea, and Brazil, which provide adequate training opportunities but have relatively few Chinese students there. (The State Educational Commission of the People's Republic of China, 1991, p. 2).

During his inspection tour in southern China in early 1992, Deng Xiaoping said that people studying overseas may return irrespective of their past political views. Suitable arrangements would be made for them to work and live (People's Daily, Overseas Edition, p. 6, August, 22, 1992). On August 20, 1992, the Chinese government broadcast its revised policies to the public, in an attempt to entice more scholars to return to China.

In a joint circular issued by the State Education Commission, the Ministries of Foreign Affairs, Public Security, Personnel, and Public Health, Chinese authorities stated that they would warmly welcome overseas scholars back to participate in short-term academic exchanges or co-operative missions, visit their relatives and friends or have a vacation in their motherland. The circular further stated that the Chinese government would not investigate or affix responsibility on those who spoke out against or did something not beneficial to Chinese authorities. Even those who had joined organizations against the Chinese government and engaged in activities harmful to China's security, honor, and interests were also welcome to return home to work, on condition that they withdrew from the organizations and no longer took part in any activities in violation of the Chinese constitution, law, or government. It also promised that overseas students and scholars would be free to enter and leave China, on the condition they obtained valid Chinese passports and foreign re-entry visas. Those who had taken foreign citizenship should relinquish their Chinese citizenship and be considered as patriotic overseas Chinese, the circular added.

The circular expressed the belief that many Chinese scholars abroad loved China and were ready to make contributions to the prosperity of their motherland. It praised them for their accomplishments and the honors they brought to the Chinese nation. In this respect, the scholars were considered precious to China. This, in part, revealed the government's concern and support to the Chinese scholars abroad.

The circular explained that Chinese scholars sent by the government to study or research abroad were obliged to return and serve China after completing their studies and research (China Daily, Overseas Edition, p. 6. August, 22, 1992). However, according to the current domestic and international situation, the Chinese government has adopted a more practical and enlightened manner in implementing its policies on overseas Chinese scholars. The policies can be summarized as "supporting studying abroad, encouraging return to China with promise of work, and allowing free entry and exit". In order to

implement these policies effectively and to satisfy the long term national development needs in the coming century, the Chinese government also took various new means and adjusted old ones (People's Daily, overseas edition, p. 3. November 16, Thursday, 1995).

The Chinese government adopted the post-1989 policies and measures after tens of thousands of Chinese scholars decided not to return to China after the June 4 Incident. The Chinese government realized that it could not do anything effective or significant if it persisted in its hard-line manner towards those non-returning scholars as it did in the earlier stage of the post June 4 Incident. Being aware of the reality and the decision made by the majority of the overseas Chinese scholars, the Chinese government as a consequence had to revise its policies and measures.

In addition to the reluctance of the scholars to return to their homeland, the Chinese government had another problem. Foreign countries like the United States, Australia, and Canada continued to pursue well-educated new immigrants such as the Chinese scholars to strengthen their human resources for the development of their countries. The immigration policies and measures to attract Chinese scholars abroad have challenged the Chinese government, and such challenges has resulted in a severe and long term phenomenon of brain drain from China.

1.3.3. Canada's Special Immigration Policies towards the June 4 Scholars

Soon after the Tiananmen Square incident, many Chinese scholars in Canada encountered political and financial difficulties due to their actions directly or indirectly supporting the pro-democratic movement occurring in China. They were afraid that the Chinese government would politically persecute them if they returned home. Although, some of the Chinese scholars did not really participate in the democratic movement anywhere, they preferred to stay in Canada due to the political and economic chaos in their homeland.

By considering the situation of those Chinese scholars, and their potential contribution to Canada, the Canadian government issued some special initiative policies and applied measures. For example, the granting of the Minister's permits, an emergency fund, and work authorizations on "humanitarian and compassionate grounds" etc. In its relevant official documents such as "OMB IS 399" dated 29 June, 1989, the Canadian government mentioned the possibility that if mainland Chinese scholars in Canada returned to the People's Republic of China (PRC), severe sanctions would be imposed upon them by the Chinese authorities, who had publicly stated that Chinese scholars in Canada shared the blame for the turmoil in China. The Canadian government also accepted the above statement as creating a *prima facie* case for favorable consideration of all other Chinese from the PRC who were not scholars in Canada, including students, professionals, members of a delegation, cultural group or official representatives of the PRC. Therefore, the Canadian government assumed their participation in public demonstrations against the actions or policies of the Chinese authorities would also cause severe sanctions against them if they returned to China (Attachment "C", File No. OMB IS 399, Supplement 1. Employment and Immigration Canada, July 19, 1989).

OMB IS 399 was revised on June 29, 1989 to reflect the initiatives contained in the Minister's statement of June 16, 1989. On behalf of the Canadian government, Barbara McDougall, the Minister of Employment and Immigration, wished to reassure all Chinese citizens who were in Canada with temporary status that they should have no fear of being asked to leave as long as the situation in China remained threatening for them.

On October 19, 1990, C. Taylor, Director of Immigrant and Visitor Programs, National Headquarters (NHQ), Government of Canada, issued a guideline to all relevant Canadian officials and agents regarding the procedures for nationals of the PRC seeking to remain in Canada. Taylor wrote:

This guideline is further to OMB IS 399 dated 29 June, 1989 and to implement that document dated 19 July 1989. The special measures for Chinese nationals were designed in the wake of the events of Tiananmen Square to provide protection to Chinese students, workers and other visitors

who feared to return to the People's Republic of China (PRC) because of possible reprisals from the Chinese authorities. The special measures announced by the minister on June 16 were as follows:

1. All removals to China were immediately suspended.
2. All Chinese nationals were offered four options:
 - a) The opportunity to extend their existing student, visitor or employment status for up to one year (This period has now been extended);
 - b) The opportunity to seek permanent residence from within Canada based on humanitarian and compassionate factors;
 - c) The opportunity to seek permanent residence at a Canadian Embassy, High Commission, Consulate or other post abroad; and
 - d) The opportunity to submit a claim for refugee status

In the twelve months following the minister's announcement 9,800 individuals applied for humanitarian & compassionate (H&C) consideration from within Canada via A114(2). The majority of these applications have been approved. Another 2,800 Chinese nationals have applied for refugee status. It is clear that immigration officers have fully complied with the minister's request that these cases be considered sympathetically. By any measure the objective of the minister's policy initiative has been met

You will have recently received the approved policy and procedures relating to applications for landing in Canada (Chapter IE 9 - Transmittal No. 182 dated June 1990). These procedures now apply to All requests for consideration of landing in Canada, including those submitted by Chinese nationals The H&C guidelines, particularly sections pertaining to "severe sanctions" or "inhumane treatment in country of origin" allow for full consideration of Chinese cases.

All Chinese Nationals in Canada as of October 19, 1990 are eligible to apply under OMB IS 399 criteria. Chinese nationals arriving subsequently will be treated as noted above.

The family reunification aspects of the Chinese special measures continue to apply to existing OMB IS 399 cases.... Students who meet the requirements of R20(5) (C) may be issued employment authorizations (File - DOSSIER, Originator: Bill Lipsit, Immigrant & Visitor Programs, Tel. (819) 953-8267, Government of Canada).

To sum up, in the aftermath of the June 4 Tiananmen Square Incident, the Canadian government offered four major options for Chinese scholars and other Chinese nationals who wished to remain in Canada. 1) they may submit their immigration applications on H & C grounds; 2) they may submit their claim for Convention Refugee Status; or 3) they may apply through the standard immigration channels at any Canadian Consulate in the United States, China, or Hong Kong. Extension of temporary status was also available. The Canadian government adopted these measures and policies in response to the official statements issued by the Chinese government which blamed Chinese nationals in Canada

and the United States for the turmoil in China during the June 4 Tiananmen Square Incident in 1989 (Crozier, 1989).

Similar to its refugee policies, the four major options were based on the “humanitarian and compassionate grounds,” and the Canadian Immigration Act. The Immigration Act requires that immigrants must apply for and obtain a visa before they can lawfully come to Canada, and the fact remains that the intent of the law is to not make it easy for asylum seekers in Canada to claim refugee or immigrant status; but, in practice, the contrary is true, and individual exceptions are made if necessary. Nevertheless, one should not conclude that there is a dichotomy between law and policy or between policy and practice. Rather, there is a pragmatic choice of roles. The implementation of the special policies for the June 4 Chinese scholars was a living example.

When it provided asylum to the June 4 scholars, the Canadian government had no intention of damaging its economic link with the Chinese government. In a move designed to improve relations with Beijing while endeavoring to maintain Canada's reputation as a safe haven for the oppressed, the Canadian government relieved the fears of the June 4 scholars who thought they might be forcibly repatriated; meanwhile, the Canadian government also offered a concession to the Chinese government. The concession was to strengthen its economic link with China, instead of political and diplomatic boycott with several other western countries against the Chinese government due to the June 4 Incident.

Chapter 2. Literature Review, Problems, and Hypotheses

2.1. Literature Review

How did the Chinese scholars, including their family members, survive physically and psychologically in Canada after the 1989 June 4 Incident? This question has been raised since late 1989. In 1993, the issue was debated in a seminar of about 100 representatives of local CSSA at FCSSC 4th National Annual Assembly in Guelph, Ontario, Canada. The replies to this question were very different. Some were very positive, others negative. No conclusive statements resulted from the debate. Those in the negative thought that it was very difficult for most Chinese students, scholars, professionals (CSSP), and their families to survive successfully in Canada due to their limited finances, weak social relations, insufficient language ability, and racial discrimination. Those with positive attitudes believed that most CSSP could survive very well in Canada with their higher educational background, professional knowledge, diligent work ethic, and ability to endure hardship. The negative side placed more emphasis and concern on the disadvantages and weaknesses of CSSP, while the positive side saw more advantages and strengths. Nevertheless, there must be some linkage between the disadvantages and advantages of these people. Can the disadvantages be overcome? Can the advantages be further enhanced? Is there any insight for possible further analysis with the phenomenon of these disadvantages and advantages? These questions are related to the issues and theories of new immigrants, refugees, education, assimilation and adjustment. They led to a literature review for this research project. However, all these aspects are too broad to explore, so the research scope has been narrowed to focus on the two most important issues: cultural assimilation and personal adjustment. These two issues are closely related to both theoretical and practical aspects of the immigration of any ethnic individuals or groups with high educational qualifications.

By way of the consideration of the findings from this research and other relevant research studies, the author believes that the findings are important for examining the existing theories and further research. Since the first quarter of this century, many Western and oriental anthropologists and sociologists have researched the phenomena of immigrants and refugees. In the process of case studies, the theories of assimilation and adjustment have been gradually established and developed. Currently, scholars in North America and around the world still carry on various research projects related to assimilation and adjustment from different perspectives. For example, in 1962 Giles Edward Gobetz of Ohio State University wrote his dissertation on the adjustment and assimilation of Slovenian refugees in the United States. In 1966 Jacques Ex wrote his book entitled "Adjustment after migration: a longitudinal study of the process of adjustment by refugees to a new environment. This book is based on the case study of the Indonesians in the Netherlands. In 1974 Kananur Chandra wrote a book entitled " The adjustment and attitudes of East Indian students in Canada. In 1995 Gloria Rong Zhang wrote her dissertation entitled "Anomie and identification: Adjustment experiences of recent immigrations from mainland China in Toronto." All these previous and existing researches are related with assimilation and adjustment of ethnic immigrants or refugees; however, none of them focuses on the cultural assimilation of a specific minority group such as the June 4 scholars in Canada from the national and global perspectives.

2. 1. 1. Theoretical Aspects of Assimilation

Assimilation is the dependent variable which is greatly influenced by adjustment and education, and the interaction of education, adjustment, and socio-demographic factors. In the case of the June 4 scholars, the question is how and to what degree they have assimilated as a result of experiences in what personal adjustment they made. As well,

the answers to the question should demonstrate that this research project is different from previous research about theoretical aspects of assimilation.

The assimilative process and its patterns for these new comers are far more complicated due to their unique characteristics and different social conditions than in previous periods in a host country like Canada. Along with the development of theories of assimilation, the nature and concepts of assimilation are under continuous discussion, although there has been a certain amount of confusion in different historical stages. Many distinguished anthropologists and sociologists, such as Robert Park, John Porter, Earnest Burgess, Robert Redfield, Ralph Linton, Melville Herskovits, Brewton Berry, Joseph Fichter, William Smith, Arnold Green, and Milton Gordon, have defined assimilation in different terms. For example, R. Park and E. Burgess (1921) indicated . “Assimilation is a process of interpenetration and fusion in which persons and groups acquire the memories, sentiments, and attitudes of other persons or groups, and, by sharing their experience and history, are incorporated with them in a common cultural life” (p. 735).

In early writings, a number of sociologists have equated “assimilation” with “acculturation,” or considered it as an extreme form of acculturation. Brewton Berry (1951) declares that

By assimilation we mean the process whereby groups with different cultures come to have a common culture. This means, of course, not merely such items of the culture as dress, knives and forks, language, food, sports, and automobiles, which are relatively easy to appreciate and acquire, but also those less tangible items such as values, memories, sentiments, ideas, and attitudes. Assimilation refers thus to the fusion of cultural heritage, and must be distinguished from amalgamation, which denotes the biological mixture of originally distinct racial strains. (p. 217)

Joseph Fichter (1957) considers assimilation as

a social process through which two or more persons or groups accept and perform one another's patterns of behavior. We commonly talk about a person, or a minority category, being assimilated into a group or a society, but here again this must not be interpreted as a “one-sided” process. It is a relation of interaction in which both parties behave reciprocally even though one may be much more affected than the other. (p. 229)

Green (1952), in his discussion of assimilation, quoting Park and Burgess, made a perceptive differentiation between cultural behavior and social structural participation. He argued that persons and groups may “acquire the memories, sentiments, and attitudes of other persons or groups,” and meanwhile they may be excluded from “sharing their experience” and noticed themselves indefinitely delayed in being “incorporated with them in a common cultural life.” Why? Many memories, sentiments, and attitudes of the host group/society are common property in America. On the other hand, the matter of sharing experience and being incorporated in a common life is limited. First, by an unwillingness on the side of the host group/society; second, by a desire of the new arrivals to foster social participation among themselves. Although it is usually the host group/society which creates barriers to social participation, the immigrant groups may likewise do so for themselves (p. 66).

As Kent (1953) indicated 44 years ago, assimilation is a process of absorption. It is a process by which one body ingests a foreign body and so incorporates it so that its original identity is lost and it becomes an indistinguishable part of the absorbing body (p. 239). According to Smith (1939), there is somewhat of a “regular or natural order in the assimilative process.” “External assimilation” occurs first. This has to do with adopting the more superficial aspects of culture, such as dress, eating customs, gestures, and mannerisms (p.124). The second stage should be called “internal assimilation”, which means a person has, not only superficially, but mentally accepted the culture. For example, after marrying a Canadian man and living out of Toronto Chinatown, a mainland Chinese female student now totally enjoys most positive aspects of mainstream cultural society; she assumes that she is no longer a Chinese, but a Canadian, even though she is still Chinese in origin (Interview notes).

According to Porter (1965), assimilation can be identified as two types, “cultural” and “structural.” Cultural assimilation illustrates the extent to which the immigrants absorb the culture of the mainstream society (p. 72). In this assimilative process, a mutual effect

may occur on both the immigrants and the host society. Structural assimilation is an absorbing process by which the immigrants distribute themselves in the institutional structure of the host society. Comparing the terms “external assimilation” and “internal assimilation” used by Smith (1939), who emphasized the process and depth of assimilation. Porter focused on types and contents of assimilation from the perspectives of cultures and social structures.

It seems that, the differentiation argued by Green is very crucial because the careful distinction between cultural behavior and social structure is relevant to the question: What has been the assimilation process for the June 4 Chinese scholars in their Canadian experience? Such a distinction was conceptualized by Milton Gordon (1964) in his discussion of the nature of the American pluralist society as the difference between “behavioral assimilation” and “structural assimilation as defined by Porter. In the assessment of the assimilation of an immigrant group into the mainstream society, Gordon stressed the importance of the difference between cultural behavior and social structure (pp. 67-71). Gordon further indicated that culture and social structure are closely related and in a constant state of dynamic interaction since the norms and values of a society determine the nature of social relationship (p. 33). The structure of a society comprises the “set of crystallized social relationships which its members have with each other and which relates them to the major institutional activities of the society (p. 31).”

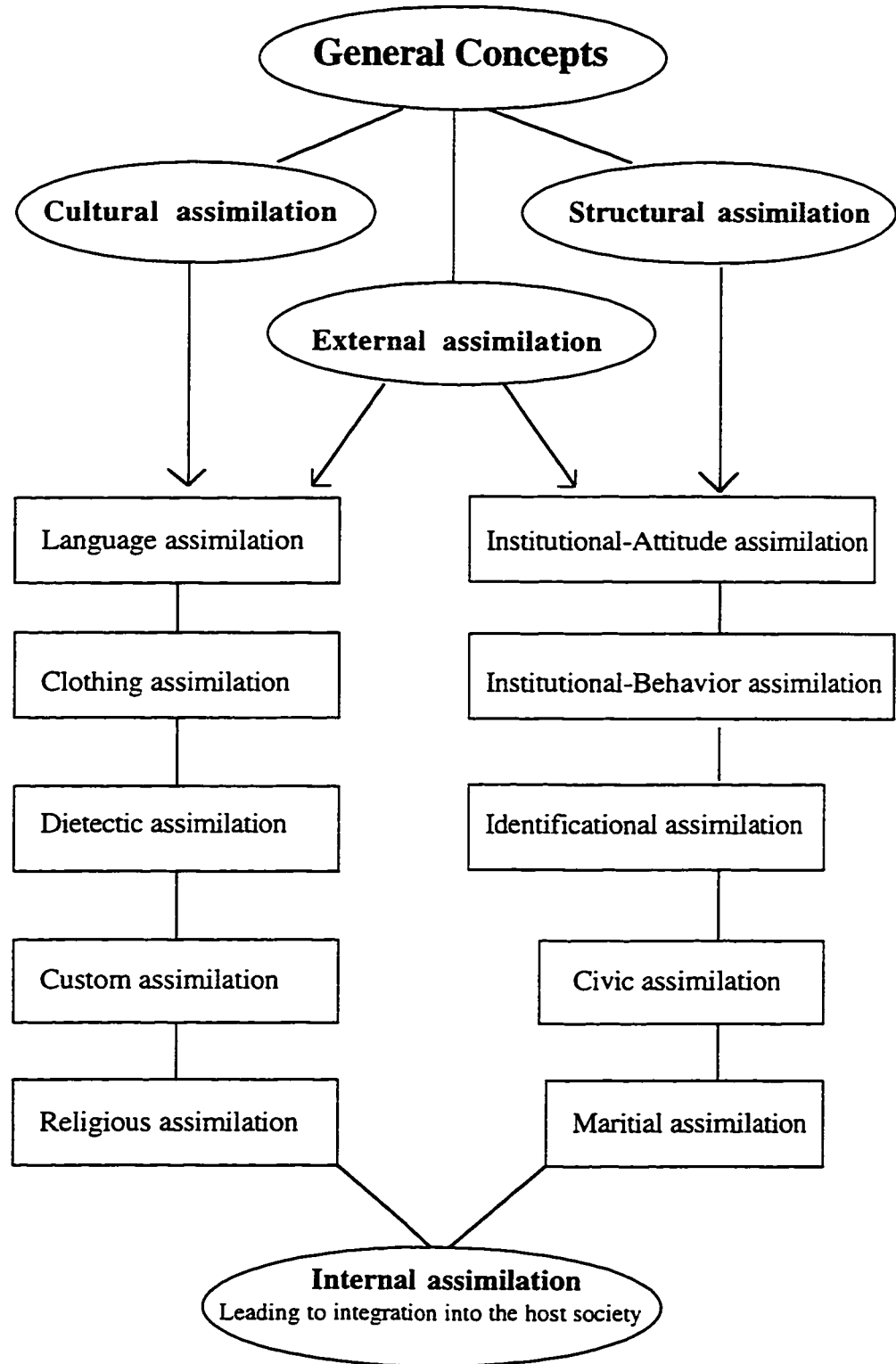
According to Gordon (1964), cultural assimilation is the “change of cultural patterns to those of the host society” and structural assimilation is “the large scale entrance into cliques, clubs, and institutions of the host society, on primary group level (p. 71).” Gordon concludes that cultural assimilation is likely to be the first kind of assimilation to occur when a minority group arrives in a new society; and cultural assimilation of the minority group may happen though no other kind of assimilation occurs simultaneously or later. This condition of cultural assimilation may continue indefinitely (p. 77).

Nevertheless, as Gordon indicated, the occurrence of structural assimilation should lead to economic, social, marital, identificational, and all other types of assimilation. The assimilation process an ethnic group is subjected to can be classified and divided into following seven basic subprocesses:

- 1) The assimilated change their cultural patterns (including religious belief and observance) to those of the host society;
- 2) The assimilated take on large-scale primary group relationships with the host society, i.e., fully enter into the societal network of groups and institutions, or societal structure, of the host society;
- 3) The assimilated intermarry and interbreed fully in the mainstream society;
- 4) The assimilated develop a sense of peoplehood, or ethnicity, of the host society in place of their previous ethnic sense;
- 5) The assimilated reach a point where they encounter no discriminatory behavior;
- 6) The assimilated reach a point where they encounter no prejudiced attitudes; and
- 7) The assimilated do not raise demands about the nature of the mainstream public or civic life any issues that involve value and power conflict with the people in the host society (p.70).

Each of these subprocesses of assimilation does not only differ by degree, but also by depth of psychological experience. Each subprocess may constitute a particular stage or type of the assimilation process. Synthetically, based on the review of the theoretical opinions from Gordon and other sociologists such as Smith and Porter, the following framework of assimilation process is created (Figure 1.) for further conceptual analysis and research.

Figure 1. A Theoretical Framework of Assimilation Process *



* This diagram represents a synthesized conceptual summation of Smith, Porter and Gordon.

In Figure 1, language assimilation refers to the process of adopting the language of the host society. Language adoption is usually the crucial beginning step for cultural assimilation. When the immigrants start to change their original ethnic clothing in order to fit in a host society, they are in the process of clothing assimilation. Dietetically, when the immigrants are willing to add the common food of the mainstream society into their traditional diet, they are in the process of dietetic assimilation. Custom assimilation refers to the process of adapting to the customs such as gesture, greeting habits of a mainstream society. Religious assimilation refers to the process in which the immigrants begin to accept the religious beliefs and observance of a mainstream society.

Under the structural assimilation in Figure 1, institutional-attitude assimilation refers to the process in which the immigrants reach a point where they encounter no racial prejudice. In the process of institutional-behavior assimilation, there is an absence of discrimination from the host people against the immigrants. Identificational assimilation refers to the process when the immigrants gradually develop a sense of peoplehood based exclusively on a host society. In the process of civic assimilation, the immigrants do not raise demands which involve value and power conflict with the people in a host society. Marital assimilation refers to the process in which the immigrants intermarry on a large scale with the people of a host society, and their descendants are amalgamated or interbred with the people in the host society.

The process of assimilation, according to the above diagram, suggests a movement from external to internal via both cultural and structural accesses. The cultural access emphasizes the adoption in the common cultural life of a host society, while the structural access emphasizes the incorporation in the social network of cliques, clubs, and institutions of a host society. The internal assimilation is the final stage of the entire process, which is built up gradually by each individual subprocess between the external and internal stages.

Gordon (1964) further assumed, as the cultural assimilating forces from a host country exert pressures upon an ethnic intellectual group, the containing walls of the ethnic

communalities are threatened-but not necessarily broken (p. 227). The intellectuals in the ethnic group simply face the pressures or the conflicts when they are in a foreign country. On the basis of their individual personality styles and their resolutions against the pressures or conflicts, Gordon hypothesized three “ideal types” of ethnic intellectuals, who were in the process of assimilation. These three types are:

1) “The actively ethnic intellectuals”, who remain within their ethnic group and focus their intellectual interests precisely on their ethnicity. They are the cultural historians of the group, the theologians, the community leaders, the apologists, the scholars of their art, culture, music, and literature. While they maintain a respectable acquaintanceship with the broader ideological currents and events around them, their primary interest and passions are reserved for the racial, religious, or nationality background ethos in which they consider their roots to be firmly placed. They are a confident approach, and they appear to be spared many of the problems of marginality.

2) “The passively ethnic intellectuals,” who remain predominantly within the subsocietal boundaries of their ethnic group and social class. If they are Chinese, most of their friends may be intellectuals, but they will also be Chinese. If they are Indians, they confine their friendships primarily to other Indian intellectuals. While their interests are mostly of the broader, non-ethnic variety, they gratify them within the borders of ethnic communality. Occasionally, they look wistfully beyond ethnic boundaries at other ethnic intellectuals, but they are not moved, or not able, to cross these boundaries in any substantial sense.

3) “The marginally ethnic intellectuals,” who enter and make up the intellectual subsociety. As the appellation indicates, they wear their ethnicity lightly, if not in their own eyes at least in the eyes of other people. Whatever their social psychology, they find ethnic communality unsatisfactory and take their friends, and probably even their spouses, to share their fascination of the host society (Gordon, 1964, pp. 228, 229).

By studying the previous conceptual framework of assimilation and the case of the June 4 scholars, the author would like to re-iterate that assimilation is a complex life-long process for a person in a foreign environment. In the process, a person has to fit him/her self into a common cultural and social life which reshapes the image, behavior, characteristics, and even ideology of the immigrants. The major perspectives of assimilation can be classified into two categories: 1) External, which includes learning and using a foreign language, changing dietetic and habits of dress, adopting the custom and religion of the mainstream hosting society, etc. A person who has adapted into these categories does not consider himself or herself as having assimilated into the host society. He or she still retains his or her original identity in basic ways, but acquires only the necessities for his or her survival in a new place; and 2) Internal, which reflects a higher level of a person's absorption in the assimilative process. When various aspects of external assimilation reaches a mature stage, the internally assimilated is viewed as having incorporated the host society's ways. The assimilated is considered, as a consequence, a real member of the mainstream society, although the assimilated may still maintain their racial characteristics. For example, as Wayson Choy (1997) indicated, those who have deeply assimilated into North American life are assigned nicknames such as: "apples" (red outside, white inside) refer to native Indians; blacks are "Oreo cookies (black and white); and Chinese are "bananas". "These metaphors assume, both rightly and wrongly, that the culture here (North America) has been primarily anglo-white." (p. A20)

However, in the process, the degrees of assimilation do differ. The depth of immersion depends on the individual situation and characteristics of the person involved. There are logical directions of assimilation. It's components and degrees are determined by such variables as ability and willingness of personal adjustment, educational background, cultural heritage, financial foundation, new social contacts, and interaction with them. The process of assimilation is influenced positively or negatively by a person's motive. Cultural assimilation does not necessarily precede structural assimilation for certain

individuals although for groups they do. They may occur simultaneously. The original identity of the assimilated may not essentially be lost, even though the whole process of internal assimilation is completed.

2.1.2. Theoretical Aspects of Adjustment

Historically, professionals have tended to conceptualize adjustment in a negative sort of way. They assume that a person has to adjust himself or herself due to the pressure from his or her host environment. However, “adjustment is regarded in terms of the positive characteristics an individual displays” (Haber & Runyon, p. 10, 1984). It is not the purpose of this dissertation to make a comprehensive definition of adjustment since there are so many elements that comprise the concept. Only relevant aspects are reviewed hereinafter to form part of the theoretical framework of this research and to support the hypotheses.

Basically, adjustment can be defined as a person’s interaction with his or her environment. Interaction implies mutual bearing or influence. Every person is influenced by his or her surroundings, and each has some effect on the particular environmental settings of which he or she is a part. The relative amount of influence varies from setting to setting and from time to time within a particular setting. Sometimes an individual or a group is more influenced than influential, and sometimes the situation is reversed. For example, the Chinese students and scholars were influenced more in Canadian society when they started to settle down a few years ago. Now, after their gradual interaction in the new surroundings, some of them work as professors, medical doctors, engineers, and lawyers, applying active influence in their communities. Meanwhile, the communities also influence them.

Environment refers to everything external to the person with which he or she has some relationship. In the study of adjustment, the unit of study is frequently a social

group. Taking Chinese students and scholars as an example, they are studied in relation to their new living or working environment.

According to Arkoff (1968), adjustment is dynamic rather than static in quality. People change and their environment changes, too. Thus, the relationship between people and environment also changes. Some key ideas in understanding adjustment are motive, frustration, conflict, anxiety, defense, and learning (p. 30).

A motive is a pattern of need-impelled, goal-directed activity. Three ideas are involved in this concept: 1) need: a condition that prompts one to act, 2) action: the behavior stimulated by the need and directed toward a goal; and 3) goal: the end toward which the behavior is directed.

Frustration refers to anything which interferes with need-impelled, goal-directed activity. Some frustrations are lacks or deficiencies. Some are losses. Others are obstacles that interfere with behavior. As a special kind of frustration, conflict consists of simultaneous, but mutually incompatible, patterns of behavior. Conflicts may involve several alternatives, all of which have attractive and unattractive features.

Anxiety infers an arousal caused by a threat to one's well-being. Some anxieties may be objective and understandable, whereas others may appear unwarranted and baffling. The strength of anxiety varies from person to person as well as within one person. Mild anxieties can act as helpful stimulants; very strong anxieties can disrupt behavior.

Defenses are those patterns of behavior, employed to protect oneself against threat, and directed toward the goal of anxiety reduction. They are not necessarily special kinds of behavior. Neither are they necessarily negative. Their degree of usefulness depends upon their overall effect in a particular situation.

Learning refers to changes in behavior that come through practice and experience. In a problem situation a person may vary his or her responses, trying one, then another, and another. When one hits upon a response that is successful, it tends to be strengthened

and repeated in similar situations. Less successful acts tend to be weakened and subsequently occur less often in similar contexts. As the individual learns, he or she develops preferred or characteristic ways of dealing with his or her problem (Arkoff, p.31, 1968).

Similar to Arkoff, Mr. William Coe (1972) agreed that adjustment is a process by which the individual responds to certain aspects of life environment. However, he believed that this view of adjustment is not self-contained. It draws heavily on the existential view of an individual. Coe further argued that the view of adjustment represents an attempt to remain neutral about moral judgments on specific conduct. Adjustment is not a mere conformity, but an active process of coping with the demands of life (p. 11).

The concept of adjustment, as Magnusson, Duner, and Zetterblom (1975) stated, is associated with what may be called living or social systems: systems of organs, personality systems, and groups of individuals. In the process of adjustment, forces are balanced mutually within the systems with forces originating from the environment. The immediate goals of this process may be characterized generally as a type of equilibrium within the system and in the interaction of the system with the environment. The continuous interactions of the system with the environment assume that this equilibrium is not static but dynamic. The outcome of the process of adjustment for an individual is dependent on the character of the social environment, both micro and macro. The physical environment is defined by the objective characteristics of the environment in which an individual lives, works, or studies. The micro-social environment refers to the social system within which the individual interacts directly, such as the family, school, an ethnic community etc. Micro-social systems are seen typically with respect to economic resources, languages, ways of thinking, habits, attitudes, and norms. The macro-social environmental system is defined as the society to which an individual belongs, with its social, economic, political and cultural structure, its laws and bylaws, its usage and customs. This system is common in a national group (p. 19).

Barocas, Reichman, and Schwebel (1983) noted that adjustment involves two important processes: 1) the individual attempts to create an identity and relate effectively to the environment in which he or she lives by developing skills, traits, and behaviors that will bring success, happiness, and other valued goals. 2) The individual attempts to master the environment to produce results. That is, an individual wants to modify it for his or her own advantage (p. 7).

For example, the June 4 scholars have adjusted themselves in Canada by finding jobs or career commitments that will enable them to fit into the social environment, through study, research, joint-action in their group or in a large community. As Barocas (1983) concluded, personal adjustment involves responding effectively to the demands of the environment, recognizing opportunities in the environment, and knowing when and how to impose one's own terms (p.7).

According to Miller, Yahne, and Rhodes (1990), adjustment refers to a state of harmony between the person and the environment. It is also a process of change whereby individuals adapt to variations in the physical and social climate by altering aspects of their behavior and/or the surroundings (p. 4). Miller (1990) further summarized that different theories of adjustment can be classified into four groups of general themes or models:

1) The homeostatic model: This model emphasizes balance, drawing on concepts from physics and physiology. A homeostatic system is one that regulates itself to maintain a balance, to remain close to a standard or self-point. An example would be a pilot in an aircraft or boat who reads a compass heading to which it has been set and adjusts the steering controls accordingly, thus keeping on course (pp. 6, 14);

2) Growth model: This model emphasized self-actualization. It places less emphasis on a state being "adjusted" and more on the process of changing. Rather than thinking of people as pendulums swinging back and forth about fixed points, the growth model conceives of purposeful movement, and it is based on progress toward realizing one's potential, as well as a perception of one's present condition, (pp. 9, 14);

3) Learning model: This model emphasizes adaptiveness in dealing with a changing world. Here the emphasis is less on set-points or absolute deals and more on the ways in which people change to cope with their internal and external worlds; the emphasis is more on how people influence and are influenced by the people and environment (p. 10); and

4) Choice model: This model stresses self-determination by intentional choice, which can be made only among perceived alternatives. For example, Chance is seen as determined by the free human will. Each person must choose his or her own path, exercising freedom within whatever material limits may exist. Individuals may give away their freedom by accepting the beliefs and rules of an external system, but there are no absolutes in the world, and ultimately each person must make his or her own personal meaning. Each person can and does always choose how he or she will perceive a situation and the meaning it will have (pp. 12, 28,).

Within each of the above four models, the “reality” to which one adjusts is that of one’s own perceived world rather than an objective reality. There are a variety of ways to think about adjustment. However, basically, the term “adjustment” refers to a state of being, a condition of wellness, of harmonious relationship between the individual and his or her environment. A person who is “well adjusted” is, in this sense, one who is in turn with other people and the world.

The concept of adjustment can be further summarized as a process of change: people adjust or adapt. In this more active sense of the word “adjustment”, people are always adjusting, growing, and changing in search of well-being. In this second sense, a well-adjusted person is one who is capable of constructive change. Such change may be accomplished by changing oneself to fit the environment, by altering the environment itself, or through a combination of these. In a word, adjustment is both a state of harmony and the process by which that state is approached.

When adjustment is best understood within the context of human relations, people perceive that adjustment is something that concerns all people, for it is what people are

constantly seeking and doing. Adjustment is related to everyone's feelings, values, choices, decisions, relationships, and problems. In this research, adjustment is one of the key variables for analyzing samples, the June 4 Chinese scholars in Canada.

2. 2. Problems and Hypotheses

Although a general statement of the problem has been briefly presented early in the introductory chapter of this dissertation, it is necessary to make a specific statement with more details in this sub-section. The statement is based on the research question and its sub-questions, which are used in the research to investigate significant themes. The statement of the research problem, together with a precise exposition of the research questions, will serve as a transition between the literature review and the description of the methodology for this dissertation.

The study and discussion of the conceptual analysis of assimilation started more than half a century ago, creating an abundance of theories concerning assimilation in western societies. It seems, however, that not enough work has been done to test these theories. For example, 30 years ago Gordon arrived at his theory about the differentiation of cultural and structural assimilation from his observation of American society. His conclusions and some hypotheses, nevertheless, have not been tested along the historical development of human societies from a global perspective. For example, Gordon's hypotheses about dividing assimilated ethnic intellectuals into three categories were not proved by necessary research. The three categories were called "the actively ethnic intellectual," "the passively ethnic intellectual," and "the marginally ethnic intellectual. (Gordon, 1964, pp. 228, 229)." The research on the June 4 Chinese scholars in Canada provides an excellent opportunity to test Gordon's theories and hypotheses related to the concept of assimilation. Meanwhile, as far as this dissertation is concerned, the research question and its sub-questions should be answered after determining the interrelationship of

the concepts of assimilation, adjustment, and education. For example, to answer the question: What does this survey tell about the role of informal, non-formal, and formal education in the assimilative process? One conclusion may indicate that education plays an important role for the June 4 Chinese scholars, whose social and economic status is directly or indirectly influenced by their formal, informal, and non-formal education in both China and Canada.

Among these three aspects of education mentioned above, it is assumed that formal education is more crucial than the other two in the assimilative process of the June 4 Chinese scholars. However, due to the lack of work experience in Canada and the need for skilled professionals in its work force, some June 4 Chinese scholars have had to take supplementary job training to enrich their formal educational background and make themselves more marketable in Canada. For these cases, the survey will try to ascertain how the three aspects of education have influenced the June 4 Chinese scholars in their job orientation, direction, and career adjustment. As well, the survey should provide sufficient data to support the hypothesis that formal education is more important than informal and nonformal, though the latter two types are supplementary means for immigrants to assimilate themselves in a host country.

In analyzing the relevant data collected by the survey, a comparison has been made regarding different roles of formal, informal, and nonformal education which apply to the assimilative process of the June 4 Chinese scholars. The comparison focused on the education of CSSP in Canada, while their education in China was also considered to support the hypotheses of this research dissertation. The data gathered from the survey may not provide enough information about the role of informal, nonformal, and formal education in the assimilative process, however, it should be sufficient to begin further research. The following are the major premises based on the research that have guided this thesis project and created relevant hypotheses.

First of all, there are logical processes and directions of assimilation. In the process, the components and the degree of assimilation are determined by variables such as adjustment, education, and other social factors. According to various environments, one does not have to be culturally assimilated before his or her structural assimilation: his or her cultural and structural assimilation may even occur together. One of the major findings of this research may be that a minority group like the June 4 Chinese scholars cannot be totally assimilated, even though they become Canadian landed immigrants or citizens and live in Canada for the rest of their lives; however, their descendants will be more assimilated. This research may further indicate that education is the key variable which influences the assimilation degrees and processes. The results from data analysis may further state that formal education is more important than informal education in the assimilative process of immigrants, while informal education plays the role as a supplementary means for immigrants to assimilate themselves in a host country.

As Weinbach (1995) indicated, a hypothesis is a statement of a relationship between two or more variables. In quantitative research, a hypothesis expresses what the researcher believes to be true, essentially based on an extensive review of the professional literature. A hypothesis is stated in such a way that it can be supported (or not supported) by statistical analyses (Pp. 6-7), and a hypothesis can be thought of as a tentative answer to a research question (78). For example, assimilation is assumed to be the dependent variable which is greatly affected by independent variables like adjustment, education, interaction, and other social factors. Regarding the relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variables, assimilation can be considered as a variable which depends on adjustment, education, their interaction, and other social factors.

2. 3. Conclusion:

Various theoretical aspects of assimilation have been reviewed in the first section of this chapter, notably, the theory of cultural assimilation, which has been examined as the dependent variable. Assimilation is greatly influenced by adjustment, education, and the interaction of education, adjustment, and socio-demographic factors. This section argues that, although there have been many theories concerning assimilation in the West since the middle of this century, not enough work has been done to test these theories globally. For example, Gordon's theory about the differentiation of cultural and structural assimilation has not yet been operationally set up to test the universality of assimilation.

The concept of adjustment has been reviewed in this chapter as another major theoretical component. The interaction of individuals and their environment is the focus of various theories about adjustment, which can be grouped into four general themes: the homeostatic model, the growth model, the learning model, and the choice model. In the process of adjustment, the relationship between people and environment changes. Major ideas in understanding adjustment are motive, frustration, conflict, anxiety, defense, and learning.

As stated above, this dissertation is whether the June 4 scholars to test the theoretical concepts of cultural assimilation according to the social conditions of the late 80s and early 90s, rather than according to the previous social conditions in which Gordon and other experts created their theories of assimilation a few decades ago. Furthermore, the research problem may further stimulate thinking and discussion about how the theories of assimilation can be upgraded or developed.

How did the Chinese students, scholars, and professionals, including their family members, survive physically and spiritually in Canada after the 1989 June 4 Event? This question and other questions at the beginning of this chapter initiated the elementary literature review with the focus on theoretical concepts of assimilation and adjustment.

According to Rudestam and Newton (1992), the literature review is the forum for the argument (p. 47). Based on the literature review and consideration of the actual social environment in which the June 4 scholars have assimilated and adjusted themselves, seven hypotheses are provided to test the theories, and raise an argument, which should then lead to the description and data analysis of this research. For example, among the hypotheses, formal education is assumed to be an important aspect which greatly influences the assimilative process of the June 4 scholars. For the purpose of testing relevant theories of assimilation and adjustment and also finding possible answers to the research questions, the above hypotheses were not only considered for the argument in the literature review process, but were also used to design and analyze the questionnaire.

The significance of this research can be summarized as follows: 1) It is not for reviewing previous pure theories about assimilation and adjustment, but for testing and upgrading the theories by considering the actual case of the Chinese June 4 scholars in the most recent decades; 2) Other theoretical concepts related to education and immigration policies are examined with the data collected from the survey of this research. 3) The results of this research will be useful for policy makers in the Canadian and Chinese governments; it will be also helpful for further studies on practice and theories relevant to assimilation, adjustment, education, and immigration policies. Thus, this study is different from previous ones. Combining theories with practice from a sampling of the June 4 Chinese scholars is worthwhile.

Chapter 3. Methodology

This chapter provides a description of the specific methods which have been adopted in this research project. It presents the design of the study: how this dissertation is a quantitative research project, and how it utilizes a cross-sectional survey design to examine the phenomena and theories relevant to assimilation and adjustment of a sample of June 4 Chinese scholars in Canada. The collected data, after analysis by various methods, were also used to test the hypotheses stated in Chapter 2.

The structure of this chapter includes three sections. They are: 1) Subjects: Sites and Respondents. This section provides details of location of subjects, sample type, and numbers of subjects which are necessary for the survey design. 2) Instrumentation: Questionnaire, Research Question, Sub-questions, and Research Tools. This section describes the measures this research employed and why they were utilized for writing this research dissertation, collecting data, and measuring the variables specified in the questionnaire and hypotheses. 3) Procedures: Questionnaire Collection and Data Analysis, which includes avenues of questionnaire distribution, covering scope and response rate. This section presents a detailed description of the methods taken to contact the respondents and how to approach and treat collected data correctly.

3. 1. Subjects: Sites and Respondents

As the subject of this dissertation research, Chinese scholars in major Canadian urban centers were selected as primary respondents to provide data and other relevant references. The respondents who qualified belonged to one of the following categories:

- a) They were landed immigrants or new citizens in Canada as a result of the 1989 June 4 Incident and the relevant special policies of the Canadian government;
- b) They were in master/doctoral or other academic programs in Canadian post-secondary institutions during the last eight years, or

- c) They were employees of Canadian post-secondary institutions or enterprises anywhere in Canada, including those who are temporarily unemployed or have quit their previous jobs to look for a better employment in Canada;
- d) They were professionals in various academic and applied science fields, and
- e) They were Chinese scholars and professionals who have been self-employed since they settled down in Canada as a result of the 1989 June 4 Incident.

According to the above qualifications, the questionnaire was administered to respondents in relevant sites, who formed a collective sample of a purposive type, neither random nor stratified. The most effective way to approach these qualified respondents was to seek assistance from local Chinese Students and Scholars Associations (CSSA) on various campuses of universities in major Canadian urban centers, because many respondents were CSSA members even though they did not study or work on campus. It was also practical to start the survey in western and central Canada because this research was initiated at the University of Calgary. Thus, for reasons of feasibility and convenience, the collection of data was taken first in four western and central Canadian provinces: British Columbia, Alberta, Saskatchewan, and Manitoba. With the help of CSSA executives and trusted collectors on various campuses in early 1995, questionnaires were distributed in Vancouver, Victoria, Edmonton, Calgary, Saskatoon, Regina, and Winnipeg. Then, the survey was extended to the two big eastern provinces: Ontario and Quebec. Ottawa, Toronto, York, and Montreal were selected sites for distribution of questionnaires and personal interviews in late 1995. Thus, in two stages during 1995, the questionnaire survey covered most Canadian major urban centers where the majority of the June 4 scholars have studied, worked and lived since they immigrated from China during the late 1980s and early 1990s.

The appropriate number of respondents for the cross-sectional survey design of this research was one of the most difficult sampling problems. If the number of subjects is too

few, it will be difficult to make meaningful conclusions from the data. It will not be practical to extend the survey, either, given considerations of cost, effort, and time. According to general rules of thumb, a minimum of 100 cases is essential for a research project of this kind. Of course, some distributed questionnaires would not be returned. Thus, in this project 400 copies of the questionnaire were prepared to ensure there would be sufficient feedback. Three batches of questionnaires were scheduled for distribution. The first batch was 190 copies for distribution in western Canada; the second batch was 85 copies for eastern Canada; and the third batch of 125 copies for supplementary distribution was to be printed only if less than 100 questionnaires were returned.

Besides those 153 respondents (97 were male, and 56 were female, Table 10), who completed the questionnaires, a total of 123 Chinese and Canadian scholars provided their personal comments as additional data or reference for this research in various formats such as interviews, other written correspondence, and conference panel discussions. The interviews included individual and group interviews with interviewees from most urban centers across Canada. Other written correspondence refers to electronic mail and personal letters. Panel discussions at six national conferences with the participation of various discussants offered different views and feedback relating to issues studied for this project. The relevant panel discussions included those in the four national annual assemblies of FCSSC, which were held respectively in Guelph, Ottawa, Montreal, and Calgary between 1993 and 1996. Three other relevant panel discussions were: the one held at the University of British Columbia, Vancouver, at the Graduate Students Conference on Chinese Studies in May, 1995; the one held at Brock University, St. Catherine's, Ontario, at the annual conference of Canadian Asian Studies Associations (CASA) on May 29, 1996; and the one held at the Memorial University, St. Johns, Newfoundland, at the annual conference of Canadian Asian Studies Associations (CASA) on June 5, 1997.

3. 2. Instrumentation

3.2.1. Questionnaire

The basic data were obtained from a quantitative questionnaire. While it was designed to produce data to answer the major research question and its sub-questions, the questionnaire results were made suitable for analysis by computer statistical software, which can be operated by either an IBM/PC or Macintosh.

The decision to use a questionnaire as a key tool to collect data and opinions for this research was based on the careful consideration and comparison of the advantages and disadvantages of a questionnaire. The advantages of a questionnaire seem more numerous than its disadvantages. For example, the most obvious convenience of using a questionnaire in a survey is the cost. The expense of designing and printing questionnaires for distribution to a large numbers of respondents is considerably less than that of interviewing similar numbers of respondents for the same volume of information. The advantages can be listed as follows:

- 1) Wide coverage for minimum cost, both in effort and money;
- 2) Wider geographic contact with qualified respondents;
- 3) Easier access to the respondents who are not easy to locate for interview;
- 4) Greater validity through more representative samples due to wider coverage;
- 5) Collection of more thoughtful answers than in interview;
- 6) More suitable in situations where the respondents may require more time to check more information and to carefully think about their replies, which may not be possible in interviews;
- 7) Greater uniformity in the manner in which questions are posed;
- 8) More sense of privacy to respondents;
- 9) Less bias because the questions are more carefully worded than in interviews;
- 10) Ease of tabulation and data entry for analysis by computer;

- 11) Guarantee of a sufficient number of completed questionnaires from qualified respondents if properly and effectively distributed and collected.

Thus, ultimately, the advantages override the disadvantages (mentioned under Limitations, later) of using a questionnaire for this research. Moreover, the use of the questionnaire to collect data for this research proved to be without major problems, further proof that its choice was appropriate for this research.

A well-planned and carefully constructed questionnaire increases the response rate of a survey and also greatly facilitates the summarizing analysis of the collected data. As Levine and Gordon (1958) indicated, “the appearance of the questionnaire frequently determines whether it is read or discarded. Once the respondent takes the effort to read it, he has some psychological commitment to complete it. (p. 571).” Carefully designed and constructed according to the specific goals and objectives of this research, the questionnaire (Appendix 3) contained 99 questions for respondents to complete and return via entrusted people or mail. Each questionnaire was enclosed with a bilingual letter in both English and Chinese (Appendix 1). The letter stated the purpose of the survey. Regarding the questionnaire categories, the following major contents were considered in the design:

- a) An invitation letter and consent form. Basic purposes and methods were provided to respondents in the letter, and respondents were expected to sign the consent form so as to meet with the approval of the Ethics Committee, the University of Calgary.
- b) Demographic and factual questions. These questions included personal information about educational background, career, gender, previous and present social status, and income, etc. In order to let respondents feel at ease general questions were put before specific ones, and the sensitive questions about income and marriage status were put at the end. (Questions 1 - 29 are linked with research sub-questions 1, 2, 4, and 8, as indicated in the following 3. 2. 2. and Figure. 2)

- c) Questions about assimilation. These questions were designed mainly to answer the research question and its sub-questions. For purposes of analysis and comparison, some items were cited or adjusted from previous researchers whose concerns were also about theories and phenomenon of assimilation. (Questions 30 - 69 are linked with research sub-questions 3, 4 and 5. Figure 2)
- d) Questions about personal adjustment. These questions were used to analyze and predict the June 4 Chinese scholars' intention, orientation, and motivation. In order to have the most reliable data, varying levels of answers were designed for one question. For example, four to six variables were used to measure their future intention. For each question, the response categories had four or more levels like strongly agree, somewhat agree, somewhat disagree, and strongly disagree. (Questions 70 - 99 are linked with research sub-questions 4, 5, 6, 7, 9. Figure 2)

3. 2. 2. Research Question and Sub-questions

The design of the questionnaire for this dissertation is based on the research question: *How have the Chinese scholars, who, prima facie, did not have opportunities to become landed immigrants, but were "forced" to stay in Canada, assimilated via post-secondary education, and otherwise adjusted to Canadian life ?*

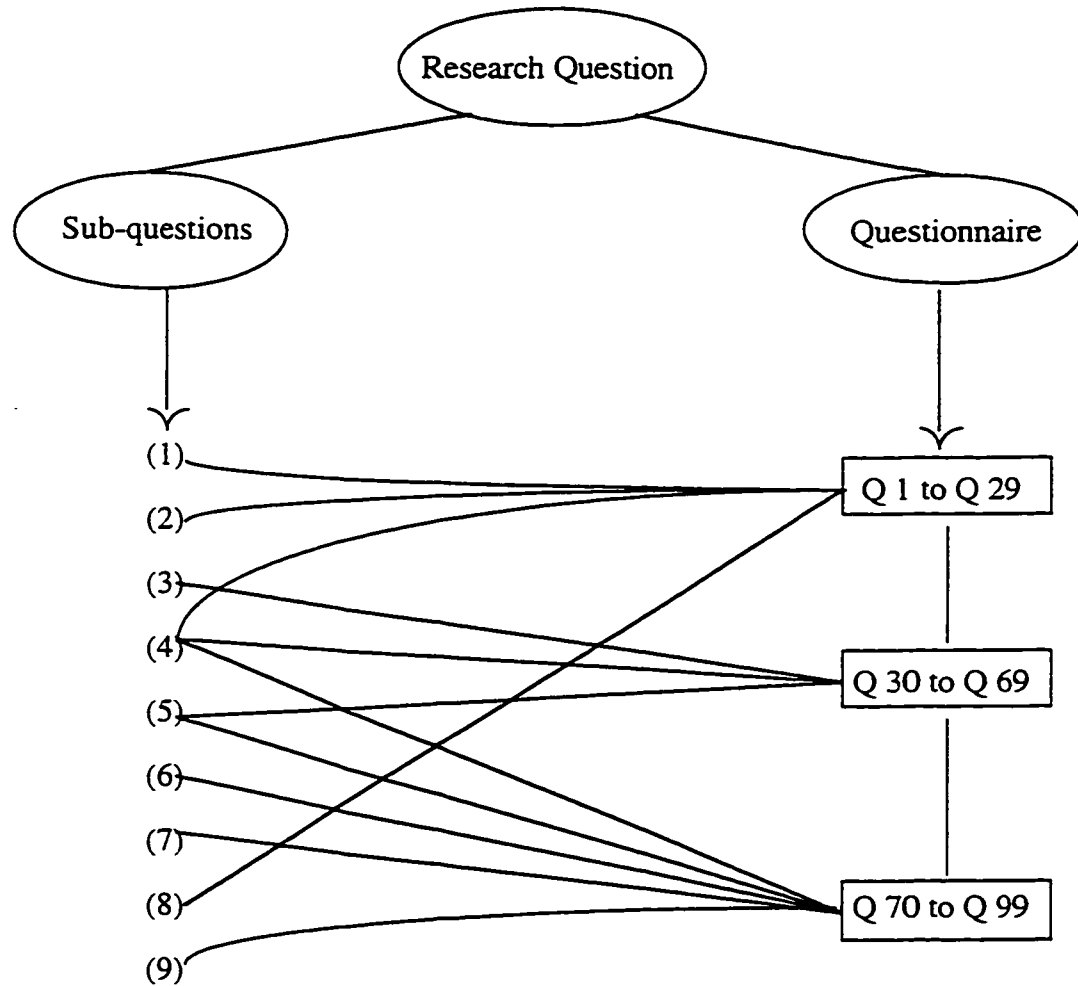
According to the research question and to test theories related to assimilation and adjustment using the case of the June 4 scholars, the questions in the questionnaire were designed by considering the following sub-questions of the research:

- (1) How are the June 4 scholars identified by Canadian communities?
- (2) What are the circumstances that led to their stay in Canada?
- (3) What are the legal, social, and economic status of these Chinese in Canada?
Should they be treated as political refugees or just a new generation of regular Chinese immigrants in Canada?

- (4) What is the process of their assimilation in Canada? How is their relationship with local Chinese and other communities?
- (5) Have the June 4 Chinese scholars still maintained their original values of morality, philosophy of life, and national characteristics?
- (6) How has their education in China and Canada affected them? How have they survived since 1989 within a larger Canadian society?
- (7) What does this survey tell about the role of informal, non-formal, and formal education in the assimilative process?
- (8) What kind of relationship exists between China and the June 4 Chinese scholars? Will they be able to promote mutual exchanges between Canada and China in the fields of education, culture, science, commerce, industry, and social customs? How can they influence relevant policies of Canada and China?
- (9) What is the future of the June 4 Chinese scholars?
 - a) Will they permanently live and work in Canada or other countries?
 - b) Will they return to China and work there with foreign status?
 - c) Will they return to China, and live and work there as Chinese citizens?

The following diagram (Figure. 2) reflects the links between the questionnaire and the research question and its sub-questions. The links are classified according to the purposes of the questions. However, a few questions in the questionnaire overlapped because some issues are closely related.

Figure 2: The Linkage of Research Questions and the Questionnaire



Remarks:

- a) Demographic and factual questions are linked with Q1-Q 29 in the questionnaire;
- b) Questions about assimilation are linked with Q30 - Q 69 in the questionnaire;
- c) Questions about adjustment are linked with Q 70 - Q 99 in the questionnaire.

3. 2. 3. The Selected Tools for Data Treatment

According to the characteristics of this research project, it was appropriate to use SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) as the key instrument for handling the collected data. SPSS seemed to be the best when comparing its powerful and multi-functions with other statistical packages for quantitative analysis. SPSS is one of the three main statistics packages: SPSS, SAS (Statistical Analysis System), and BMDP (BioMedical Data Programs), which are always available on very large computers found at many universities (Mainframe and Minicomputers) and on personal computers. There are some other smaller programs such as Stata, GB Stat, SysStat, and StatPac Gold, which are available for personal computers. However, compared to them, the bigger packages like SPSS have more advantages. For example, SPSS permits incredible flexibility in terms of what a researcher can do with his or her data. SPSS has the ability to handle a large amount of data with thousands of cases and hundreds of variables (Rudestam, pp. 180, 181 1992). Besides, SPSS is a very comprehensive data management system. It can take data from almost any type of file and use them to generate tabulated reports, charts, plots of distributions and trends, provide descriptive statistics, and do complex statistical analyses. SPSS® for Windows™ Release 6 used for this project brings the full power of the mainframe version of SPSS to the personal computer environment. It enables a user to perform many analyses on a PC that were once possible only on much larger computers. SPSS for Windows offers interface that makes statistical analysis more accessible for both the casual user and the experienced user. Simple menus and dialog box selections make it possible to perform complex analyses without typing a single line of commands. In addition to the menu-driven dialog box interface, the Data Editor of the SPSS provides a versatile spreadsheet-like system for defining, entering, editing, and browsing the working data file. The Chart Editor of SPSS is a highly visual, object-oriented facility for manipulating and customizing many charts and graphs. SPSS also produces high-

resolution, full-color pie charts, bar charts, histograms, scatterplots, and three-dimensional graphics as a standard feature in the SPSS Base system. (Norusis, 1993, pp. iii, 1).

SPSS can also administer and score the measures by itself, without requiring a user to receive extensive training to administer and score measures for using the instrument. Considering the measurement characteristics of the instrument, SPSS is proven by many to have a high reputation for its reliability, validity, and structure. Referring to reliability, SPSS has the ability to produce consistent results; the validity of SPSS indicates that it in fact measures what it purports to measure; and the structure of SPSS means it contains various functional subscales or systems that perform accurately. For example, the six types of windows in SPSS have various functions for choosing statistical procedures, editing output files, and creating charts etc.

3. 3. Procedures: Questionnaire Collection and Data Analysis

3. 3. 1. Questionnaire Distribution, Coverage, and Response Rate

As the major means of data collection, 275 questionnaires were distributed through the following four channels: 1) CSSA presidents or executives, who distributed the questionnaires via the campus mail of universities in most of the major urban centers across Canada; 2) trusted persons who handed the questionnaires to qualified respondents; 3) CSSA representatives to the FCSSC national annual assembly in 1995, and 4) the post office for a few respondents who were not on campuses and who could not easily return the questionnaires via campus mail. The major reason for selecting the four channels, instead of distributing most of the questionnaires via an extensive mail out, was that the four avenues were not only economic, but also reliable, because of the sense of personal contact, responsibility and trustworthiness of the selected distributors and collectors.

By the deadline of December 31, 1995, 207 questionnaires were completed and returned. The gross response rate was 75.3 % in general, and the validity rate is 55.6%

for data entry and analysis by SPSS (Ref. Table 6). According to the characteristics of this kind of research, such a response rate is high and proves that the administration of the questionnaire distribution/collection was effective, practical, and successful. According to the estimates mentioned in Sub-section 3.1: Subjects: Sites and Respondents, the data from these 207 questionnaires were sufficient for meaningful analysis. The third batch of 125 copies was not required, and therefore not printed and distributed.

Table 6: Distribution of Questionnaire

Order	Site of Distribution	Province	Total Distributed & % Total Collected & %	
1.	University of Alberta	AB.	40 copies / 14.5 %	31 copies / 11.2 %
2.	University of Calgary	AB.	35 copies / 12.7 %	31 copies / 11.2 %
3.	University of Lethbridge	AB.	10 copies / 3.6 %	6 copies / 2.2 %
4.	University of Sask.	SK.	20 copies / 7.3 %	17 copies / 6.2 %
5.	University of Regina	SK.	20 copies / 7.3 %	6 copies / 2.2 %
6.	University of Manitoba	MN.	10 copies / 3.6 %	6 copies / 2.2 %
7.	University of Victoria	BC.	25 copies / 9.1 %	19 copies / 6.9 %
8.	University of BC	BC.	30 copies / 10.9 %	18 copies / 6.6 %
9.	University of Ottawa	ON.	20 copies / 7.2 %	16 copies / 5.8 %
10.	University of Toronto	ON.	20 copies / 7.3 %	15 copies / 5.5 %
11.	York University	ON.	15 copies / 5.5 %	14 copies / 5.1 %
12.	University of Montreal	QC.	30 copies / 10.9 %	28 copies / 10.2 %
Total:			275 copies / 100%	207 copies / 75.3 %

Among the collected 207 copies, 54 of them were discarded because they were completed by non-qualified respondents, leaving 153 copies duly completed by qualified respondents. Thus, the data of these 153 copies, which is 55.6% of the total number of distributed questionnaires, were entered into SPSS programs as valid data for further analysis. As indicated by the above table, five locations were treated as main sites with

more than 10% of the questionnaire distributed, because a high portion of qualified respondents live, study, and work there. These sites included the University of British Columbia in Vancouver, the University of Calgary in Calgary, the University of Alberta in Edmonton, the Université de Montréal in Montréal, and the University of Toronto and the York University in the Toronto area. Ottawa should have been treated as a major site due to the large population of qualified informants there, however, only 7.2 % of the questionnaires were distributed there because a couple of entrusted distributors moved away from Ottawa. If more questionnaires could have been distributed and collected in Ottawa, the data analysis would be more significant. Nevertheless, the data collected from Ottawa were counted in this research project.

3. 3. 2. Data Analysis

After the questionnaires were collected from the respondents by the deadline, there were several challenges. From the perspective of data analysis, the first was how to approach and treat the data appropriately. The second was how to judge the quality of the measurements and the collected data. The third was how to determine the levels of measurements.

1) Approach and treatment of the data

According to the previous proposal approved in 1995 for this dissertation research, the data was entered in a spreadsheet application called Excel. Via the application, the data was saved as Sylk files, which could be retrieved and pasted into the input window for further analysis by SPSS. Since it was easier to analyze data consisting of numbers rather than a mixture of numbers and other characters such as alphabetic letters, all the variables or answers in the questionnaire survey were coded as numbers. Each of the six possible answers from respondents to the third question (i.e., Q3) of the questionnaire (Appendix 3) were given a number varying from 1 to 6.

Using the spreadsheet application Excel, the SYLK file, which contained the collected raw data from the questionnaire, was further edited and saved as an SPSS data file. Some additional data from other sources other than the questionnaire was directly entered as an SPSS data file via SPSS Data Editor, which is a simple, efficient spreadsheet-like facility that opens automatically when the SPSS session is started.

As displayed in the Data Editor, the data files for this dissertation research basically contain cases, variables, and values, which are briefly explained with examples from the questionnaire. Each row represents a case. For example, each individual respondent of the collected questionnaire is a case; thus, in total there are 153 rows edited in the data file representing 153 cases, which were from the 153 collected valid questionnaires.

Each column represents a variable being measured. Each item from the questionnaire is a variable, thus, there are 99 basic variables according to the design of the questionnaire. For instance, the measured variable in Column 2 is a respondent's location, which was labeled with various numbers (1 = Edmonton, 2 = Vancouver, 3 = Calgary, 4 = Lethbridge, 5 = Winnipeg, 6 = Ottawa, 7 = Montreal, 8 = Regina, 9 = Saskatoon, 10 = Toronto and York, and 11 = Victoria). However, there are some derived sub-variables because a question in the questionnaire may have more than one item (variable). For example, Columns 42 to 49 represent eight sub-variables derived from the item which corresponds to Question 33 about a respondent's self-evaluation of his or her English proficiency levels (Q33, Appendix 3).

Each cell contains a single value of a variable for a case. The cell is the intersection of the case and variable. For example, the cell at the intersection of Row 6 and Column 2 contains the value 1. The number 1 indicates that the 6th respondent (case) is from Edmonton. Another example may indicate a value of a respondent's English proficiency. At the intersection of Row 88 and Column 42 (Q33-1), the cell contains the value 2. This value indicates that the 88th respondent's English grammar is good according to his/her own estimation. (1 = Very good, 2 = Good, 3 = Fair, 4 = Bad, 5 = Very bad.)

Based on the created SPSS data files, the next step was to run various SPSS statistical analysis programs. Statistical analyses involve methods for (1) designing and carrying out research studies, (2) summarizing and describing the major characteristics of collected data, and (3) making predictions or inferences about the likelihood that relationships between variables within the data set also exist beyond the data actually collected. For further data analysis, descriptive statistical analysis (DSA), considered a primary process, was used to organize and summarize the most important salient characteristics of the data. DSA for this research was based on original measurements (i. e. raw data) actually taken from the samples. DSA consists of tables, graphs, and descriptive numbers, such as averages and percentages - all of which are easier to comprehend and interpret than a long list of data reporting the results of measurement of each variable for every case. The main purpose of DSA for this dissertation research is to reduce the whole collection of data to simple and more understandable terms without distorting or losing the major portion of the valuable data collected. Any form of summary may sacrifice some details, and this is no exception for DSA.

Usually, the collected data were organized and summarized by two primary formats: a) through the use of tables in the form of frequency distributions, and b) by summarizing the data in graphical form. For variables at the nominal level, frequency distributions were constructed directly from raw data. Then, frequency tables for assimilation classification, adjustment category, and educational levels were created for analysis and interpretation. The inferential analysis was processed later to draw tentative conclusions.

The model for SPSS analysis was designed as follows: Assimilation = Adjustment + Education + Interaction effect of Education and Adjustment + Interaction Effect of Adjustment & Socio-demographic Factors. Based on the analysis of this model, relevant data and results were used to support the hypotheses of this research.

In order to obtain more significant results from the data, logistic regression was utilized as the advanced statistical analysis. A major portion of SPSS for logistic regression has been designed as: regression variables = education assimilation adjustment others /descriptive defaults /dependent = assimilation.

2) Assessing the quality of how the data was measured and the collected

The two most common criteria to judge how the quality of data is measured are: reliability and validity. Reliability refers to the consistency of a measurement, which may measure a variable (such as educational level) very consistently under similar conditions. This measurement is considered reliable. Conversely, a measurement is regarded less reliable if it cannot consistently measure a variable under the same conditions. If a variable measures what it is supposed to measure, it will produce accurate results. Then the measurement is considered valid. The conclusion that a measurement has validity is a conclusion that it truly measures what it is supposed to measure and that it measures it accurately. Thus, valid measurement of variables produces data that, when statistically analyzed correctly, can generate valuable knowledge. Reliability and validity are closely related. If an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure, it is valid, and by definition, it must also be reliable. (Weinbach and Grinnell, 1995, p. 6,). Reliability and validity are not only considered the two major criteria for measurement, but also present the measurement characteristics of the instrument.

The conceptualization of the research question for this dissertation determined the selection of the most relevant variables, such as assimilation, adjustment , and education, for statistical measurement. Valid and reliable measurement tools embodied in programs like SPSS made it possible for statistics to summarize research findings accurately, to analyze the relationships that appeared to exist among variables, and to support the hypotheses, which labeled variables as either independent or dependent at the time the hypotheses were constructed. However, prior to statistical analysis using SPSS, it was necessary to make a determination in reference as to how precisely each variable would be

measured. Determination of the variable's level of measurement was crucial because it provided direction as to the type of statistical analyses that could be undertaken. Some variables, by their nature, cannot be precisely measured, while others can be measured precisely. For example, via the questionnaire, the variable educational level could be defined precisely by determining the number of years of formal education that an informant reached. Alternatively, measurement of the educational level could be as simple as asking a respondent for his/her highest level completed.

3) Levels of measurement

There are four levels of measurement a variable can take: (1) nominal, (2) ordinal, (3) interval, and (4) ratio (Weinbach and Grinnell, 1995, p. 10,). The first level is nominal measurement, which is the least precise level of measurement. Its values (i.e. categories) are discrete, or distinct, from each other. Nominal measurement is a system of classification that categorizes variables into subclasses. For example, the descriptive statistical analyses using SPSS applied to the data from the questionnaires of this research project should be mainly considered as a nominal measurement. Variables such as gender, occupation, marital status, and educational levels were treated as nominal variables in this dissertation research. A nominally measured variable must have at least two or more values, which should be distinct, mutually exclusive, and mutually exhaustive. That is, each respondent must appropriately answer only one of the values or categories, and there must be an appropriate category for each case. For example, there were only two classes of the nominal variable gender - male or female, as in the 14th question in the questionnaire (Appendix 3). These two categories were clearly exhaustive and mutually exclusive, as every respondent could be classified into either one of the categories (exhaustiveness) but only one (exclusiveness) unless a respondent is a unique hermaphrodite. Another example of a question in the questionnaire that would produce only nominal measurement is the 4th question quoted hereinafter:

4. If faculty, staff, or post-doctorate, circle which year of your position:

(1) 1st year, (2) 2nd year, (3) 3rd year, (4) 4th year, (5) 5th year

(6) More than 5 years (Please specify) _____

In nominal measurement, numbers or other symbols, such as English letters, are assigned for convenience and as merely value labels.

The second level of measurement is ordinal measurement, which implies that a variable not only takes on different values but also that the values have some distinct quantitative meaning. With ordinal measurement, it is possible to rank order the values that the variable assumes from high to low or from most to least. The following examples from the questionnaire (Appendix 3) produced ordinal measurement :

33. How do you evaluate your own English proficiency according to the following components (Please circle one number of each item):

<u>Items</u>	<u>Very good</u>	<u>Good</u>	<u>Fair</u>	<u>Poor</u>	<u>Very poor</u>
Grammar	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Writing	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Reading	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Listening	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Speaking	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Vocabulary	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Translation	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Technical terms	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

52. How does the post-secondary education in Canada affect your life?

| (1) Does not affect | (2) Somewhat affects | (3) Affects | (4) Well affects | (5) Affects significantly

53. What do you think about the degree(s) you obtained from China?

(You may circle more than one choice)

- (1) Very helpful for my registration in Canadian academic institutions;
- (2) Very useful for my advanced study and work in Canada
- (3) Not very useful for my study and job hunting in Canada
- (4) Totally useless

Value labels used with ordinal measurement make it possible to identify not only the differences between variable subclasses, but also their relative positions. In contrast, nominal measurement can only classify a variable into value categories that reflect simple differences in kind. It is important to note that ordinal value labels neither indicate absolute quantities nor assume equal intervals between them. For instance, the above 33rd question produced scales that ranked the English proficiency of a respondent according to a set of categories ranging from “Very good” to “very poor.” Since the proficiency does not necessarily represent equal intervals, it does not indicate that the difference between “Very good” and “Good” is the same as the difference between “Good” and “Fair.” The different values of an ordinal variable do not indicate either their absolute quantities or the exact distances that separate one category from another.

The third level of measurement is interval measurement. Like ordinal measurement, interval measurement also classifies and rank orders properties of variables; in addition, it places them on an equally spaced continuum. Unlike ordinal measurement, interval measurement has a uniform unit of measurement, such as one year, one degree of temperature and so on. With an interval level variable, a respondent can be judged to have “more” or “less” of a given property than another respondent. In addition, units can be specified exactly more or less. For example, the following question of the questionnaire (Appendix 3) would produce an interval level measurement:

5. You came to Canada in: (circle one only)

(1)198_ , (2)1988, (3)1989, (4)1990, (5)1991, (6)1992

The above example of the 5th question shows that interval measurement indicates how far the values of a variable are from one another. However, it does not indicate the absolute magnitude of a property possessed by any particular person or object. This is possible only with the 4th measurement - ratio measurement.

Ratio measurement can provide the most precise type of measurement. However, most of the data treated by SPSS for social work practice and educational research do not need the ratio level (Weinbach and Grinnell, p. 10, 1995). The existence of a fixed, absolute, and nonarbitrary zero point constitutes the only difference between interval and the ratio measurement. Therefore, numbers on a ratio scale indicate the actual amounts of the property being measured. With such a scale, it can judge that a respondent (object) has so many units more of a variable than a second respondent, but that the first respondent has so many times more or less of the variable. Examples of ratio measurement are birth, death, income in a family, and number of formal educational courses an informant takes over a certain period. The following questions of the questionnaire (Appendix 3) may produce ratio level measurement:

9. How many years of post-secondary education did you receive in China?

- (1) Two years (2) Three years (3) Four years
(4) Five years (5) Six years (6) More than six years _____ (specify)

70. What is your annual income?

- (1) Under \$10,000 (2) Between \$10,000 - \$15,000
(3) Between \$16,000 - \$20,000 (4) Between \$20,000 - \$30,000
(5) Between \$30,000 - \$40,000 (6) More than \$40,000

As explained in this subsection, the challenges were how to approach and treat the collected data, how to judge the data quality, how to measure the data, and how to determine the levels of measurement. The next major challenge was how to support and prove the designed model and hypotheses through statistical analyses. The next chapter will discuss the challenge with a discussion of the research results.

As Reid (1987) indicated, the practice of statistical research and analysis is not the collection and subjection of ready-made facts to neutral, scientific techniques of analysis. It is a social process in which the decisions, interests and values of all concerned in that process contribute to the appearance of the collected data in their final form (p. 29).

In general, various steps are needed in collecting data from the sample, although it is not necessary for all the steps to take place in this or any other particular order. First of all, decide what statistical information is needed. If the possible results of a survey are not useful, the results are not needed. Second, the universe must be defined so clearly that the scope of the survey can be decided. It is important to note that the universe can only be defined operationally in terms of a real frame or a combination of frames and in the manner of using these frames. Third, make a thorough investigation to see how much of the information that is needed is already available in published or unpublished reports. Aim to keep the survey as small as possible. Fourth, decide what type of survey could possibly provide the information that is desired, and do so at reasonable and affordable cost. Decide also the best frequency of coverage, and the best time for the survey. Fifth, lay plans for reducing the burdens of response, and for eliciting clear, intelligible information. Sixth, lay out roughly several alternative methods of survey to keep the survey small and well controlled. Meanwhile, decide the maximum allowable sampling error (2, 5, 25, or 50 percent). Seventh, pretest the questionnaire and instructions for the field-workers. If pretests show that the refusal rate is high, or that quality of the information is poor, the survey may well be abandoned or modified. Eighth, revise the questionnaire and finalize the sampling procedure. This is an attempt to meet the specifications finally decided upon,

so draw up the tabulation plans and other office-procedures for forming estimates and estimates of reliability that are part of the sample-design. Ninth, carry out the survey and the tabulations, and tenth, interpret and publish the results (Deming, 1950, pp. 4 - 9).

3.3.3. Computer Analysis in the Research Process

The entire process of completing this research project was streamlined with the aid of various computers and their programs. From the initial formation of the research question, through the preparation of the proposal, literature review, data collection, statistical analysis by SPSS, and completion of the dissertation writing with references in the correct academic format as requested, computers were extensively utilized.

In early 1993, the literature review was started, via computer databases like "On-line Public Access Catalogs", "Educational Resources Information Clearinghouse (ERIC)", and "Social Science Index(SSI)", in the Educational Resource Center, Law Library, and Mackimmie Library at the University of Calgary. With the help of these computer databases, a general browsing on various issues related to the June 4 scholars in Canada was narrowed to a few specific topics like historical background of the 1989 June 4 Tiananmen Square Incident, higher education, assimilation, and adjustment. The available abstracts of the references of these topics were first browsed and reviewed on the screen of the computer in the libraries. Then, the hard copies of selected references were borrowed for further and detailed review. During the process of the literature review, titles, author names, abstract of the references, and reading notes were entered into an Apple Macintosh computer by using a word processing software named McWrite II.

The word processor McWrite II is the upgraded version of the program developed by the Claris Corp. in the USA. This word-processing program provides powerful text-design features, including creating and editing text, formatting, and working with other documents and files. McWrite II has a document window for a user to create standard and professional-looking memos, reports, letters, text, and other documents. It is very

convenient to write in the document window with its menu bar, which contains titles like file, edit, font, size, style, format, spelling, and view. A user may easily choose commands by clicking the mouse in the menu bar or at other functions like ruler for adjustment of margins, tabs, line spacing, and text alignment.

An Apple Macintosh Classic II computer was used to run McWrite II at the early stage of this research for writing proposals, summary of literature review, and the draft of the questionnaire. Then, due to the limitation of the small monitor, low speed, and CD-ROM capacity of the Macintosh Classic II computer, an advanced PowerPC Macintosh 6500/250 and a Macintosh LC575 computer in the Education Technology Resource Center, University of Calgary, were used for word processing and data analysis. Both the 7500/100 and LC575 not only have larger color monitors, but they can also run McWrite II and SPSS at high speed. Another advance of the 7500/100 and LC575 is that they both are equipped with the software which can automatically convert data or any files from disks in the IBM format to Macintosh format. All these advantages increased efficiency.

Obviously, computers provided efficiency, convenience, and speed for the accomplishment of this research project. As an electronic tool, the computer has many tremendous advantages and effectively assisted in literature review, data collection, statistical analysis, and writing of this dissertation research. However, a computer does have its limitations. For example, some historical and current information cannot be found in the databases. It cannot hold interviews with informants, either. Another disadvantage is that a computer is not able to attend a conference like a human being to make a presentation or to join a panel discussion, even though a portable computer may be very handy for a person to make notes and use it as a tool for presentation at a conference. Thus, some other means were utilized for collecting data, references, and feedback.

Besides computers and the questionnaire, other information sources and technology like micro-fiche, micro-film, photocopiers, Internet, and Netscape Navigator were used to collect relevant references and data from university libraries, government departments,

electronic publications, World Wide Web (WWW) sites, and other resources. Interviewees and discussants at relevant conferences were also important sources of data for this research.

3.4. Limitations

The use of the questionnaire in this research is based on one basic, underlying assumption: The respondents will provide truthful answers. This means the respondents were willing and able to offer truthful answers. Consideration of this assumption is vital throughout this discussion. However, as Berdie and Anderson (1974) indicated, owing to the nature of questionnaires, it is difficult to check the reliability and validity of a questionnaire item. Other limitations like response rate and item independence may also negatively influence the accuracy of the results from this research (pp. 20,21, 22). The disadvantages of a questionnaire include the problems of low response rate, possibility of misinterpretation of questions, uncompleted replies, no measures to identify if the questionnaire is answered by a qualified informant or someone else, and no follow-through on misunderstood questions or missed answers, and no observation of apparent reluctance or evasiveness etc.

In a later stage of editing text and data files, the author found that McWrite II is limited in that is not able to merge text files and files containing graphics and tables created by SPSS and other software. The McWrite II cannot effectively do the spelling check, either. Thus, although it has several advantages, McWrite II seems not to be an ideal tool for this research. Better software, Microsoft Word (Version 6.0.1), was utilized to replace McWrite II. Besides its powerful word processing ability, the most useful functions of Microsoft Word are that it can create graphics, as well as tables within a text file. However, the process of converting all McWriteII and SPSS files to Microsoft Word files was very time consuming; thus this study was limited to a shorter period.

Other limitations that restrict this study include gender issues and the survey scope. For example, The design of the questionnaire did not include enough items for female respondents because the designer merely wanted to focus on the majority of the samples - males. Since two thirds of respondents and interviewees are males, there is no sufficient feedback from females for specific data analysis either regarding those females' assimilation and adjustment. Another reason is that traditionally men speak out for the family. Although the survey scope of this research covers most of the major Canadian urban centers where the majority of qualified respondents and interviewees reside, the questionnaires were distributed mainly on university campuses. Thus, those qualified samples who are no longer on campus may have had no chance to fill in the questionnaires. Consequently, the validity of the survey results may be affected. Thus, the opinions of those who have entered into the mainstream society may not be reflected from the results of the survey.

One more limitation is the number of respondents. If this research could obtain 300 filled questionnaires, the results from data analysis would be more accurate even though a minimum of 100 samples are enough for this kind of survey.

Chapter 4. Results and Discussions

This chapter contains the results and discussions of the research project. There are two sections in this chapter: 1) Descriptive analysis of the sample - an overview of the basic data is presented in tables and figures with necessary explanations and additional information from interviews and conference panel discussions; and 2) Further discussion on the measurement of data, findings, SPSS analysis, and other significant findings from the logistic regression.

In the process of descriptive analysis and further discussion, this chapter also presents the author's opinions in light of this study. The implications and findings of this study may lead further research, which may overcome the existing limitations to achieve more significant results for further academic practice and applied settings.

4.1. Descriptive Analysis of the Sample

This section presents a descriptive analysis of the sample based on the research questionnaire. According to the classification of the sub-questions, the descriptive analysis is divided into three categories: 1) Demographic and factual questions: summary and brief explanation of educational background and levels; 2) Questions about assimilation: viewpoints of language, culture, custom, and diet; and 3) Questions about personal adjustment: issues of motivation, orientation, and future intention.

4.1.1. Demographic and Factual Questions

In this subsection, the descriptive analysis is presented in figures and tables with selected demographic and factual data, which are mainly collected by questions 1-29 in the questionnaire. These questions are related to the respondents' educational background, English levels, gender, and social status, etc.

Figure 3: Present Status of Chinese Scholars in Canada - Q6

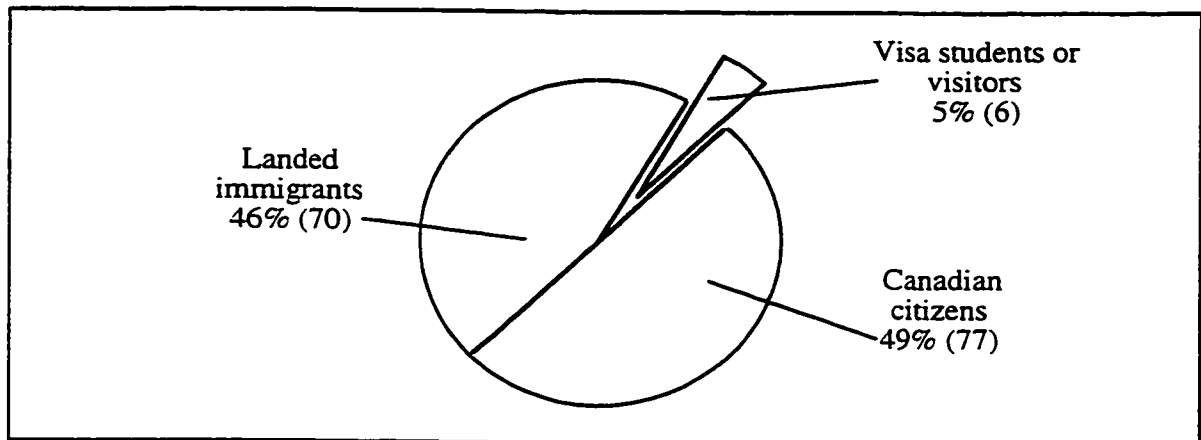


Figure 3 indicates that among the 153 respondents, the majority are either Canadian citizens or landed immigrants. Only 6 people out of 153, i.e., 5% of the total, still hold student or visitor visas. Three years after they lived in Canada as landed immigrants, approximately half of them applied for Canadian citizenship for two major advantages: 1) More and better job opportunities in Canada, USA, and other countries; 2) Convenience for extensive travel around the world, except China, as Canadian passport holders. Those who have obtained Canadian landed immigrant status, but have not applied for Canadian citizenship, have mainly two considerations: 1) They still want to utilize their valid Chinese passports for convenient travel between Canada and China; 2) They plan an eventual return to China to live and work as Chinese citizens. According to Figure 4 which follows, 95.4% of the respondents received more than three years of higher education; 68.6 % of the respondents studied in higher educational institutions for at least five years. This means that a majority had education above a bachelor's level before they came to Canada. However, their education gained them little beyond respected social status, because in China a degree did not guarantee an admired income or a quality of academic or research environment they needed. Hence, in order to improve their own social status and to make China and themselves stronger, they left China for Canada to pursue advanced studies and research.

Figure 4: Years of Higher Education Received in China - Q9

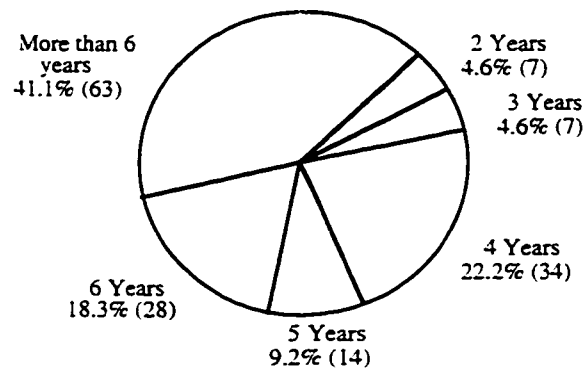


Figure 4 indicates that more than 90% of the respondents obtained at least four years of post-secondary education prior to their arrival in Canada. The remaining 10% may not have obtained any degrees, but diplomas or certificates, having only two to three years of higher education. Those who attended universities for four to five years may have earned their bachelor's degrees, while those who formally studied in excess of six years may have obtained master's or doctoral degrees. The above analysis is supported by Figure 5 and by notes from interviews.

The following Figure 5 indicates that 28 Respondents (18.2%) obtained doctorate degrees in China, 56 (36.4%) had master's degrees, and the remaining 69 respondents (45.4%) had bachelor's degrees. According to Figure 5, the majority of the respondents came to Canada to pursue higher degrees. However, a few interviewees indicated that they had not obtained any degrees in China due to various personal or political reasons. For example, because of the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution (GPCR) between 1966 and 1976, they had no chance to obtain any degrees in universities. The regulations for degree examinations in Chinese higher educational system were scrapped during the period of GPCR. Those regulations were not restored until 1982.

Figure 5: Highest Degrees Obtained in China - Q10

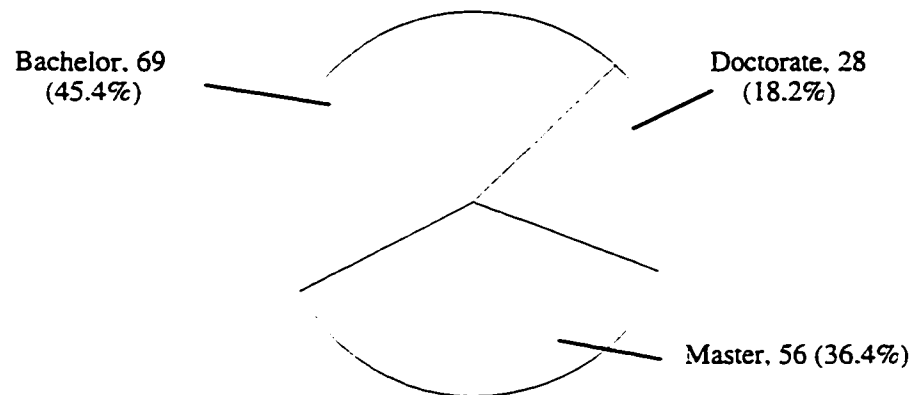


Figure 6: Gender of Respondents - Q14

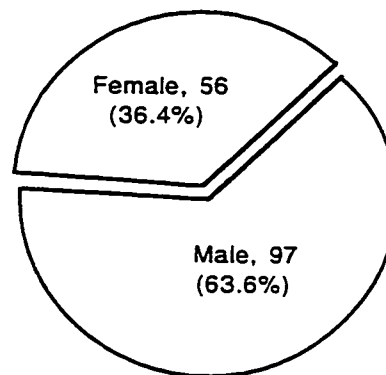
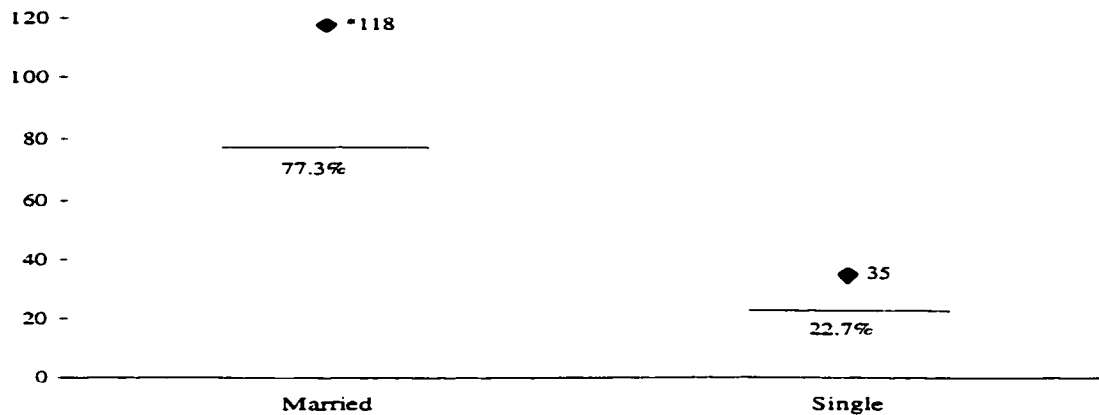
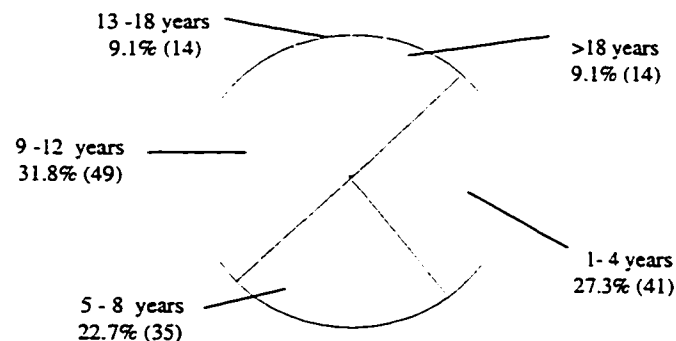


Figure 6 indicates that almost two third of the respondents are male, about 1 third are female. The author believes that this figure reflects the actual percentage of genders among Chinese scholars in Canada, China, and other countries. In China, especially in rural areas, male students always outnumber female students in any level of school due to traditional and social reasons. In the fields of science and technology in most Chinese universities, research institutions, and applying industries, male intellectuals outnumber female intellectuals, too. However, according to Zhao (1997), the number of female Chinese intellectuals is increasing (pp. 26 -27).

Figure 7: Marital Status - Q24

* Total: 153 respondents = (118 married + 35 single)

In addition to those 35 singles of the 153 respondents in Figure 7, the author learned from interviews that some single Chinese scholars got married previously, but were divorced or separated after they came to Canada. A few of Chinese female scholars married Canadian men, and a few Chinese male scholars married oriental female immigrants from other countries. However, according to the questionnaires and interviews, most of the Chinese scholars had been married before they came to Canada, and their original marriage is intact, although there are some cracks in their family life due to various reasons such as spouses' different opinions in educating their children, conflict among spouses on money and emotional issues etc.

Figure 8: Years of English Language Study before Arriving in Canada - Q29

In addition to Figure 8, interviews indicated that the majority of Chinese scholars began learning English while they attended junior high schools in China. A few started as early as grade 4 or 5 in major urban centers like Beijing, Shanghai, Nanjing, and Wuhan. However, most of them set up their English foundation during the 10 years between junior high school and university. They all kept English studies after their undergraduate and graduate studies in China. Before they came to Canada, many even had the opportunity to further improve their English proficiency by attending advanced language training classes, which were sponsored by either the Chinese government or individual Chinese higher institutions. For these training classes, native teachers from English speaking countries like UK, USA, Canada, and Australia were invited to give lectures to the attendees who would research or study abroad.

4.1.2. Questions about Assimilation

With the focus on the research questions related to assimilation, this subsection presents the results of the descriptive analysis and explores the collected data for examining the tenability of the respective hypotheses. With the focus on cultural assimilation, descriptive data about language, culture, the role of education, social relations, and custom are presented by the following tables and figures.

Figure 9: TOEFL Scores - Q30

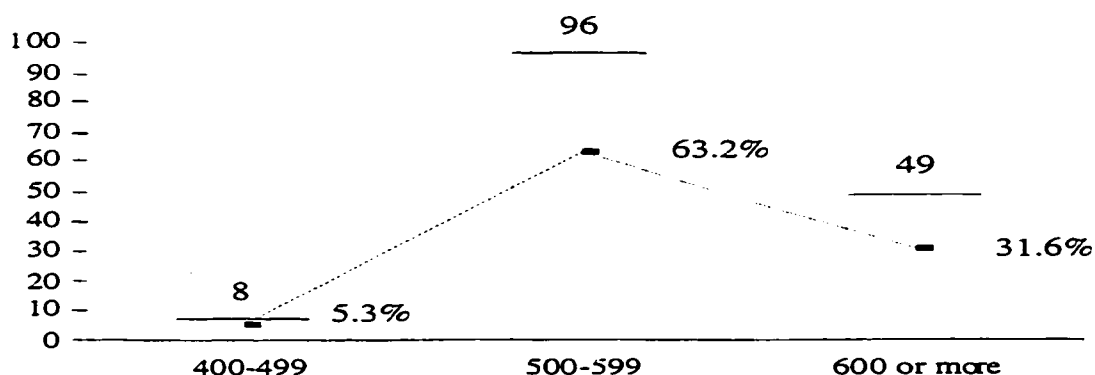
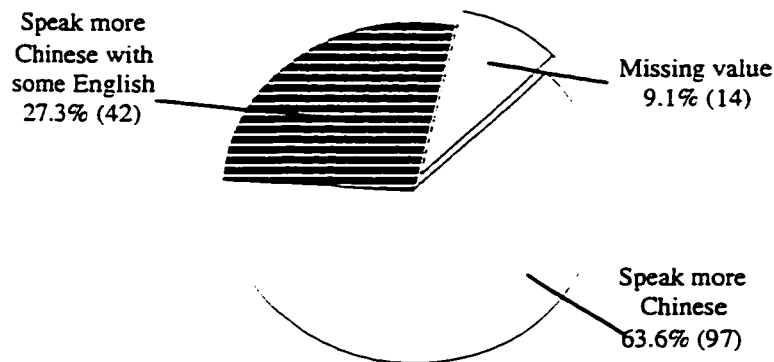


Table 7 further indicates that the English proficiency of most of the respondents is above the “good” level. Between 45.5% - 68.2% assumed that they are “good” at English grammar, writing, reading, listening, speaking, vocabulary, translation, and technical terms. 40.9% believed that their English grammar is very good, 18.2% thought that they are “very good” at English writing, listening, speaking, and technical term. 9.1% considered that they are very good at translation and vocabulary. Only 4.5% realized that they were poor in English writing, and 9.1 % thought that they were poor in English translation and technical terms. By comparing the above Table 7 and Figure 9, one can find that the data in the two figures support each other.

Figure 10: Do you speak more English or Chinese at home? - Q32



According to Figure 10, most of the respondents speak Chinese at home, however, they have to speak more English gradually because their descendants who grow up in Canada prefer to listen to and speak English at home as they do at school with other students and teachers. Some of their descendants may still keep learning Chinese as required by their parents, but, because their major language of communication now is English in Canadian society, they treat Chinese as their second language, especially those younger children who started their schooling in Canada.

Figure 11: Do you speak more English or Chinese on campus ? - Q34

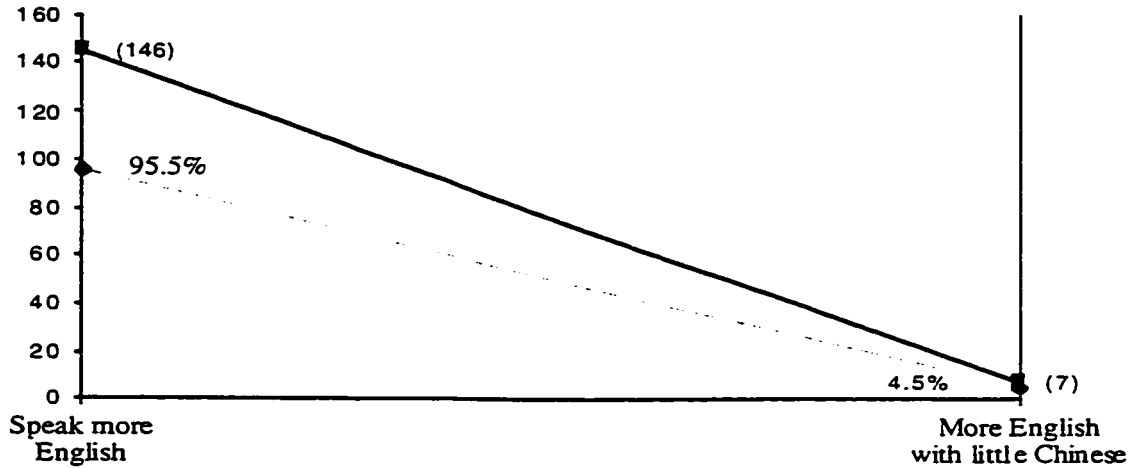
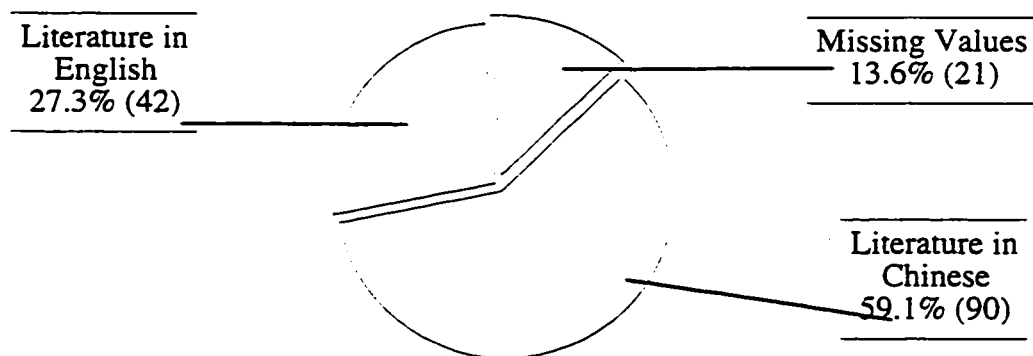


Figure 11 clearly indicates that the majority, 95.5 % speak more English than Chinese on campus because of the English language environment. However, according to the interview notes, if two Chinese scholars converse on campus when no other non-Chinese join the conversation, they prefer to speak Chinese, usually including a few English words or expressions.

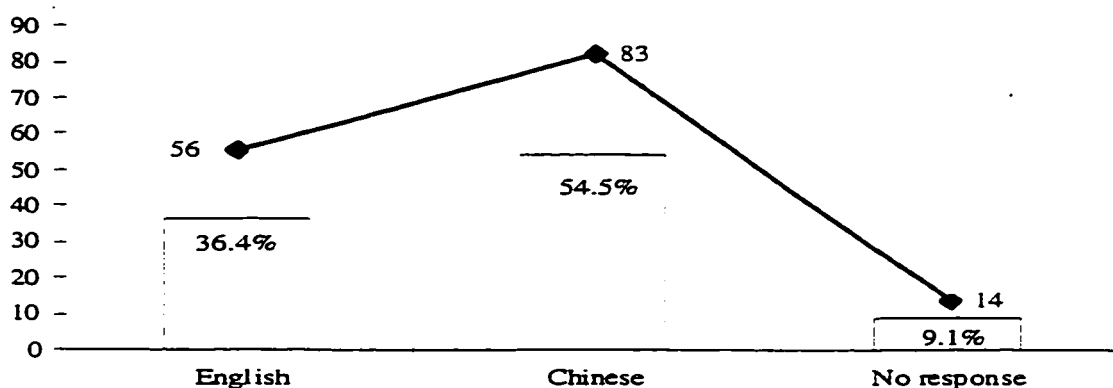
Figure 12: Which literature do you prefer to read, English or Chinese? - Q35



However, though most of them speak predominately English on campus as indicated by Figure 12, more than half, i.e., 59.1 % enjoy reading Chinese more than English. The majority of the interviewees also expressed that they preferred to read

Chinese literature. Their reasons have been summarized as: 1) Unfamiliar words and expressions in English literature prevented them from obtaining a thorough understanding; 2) the cultures and customs expressed in English literature often made them feel confused or uninterested, and occasionally uncomfortable; 3) they were easily touched by well-written Chinese literature, more likely to arouse their emotional responses, remind them of a happy or bitter past in China, and create concern about what happens in their former homeland; and 4) Chinese literature enables them to enjoy the culturally dependent humor, that often constitutes a comedy.

Figure 13: Which do you enjoy more, English or Chinese movies? - Q36



By comparing Figures 13 and 14, one may notice that 54.5% of the respondents enjoy Chinese movies more than English ones, while 81.8% of them watch more English television programs than Chinese ones. It seems contradictory that, among the same group of 153 respondents, more of them like to spend their time watching English television, but enjoy English movies less than Chinese films. However, according to interview notes and observed phenomena, the data in Figures 13 and 14 are not really contradictory, but may be explained by the following facts: 1) Most of the Chinese scholars and their family members do not spend their money on either English or Chinese movies in public cinemas, but, as local CSSA members, they may attend Chinese movies, free courtesy of the Chinese Embassy or the Consulate General in Canada. The Taipei Economic and Cultural

Offices in Canada also provide free Chinese movies upon request. These are usually shown on university campuses across Canada during Chinese holidays or weekends. 2) All the Chinese scholars in Canada have easier access to English TV than to Chinese television programs, which are only available via an expensive satellite system or cable channels in a few Canadian urban centers like Toronto, Vancouver, Ottawa, Montreal, and Calgary. 3) By receiving free English broadcasting at home, the Chinese scholars may not only watch daily national and international news, but may also enjoy English movies, and, incidentally, improve their ability to converse correctly in English.

Figure 14: Do you watch more TV programs in English or in Chinese ? - Q37

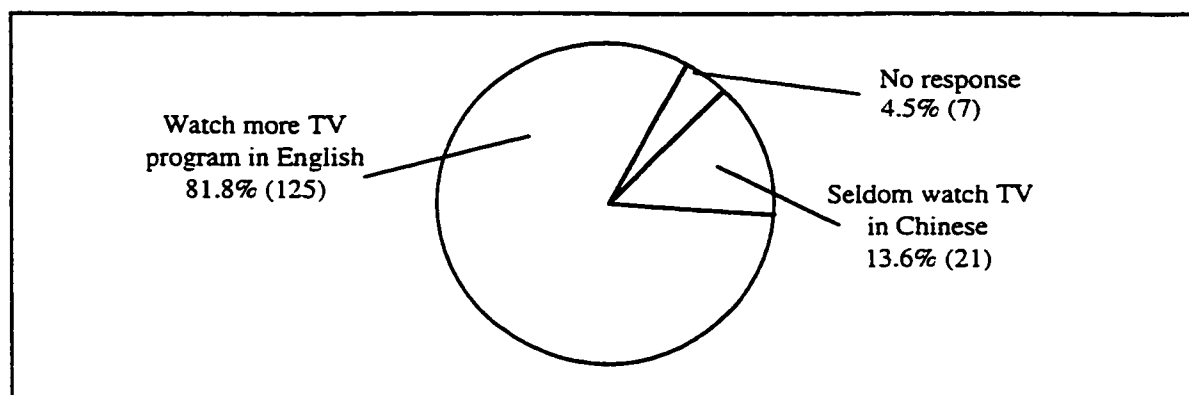
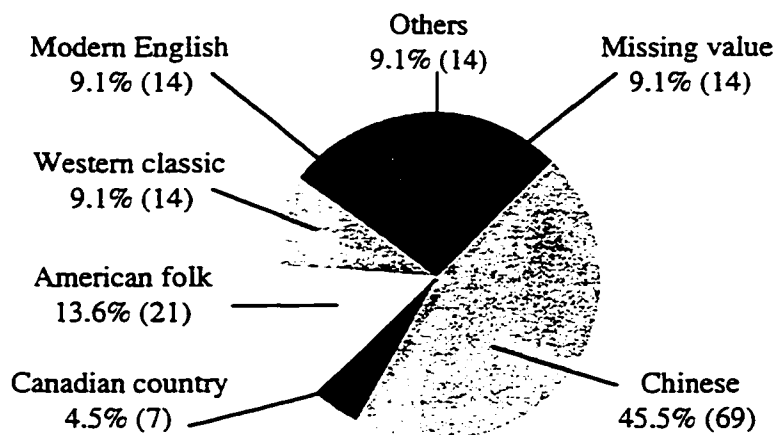


Figure 15: Which kind of music do you enjoy more? - Q38



As Figure 15 indicates, it is interesting to notice that 45.4% (4.5% + 13.6% + 9.1% + 9.1% + 9.1%) of respondents prefer non-Chinese music. This total percentage is almost identical to those who predominantly enjoy Chinese music. From the perspective of cultural assimilation, half of the respondents are strongly influenced by non-Chinese music. The author may also state that quality foreign music is accepted by some people of differing cultural backgrounds, but not by all.

Table 8: Reasons of Subscribing to an English Periodical - Q40

REASONS	PERCENTAGE	NUMBERS
To be familiar with local news	40.9	62
To improve English reading skills	9.1	14
To know international news	18.2	28
To know what are on sale in markets	4.5	7
Other reasons specified	9.1	14
No response	18.2	28
Total	100	153

Among the 14 respondents who specified “other reasons” in Table 8, two indicated that they wanted to read original English stories on a regular basis; five mentioned that it was their hobby or interest in reading English Journals like Time and Readers’ Digest as they read them in China, and seven stated that they subscribed to professional English journals to keep abreast of the trends and latest knowledge in their own professional fields.

Those 28 respondents who did not respond to Question 40 may not subscribe to any English journals due to the following three major reasons: 1) They were not interested in reading any English journals; 2) They might read them in libraries, or 3) They might borrow them from libraries or an individual.

According to Table 8, most of the respondents subscribed to English journals not for improving their reading skills, but for obtaining local and international news, or professional information. In other words, by subscribing to English journals, they opened windows for observing the mainstream society and the outside world. They might feel that English journals allow them to feel less isolated in Canada, and they realized the importance of keeping informed in a fast developing society where the world is becoming a global village via modern communications.

Figure 16: Do you read both English and Chinese journals? - Q41

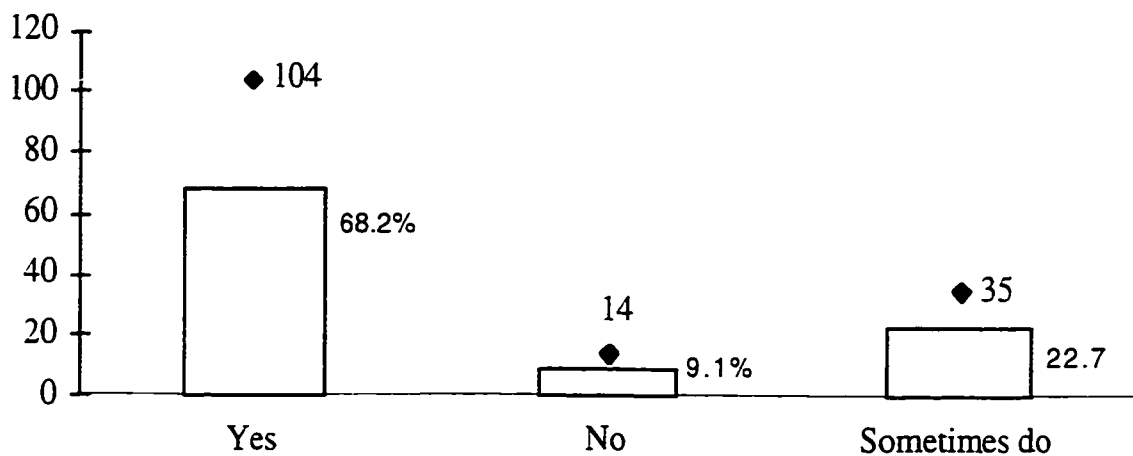
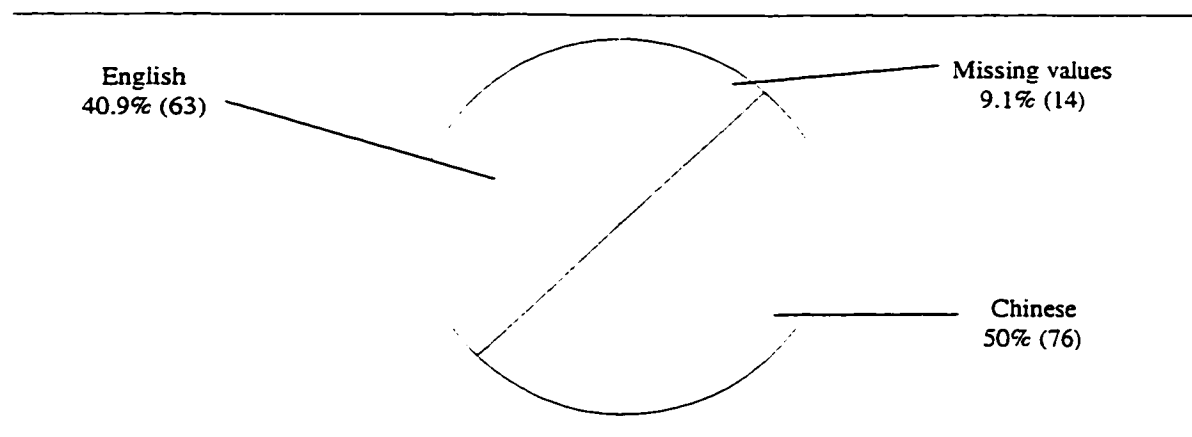


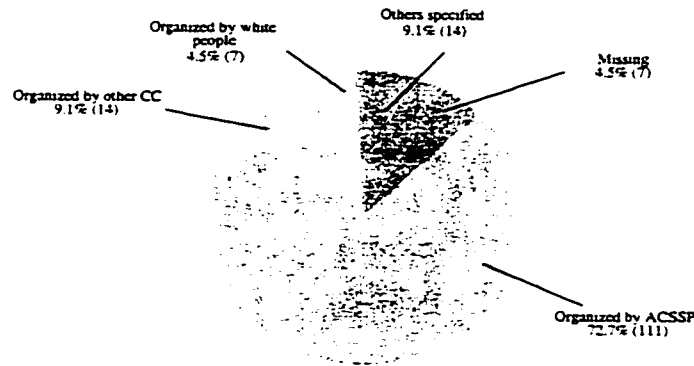
Figure 16 indicates that totally 153 respondents replied to Question 41, more than half of them read both English and Chinese journals. However, their purposes for reading are different. According to the analysis in Figure 12, they read Chinese literature or journals to seek spiritual entertainment or sustenance in their original culture. On the other hand, as Table 8 indicates, they read English mainly for obtaining news and various information. In addition, the following Table 9 not only supports the analysis in Figure 12, but also indicates that at least one third of the respondents showed their concern for what happens in China by reading Chinese journals, from which they are able to obtain direct Chinese information directly.

Table 9: Why do you read Chinese journals in Canada? - Q42

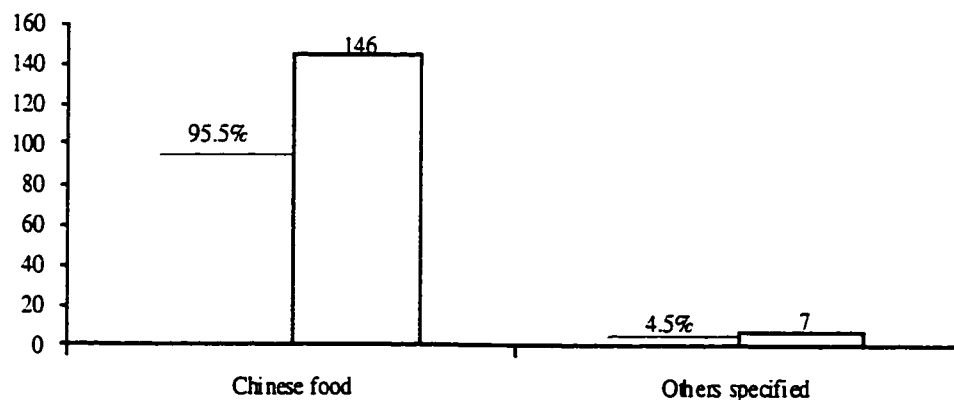
Responses	%	No
Concern with what happens in China	31.8	49
To read for personal interests	27.3	42
To enjoy Chinese literature	9.1	14
Spend leisure time	9.1	14
No response	22.7	34
Total	100	153

Figure 17 : What art programs do you enjoy more? - Q43

As Figure 17 indicates, 50% of the respondents still prefer Chinese art programs, 40.9% enjoy English art programs, while 9.1% did not reply. From the perspective of cultural influence, nearly half of the respondents enjoy English art programs, via which, western culture may have affected the thinking and behavior of those respondents.

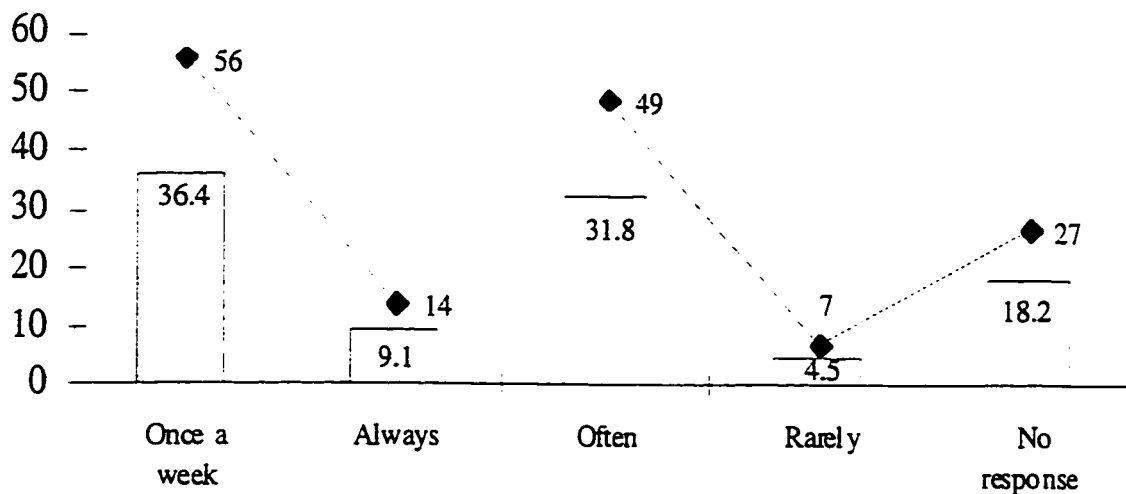
Figure 18: Preferred community activities - Q45

According to Figure 18 and interview notes, most respondents and interviewees prefer joining social activities organized by local Associations of Chinese Students, Scholars, and Professionals (CSSP). These activities include free movies, dance parties, annual celebrations of PRC's National Day and the Spring Festivals, as well as sports and games like table tennis, basketball, chess, and card playing etc. Sometimes they also joined other Chinese communities' (CC) activities like the Mid-Autumn Festival, the dragon boat race, competitions of Chinese handwriting and singing etc. A small number of the respondents and interviewees were also interested in joining the activities organized by white people and other ethnic groups. These activities include Canada Day, Christmas chorus, BBQ parties, Stampede, and some multi-cultural festivals.

Figure 19: Favorite food - Q46

Obviously, Figure 19 indicates that most of respondents preferred Chinese food. The other favorite food specified by those seven respondents included French cuisine, Japanese sushi, Italian pizza, Kentucky Fried Chickens, and McDonald hamburgers. The author does not consider that few respondents who like these non-Chinese food are in the process of diet assimilation. However, the author believes that more and more Chinese will not limit their diets to only traditional Chinese food. With the improvement of their family income and the influence of the outside world, the Chinese immigrants will gradually accept increasing varieties of non-Chinese food, whether they are in China or abroad. As the tempo of life and work in contemporary societies speeds up, the contents of urban Chinese people's daily diet are changing, although the change may not be obvious or significant.

Figure 20: How often do you visit Chinatown ? - Q47-5



As indicated by Figure 20, most of the respondents, 77.3%, often visit Chinatowns in Canada, only 4.5 % of them rarely go to Chinatown, and 18.2% did not respond to the question. By referring to relevant interview notes, the author considers that the reasons for those who rarely went to Chinatown or did not respond would be: 1) They lived too far away from Chinatown; 2) There are no Chinatowns in the smaller cities surveyed such as

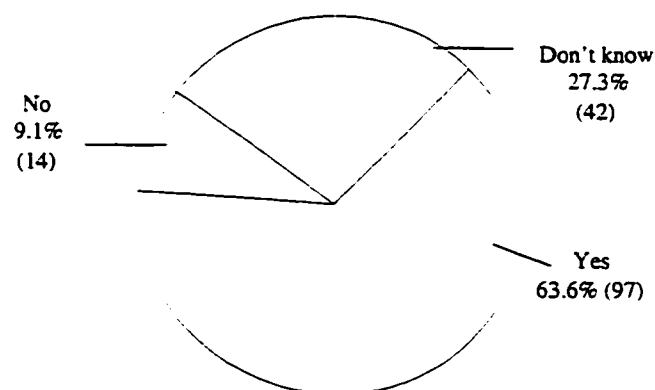
Regina and Lethbridge; 3) They did not feel it necessary or convenient to go shopping or dining in Chinatown; 4) They disliked Chinatown's old oriental atmosphere, which reminded them of the backward China decades ago; and 5) They did not feel comfortable in Chinatown, where often Cantonese or Taishan is spoken, not English or Mandarin.

Table 10: Reasons of Pursuing Higher Education in Canada - Q48

REASONS	%	No
To get a Master &/or Doctorate degree(s)	36.4	56
For personal improvement & academic interest	22.7	35
To gain respect & recognition in Canadian society	4.5	7
To be qualified for professional jobs in China	4.5	7
Other reasons specified	13.6	21
No response	18.2	27
Total	100	153

Table 10 indicates that the majority of respondents pursued higher education in Canada for additional degrees or personal improvement and academic interests. Only 4.5% sought Canadian higher education institutions to qualify for professional jobs in China. Those who did not respond might come to Canada for research or other jobs, but not for pursuing degrees. Other reasons specified included: 1) for social status improvement in Canada; 2) for increased economic income; and 3) to prolong their stay in Canada as long as possible. The interview notes stated that most of the Chinese interviewees' motivation for pursuing higher degrees was based on the desire for a better material and spiritual life, which was also sought by most of the respondents as reflected by Table 10.

Figure 21: Do you think that your higher education assisted you in your personal adjustment in Canada? - Q49



As Figure 21 indicates, two thirds of the respondents considered that the higher education they had received was helpful for their personal adjustment in Canada. One third was negative about the role of higher education. Few interviewees shared their negative opinions. They claimed: 1) They did not complete their higher education because they were not sure if it could help them find a good job; 2) Their personal adjustment did not necessarily depend on higher education, because their social connections, previous working experience, language ability, and life philosophy played an important role to their adjustment in a comprehensive process.

Figure 22: Has higher education strengthened your personal value in Canada? - Q50

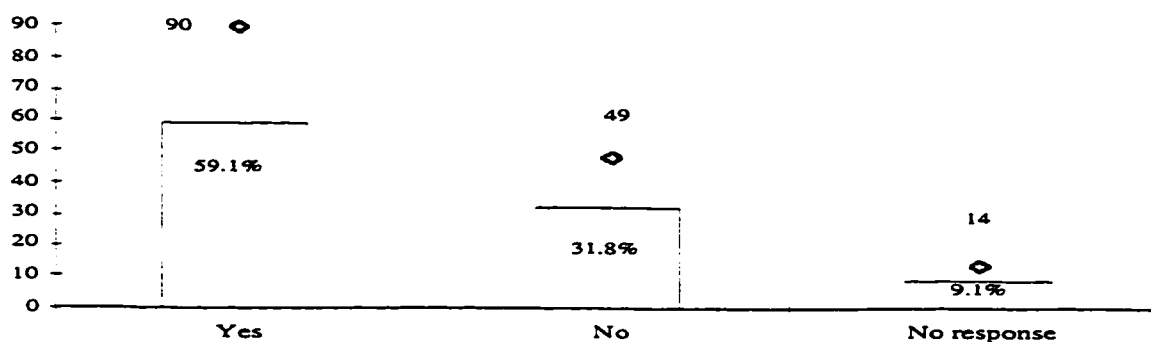
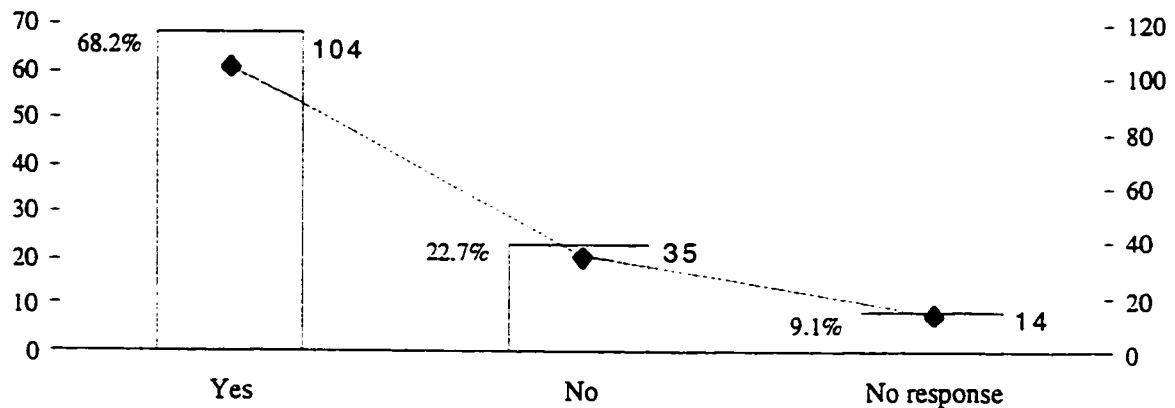


Figure 22 indicates that more than half of the respondents believed that their personal values were strengthened by receiving higher education. However, those who expressed “No” or did not respond might consider that their higher education did not really improve their financial situation or social status. Comparing those rich people who did not receive any schooling, they felt that their personal values were not related to higher education. More important was their grasp of opportunity and personal adjustment in a competitive society, especially that of a foreign nature. Well educated personalities might not be valued in an aggressive society.

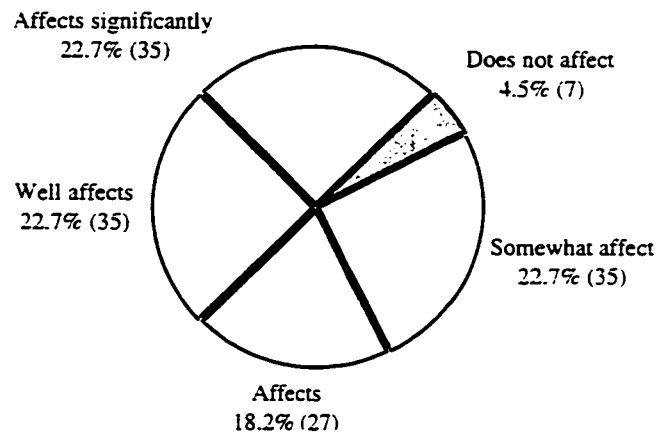
Figure 23: Has the education in Canada provided you with an opportunity to stay ? - Q51



Note: $104 + 35 + 14 = 153$ respondents (Figure 23, Question 51)

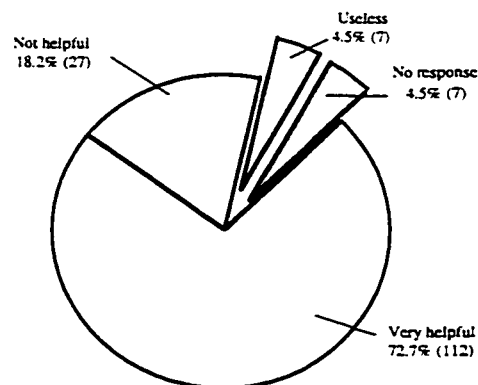
Some interviewees mentioned that they believe the June 4 Incident was instrumental in providing an opportunity for them to stay permanently in Canada. Had the incident not happened, they may not otherwise have been granted permission to stay, even though they completed post-secondary education in Canada. The author assumed that those interviewees' opinions might be shared by those who did not respond or replied with “No” in Figure 23.

Figure 24: How has the post-secondary education in Canada affected your life? - Q52



According to Figure 24, 95.5 % of the respondents admitted that the post-secondary education affected their life from the level of “somehow” to “significantly.” Only 4.5% expressed a negative reply. Four point five per cent may belong to a group of scholars who came to Canada, not for pursuing higher degrees, but for research or other professional jobs. They might consider that their life was affected by the skills and knowledge they obtained from China, but not by the post-secondary education in Canada.

Figure 25: What do you think about your previously obtained degree(s) from China? - Q53



As the above Figures 25 and the following Figures 26 and 27 indicate, most of the respondents considered that their higher education in both China and Canada was helpful, in approximately one third of the cases it was not.

Figure 26: What do you think about your degree(s) obtained in Canada? - Q54

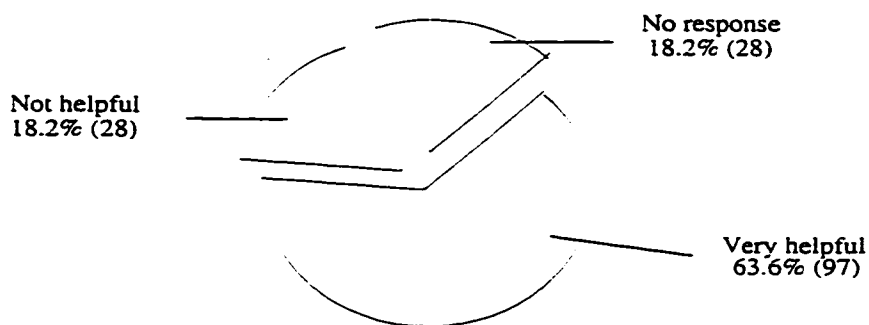


Figure 27: Is the knowledge you have obtained from Canadian universities helpful? Q-55

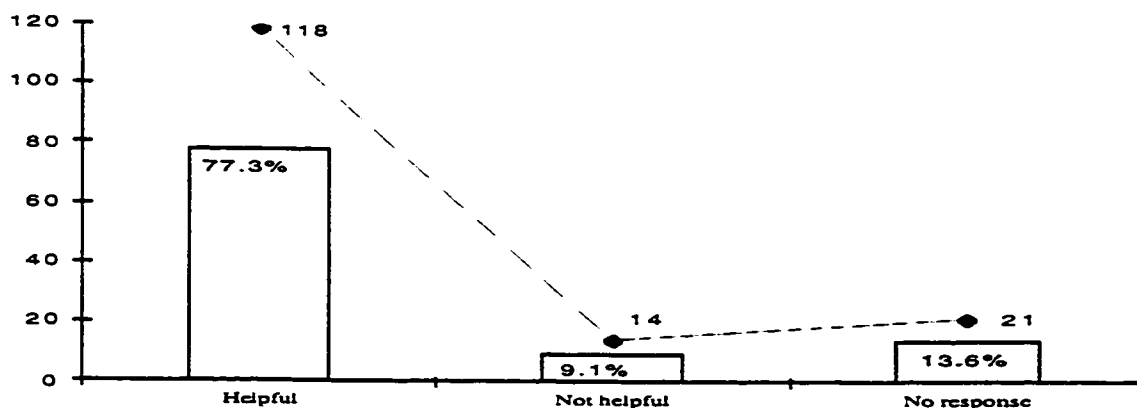


Table 11: Has your job training in Canada been helpful? Q - 56

REPLY	%	NUMBER
Very helpful	54.5	83
Not helpful	13.6	21
No response	31.8	49
Total	100	153

Table 11 indicates that 54.5% thought their job training in Canada was helpful. Their reasons could be: 1) The training assisted them in finding suitable jobs after their graduation from Canadian universities; 2) The job training was part of their research or academic programs, which not only enabled them to complete their research or studies, but also linked them to the job market in mainstream Canadian society. The reasons for those who did not respond or considered their job training not helpful could be summarized as: 1) Their job training was not properly arranged; 2) The training did not meet the need of the job market, 3) The job market in Canada was still influenced by the economic depression, and 4) They had not received any job training in Canada.

Table 12: What types of extra course(s) have you taken? - Q58

EXTRA COURSES	%	NO
ESL	31.8	49
Computer knowledge	13.6	21
Driving lessons	18.2	27
No response	36.4	56
Total	100	153

Tables 11 and 12 show that the majority took extra practical courses to make life easier in Canada. Most of the interviewees also confirmed that they needed to improve their English by taking ESL courses, and increase or acquire computer knowledge for survival in both the academic world and the job market. Many of them did not know formerly how to drive. Thus, driving lessons became a necessity for convenient transportation, though some learned to drive from friends or spouses. Those who did not respond to Question 58 might not have taken any extra courses as those indicated by Table 12.

Table 13: Reasons of taking courses - Q59

REASONS	%	NO
For a suitable job	4.5	7
For an easier life	45.5	70
For fun or interests	18.2	27
No response	31.8	49
Total	100	153

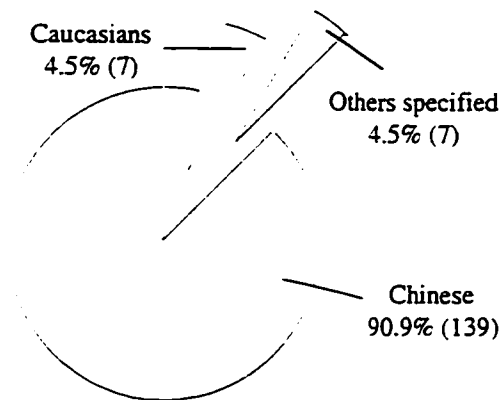
Figure 28: Major friends in Canada - Q64

Figure 28 indicates clearly that most of respondents' close friends are also Chinese. Besides the small portion of the 4.5% which consist of Caucasians, the other specified 4.5% include three Vietnamese, two Arabians, and two Japanese. Most interviewees also said that their close friends were Chinese.

Table 14: Which education made it possible for you to enter the mainstream society ? - Q63

Influence of education for entering Canadian society	%	No.
Formal education obtained in China	22.7	36
Formal education obtained in Canada	40.9	63
Non-formal education in Canada	18.2	27
No response	18.2	27
Total	100	153

According to Table 14, the combination of formal education in both China and Canada was a major factor for those respondents to enter Canadian mainstream society, while non-formal education in Canada provided additional help in the process of assimilation and adjustment.

Table 15: Why stay closer with the Chinese community? - Q65

Reasons	%	No.
It is not easy to adjust myself into Canadian mainstream society	9.1	14
Feel more comfortable and confident to deal with Chinese	45.5	70
Maintain Chinese heritage and personal characteristics	27.3	42
No response	18.2	27
Total	100	153

Table 15 indicates that only 9.1% of the respondents preferred to stay closer to Chinese community, fearing a difficult personal adjustment into mainstream Canadian society. Instead of dealing with other ethnic people, 45.5% of them felt more comfortable and confident interacting with Chinese. Twenty-seven point three per cent wanted to

maintain their Chinese heritage by staying closer to Chinese community. The 18.2% of those who did not respond indicated that they did not wish to retain strong ties with the Chinese community. However, as the following Table 16 indicates, the 72.7% of those who did not respond to the question suggested that they did want to continue close affiliation with the Chinese community. Interestingly, in Table 16 the percentage of those who assumed an easy adjustment was the same (9.1%) in Table 15, indicating those who anticipated a difficult adjustment. 13.6% of the respondents prefer keeping away from other Chinese in order to integrate with mainstream Canadian culture. Four point five per cent of the respondents felt more comfortable and confident dealing with non-Chinese due to their previous possibly unpleasant experiences dealing with their fellow Chinese.

Table 16: Why do you prefer not to stay closer with the Chinese? - Q66

Reasons	%	No
Easier to adjust to mainstream Canadian society	9.1	14
More comfortable & confident dealing with non-Chinese	4.5	7
Want to become familiar with mainstream culture	13.6	21
No response	72.7	111
Total	100	153

Tables 15 and 16 also imply that since most of the respondents prefer maintaining close ties to the Chinese community, their assimilation into Canadian mainstream society could be more difficult and will take more time than for those who broaden their associations among other communities in Canada. Those who enclose themselves in their own ethnic circle, protecting their own cultural heritage, will not become completely assimilated, though partial assimilation may occur simply because they are in Canada. However, strong ethnic identities and rejection of change are also likely to prevent further integration in the future.

Table 17: Major Reasons of Returning to China - Q67

Reasons	%	No
Miss Chinese culture	13.6	21
Miss friends and relatives there	40.9	63
Feel more comfortable	18.2	27
No response	27.3	42
Total	100	153

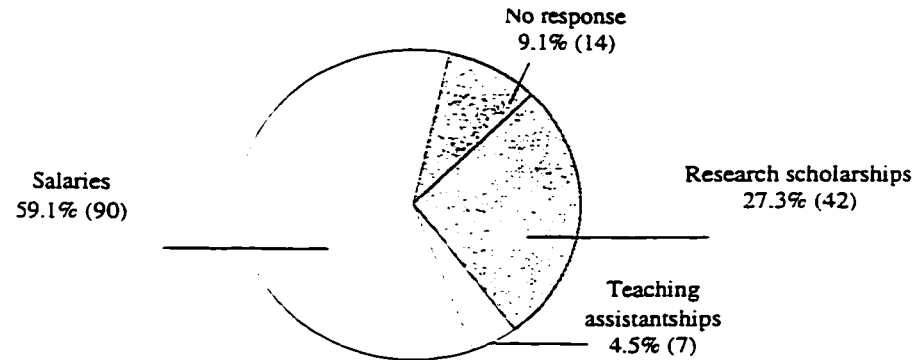
According to Table 17, it seems that culture, social contact, kin and native environment are the major reasons attracting most of the respondents back to China. An old Chinese proverb says, "Fallen leaves return to the roots." Many Chinese scholars would eventually like to return to their hometown when they consider the time is right. Those 27.3% who did not respond might not want to return to China permanently for various reasons; however, they might still want to visit China and reminisce over their old days there whenever they have a chance.

Table 18: Degrees of adjustment if going back China - Q68

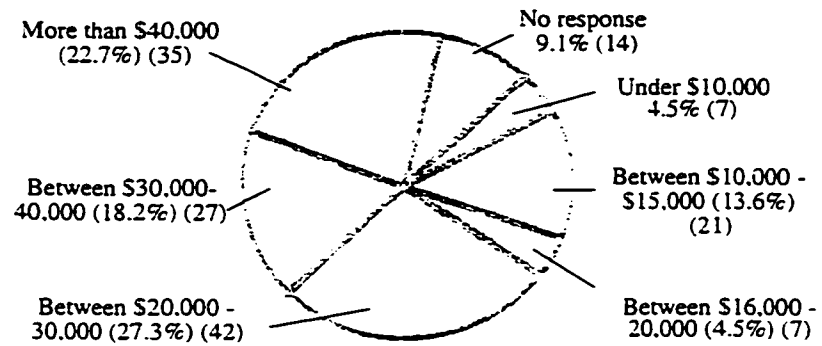
Degrees of adjustment	%	No
Don't have to adjust	9.1	14
Not really necessary	4.5	7
Somewhat	31.8	48
Adjust	27.3	42
Adjust a lot	22.7	35
No response	4.5	7
Total	100	153

Table 18 indicates that if those survey respondents return to China, 81.8% of them would require various degrees of adjustment in order to re-integrate themselves within their home country. This means that not only have changes taken place in China, but the respondents themselves have also changed in the process of their assimilation after they came to Canada. Those respondents (27.3%) who indicated that they needed to adjust themselves a lot may have been assimilated to a higher degree in Canada. The more they have been Canadianized, the more adjustment they would have to make in China because of the significant difference in cultural and social environment between the two countries.

Figure 29: Major income in Canada - Q69



According to Figure 29, those who obtained salaries or teaching assistantships have proven that they are able to support themselves independently by joining the work force in Canada. Only those 14 respondents (9.1%) who did not respond may have had no income when they filled out this questionnaire. They may depend on their spouses' support or are temporarily surviving on their own savings. As the the following Figure 31 indicate, less than 5% of respondents received some financial aid from their relatives in Canada or China, 95% of them are self-reliant. The following Figure 30 and Table 21 also show that most of respondents have sufficient income to satisfy their basic needs in Canada.

Figure 30: Annual Income - Q70Table 19: Annual Income of Spouse - Q71

INCOME OF SPOUSE	%	NO
under \$10,000	13.7	21
Between \$10,000 - \$15,000	4.5	7
Between \$16,000 - \$20,000	22	34
Between 20,000 - 30,000	22.7	35
Between 30,000 - 40,000	9.2	14
more than 40,000	18.2	27
No response	9.7	15
Total	100	153

Questions 70 and 71 listed six levels of income from under \$10,000 to more than \$40,000. According to the descriptive analysis presented by Figure 30 and Tables 19, the total annual income of 153 respondents and their spouses can be classified in the following Table 20: 31.7 % have less than \$20,000 in annual income, 38.5 % have annual incomes between \$20,000 - \$40,000, and 20.3% have more than \$40,000 annual income, not including those who didn't respond. As following Table 20 indicates, 35 respondents have an income greater than \$40,000, of those, 27 spouses also earn upwards of \$40,000. Such

families are economically far above average among both Canadians and Chinese. 61% of the polled Chinese scholars have an average annual income between \$10,000 - \$40,000 with both spouses working.

Table 20: Combined Annual Income Levels of Respondents and Their Spouses

Income Levels	%	Number of Respondents		
		Table 19	Figure 30	Sum
Under \$10,000	9.2	21	7	28
Between \$10,000 - \$15,000	9.2	7	21	28
Between 16,000 - 20,000	13.3	34	7	41
Between 20,000 - 30,000	25.2	35	42	77
Between 30,000 - 40,000	13.3	14	27	41
More than 40,000	20.3	27	35	62
Missing values	9.5	15	14	29
Total	100	153	153	306

Table 20 is the combination of Figure 30 and Table 19. The method of calculation is: 1) add the numbers of respondents from same items and the result is the total number of respondents; 2) Add percentage of same items, and then divide the added percentage by two. Consequently, the total respondents of Figure 30 and Table 20 are 306; the percentage of the combined income of respondents and their spouses is also indicated in Table 20.

Figure 31: Is your financial support from relatives in China and/or abroad? - Q72

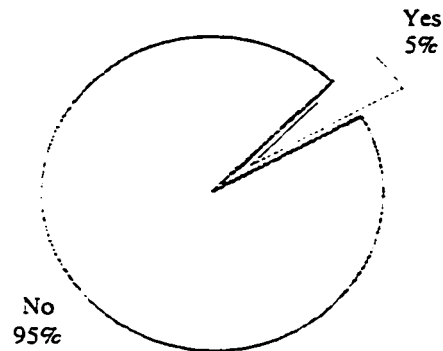


Figure 31 indicates clearly that only 5% respondents are dependent on their relatives, while 95% are financially independent in Canada.

Figure 32: Current residence - Q74

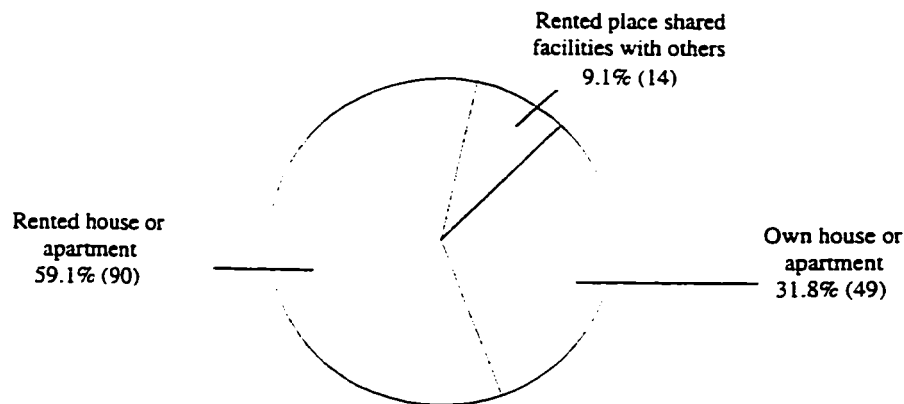
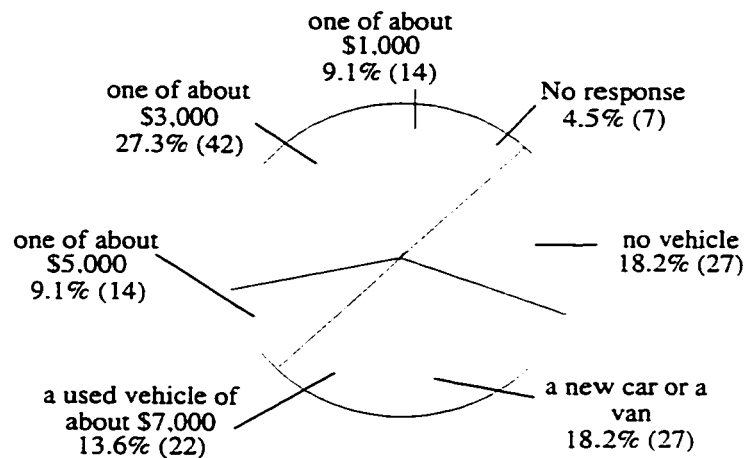


Figure 32 indicates that almost one third of the respondents have bought their own houses or condominiums, and nearly two thirds live in rented houses or apartments. According to the interview notes, very few single scholars live in rental places and share facilities with others. Most of Chinese scholars reside with family members within a contained unit or their own places, without sharing facilities with others, although many prefer living in neighboring areas for convenient contact and mutual help.

Figure 33: Value of vehicle owned - Q75

0

Figure 33 indicates that more than half of the respondents, i.e., 59.1%, owned second-hand vehicles with a value ranging from \$1,000 to about \$7,000. 27.3% of the respondents owned vehicles with the value of about \$3,000. For them, a \$3,000 vehicle is affordable, and reliable enough for urban transportation. It is interesting to notice that the number of the respondents who own new vehicles or have no vehicle are equal, i.e., 18.2% of “the poor” and “the rich” respectively. This may suggest that 18.2% at one end cannot afford even a vehicle of less than \$1,000, and a 18.2% at the other end may afford to buy a new vehicle of at least \$20,000. However, according to the interview notes, those who owned no vehicle may have been able to afford a second-hand one, but chose not to buy it, either because they had no need for private transportation or did not know how to drive yet. Those who had new vehicles enjoyed reliable incomes.

In addition, a majority of interviewees said that nearly all their second-hand vehicles were Japanese, which were more reliable and economical than other second-hand vehicles made in the USA, Korea, and European countries according to their own experience or that of other consumers.

Figure 34: Is it easier to be more financially successful in Canada than in China ? - Q76

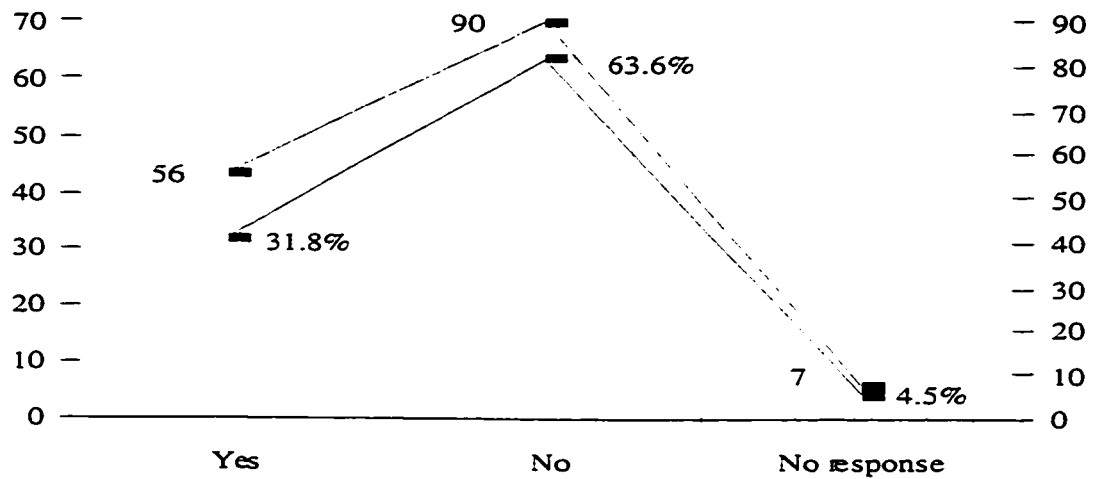
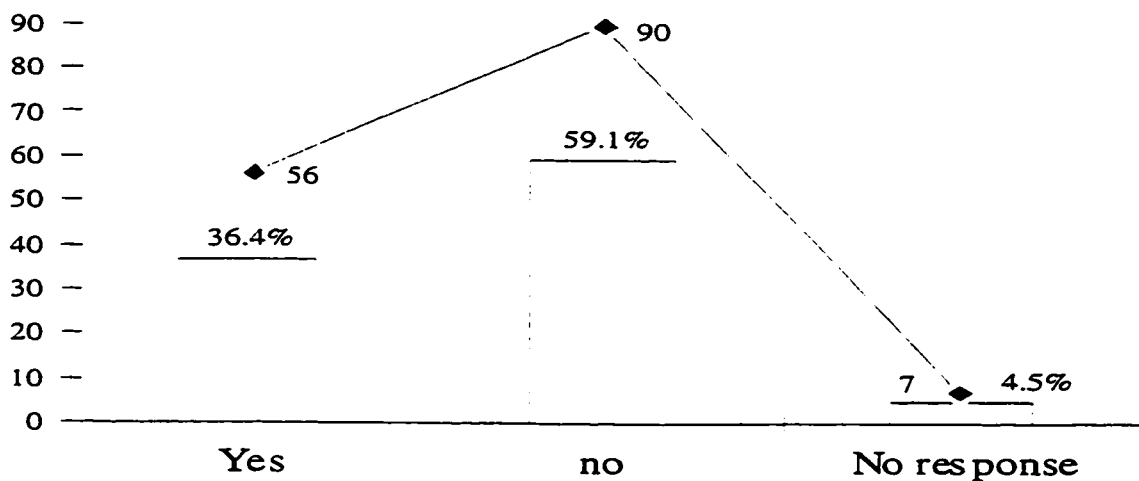


Figure 34 indicates clearly that two thirds of the respondents did not think that it is easier to be more financially successful in Canada than in China, just one third was positive that their financial success could be attributed to Canada. The few respondents (4.5%), who did not respond to Question 76 might not yet be certain if they are able to attain financial success in Canada or elsewhere.

Figure 35: Is it easier to survive in Canada? - Q77



According to the interview notes and the author's previous prediction, it seems that most of the CS should feel that it is not difficult to survive in Canada. However, Figure 35 indicates that 59.1% of the respondents considered it was not easy to survive in Canada, while only 36.4% of the respondents took it for granted that it was easy to survive.

Figure 36: Do you send money back to China to support your relatives? - Q78

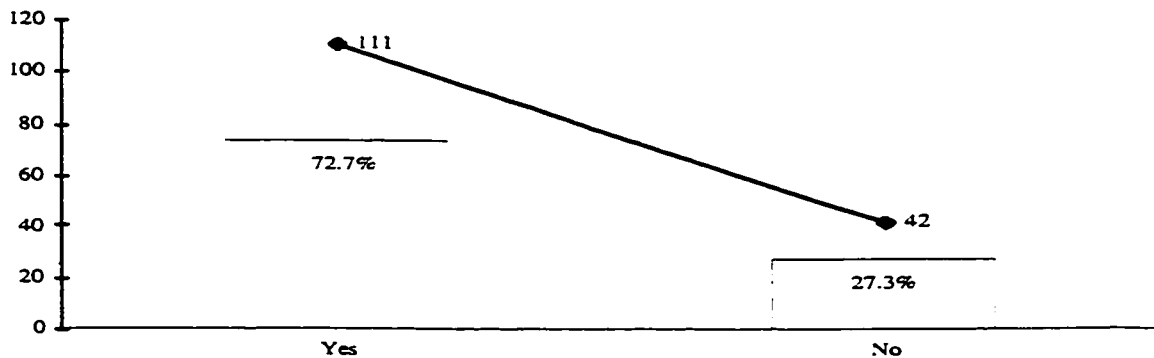


Figure 36 indicates that 72.7% of the respondents send their money back to China to support their relatives, while 27.3 % of them do not. These figures could suggest the following reasons: 1) Besides satisfying their own living requirements, those who send money to China may have some extra money, and they still want to keep the Chinese cultural and moral tradition, which encourages the sharing of wealth within extended families; 2) Those who do not send their money to relatives in China might be experiencing financial stress, or may not want to share their money in their initial accumulation of capital. They may also feel that it is not easy for them to save money and it is not obligatory or necessary to support their relatives in China.

4. 1. 3. Questions about Personal Adjustment

Closely related to the questions of assimilation, this subsection presents descriptive data about personal adjustment, including issues of motivation, orientation, and future intention. Due to the interaction of education and adjustment, some questions may overlap. However, even with similar data, analysis may vary from different perspectives.

Table 21: Reason(s) for Becoming Canadian Permanent Residents - Q81

Reasons	%	No
Easier to live in Canada	22.7	35
Better employment opportunity	4.5	7
Enjoy more personal freedom and privacy	13.6	21
Others specified	4.5	7
No response	54.5	83
Total	100	153

Table 21 indicates that nearly half of the respondents believed that becoming permanent Canadian residents was beneficial for their survival in Canada. Those seven respondents provided specific reasons such as: 1) paying less tuition to attend school and being qualified to apply for certain scholarships designated only for Canadian citizens or landed immigrants; 2) receiving family allowance for their children and other social welfare; and 3) convenient travel as Canadian immigrants to the USA and some other countries. However, the high non-response rate of 54.5% affects reliability and validity of this question. It is not known why those 83 respondents did not reply to Question 81 in the Questionnaire. However, the author assumes that they may feel it is very sensitive for them to reply to Question 81. Thus, they avoided responding to the question.

Table 22: Chance of Finding Relevant Jobs -Q82

Reply	%	No
Very easy	4.5	7
Easy	4.5	7
Possible, with some effort	54.5	83
Difficult, even with great effort	31.8	49
No response	4.5	7
Total	100	153

Table 22 indicates that 63.5% felt that they were able to find jobs in Canada without much difficulty. The table shows that a total of 9% of the respondents were very optimistic about job hunting in Canada, and 54.5% had positive replies even though they thought that they needed some effort to find jobs in their fields. Approximately one third who had a negative response might consider that their specific skills were not needed in the job market, nor have confidence in the job competition because of disadvantages such as poor English, open or hidden racial prejudice, etc., as the following Table 23 indicates.

Table 23: Why is it difficult for you to find an ideal job in Canada? -Q83

Reasons	%	No
My English is not good enough yet.	13.6	21
My major is not needed in the market .	13.6	21
Due to rough competition in the job market	36.4	55
Racial prejudice & discrimination still exist in Canada.	4.5	7
No job opportunity because of poor Canadian economy	9.1	14
No response	22.7	35
Total	100	153

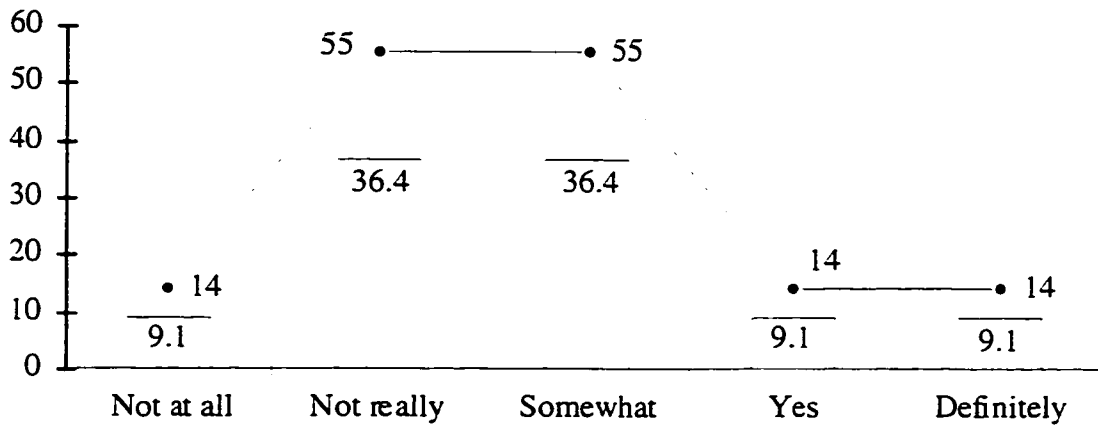
Figure 37: Do you plan to go back to China? - Q85

Figure 37 indicates clearly that those who did not want to return to China and those who did are exactly the same amount, 9.1%. Those who were not sure if they should stay or return composed the majority. Some were inclined to return, given a more favorable climate; however, as the following Figure 38 indicates, not many thought that they had any obligation to return to China.

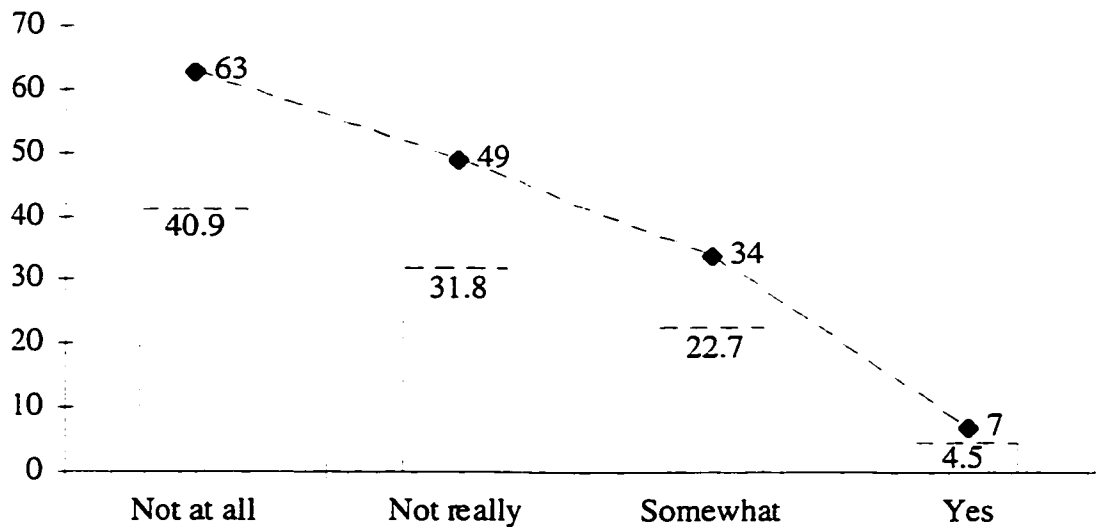
Figure 38: Do you think it is an obligation to go back to China? - Q86

Figure 39: Where do you plan to live and work in 6 years? (1995 - 2000) -Q87

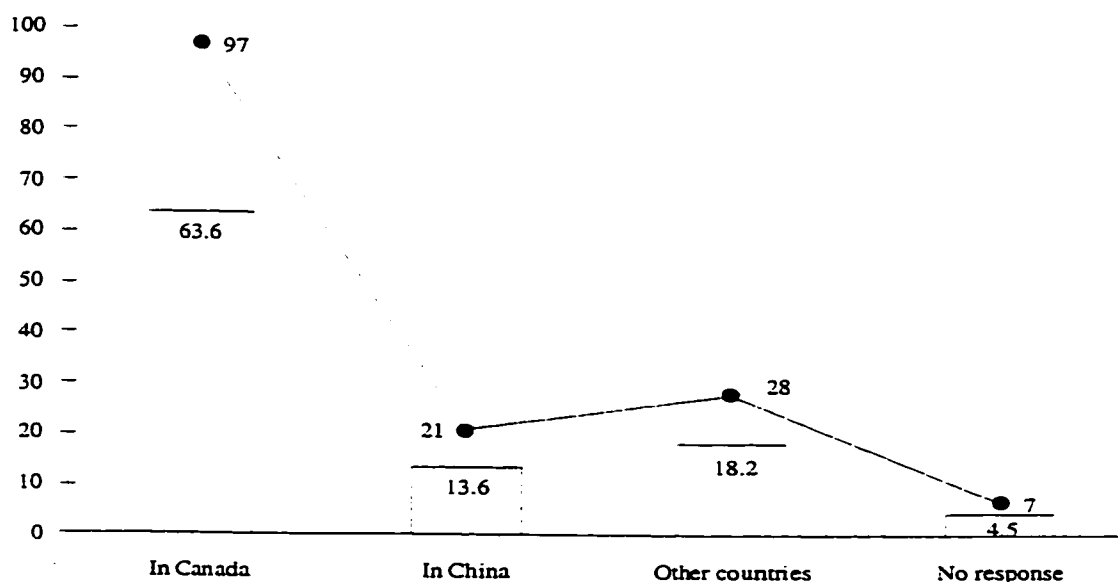


Figure 39 indicates that 63.6% of the pollees preferred to live and work in Canada, only 13.6% planned to return to China between 1995 - 2000. Of those 18.2% who were intending to migrate from Canada to other countries, approximately 81% would like to stay abroad from now until the end of this century. However, more than 13.6% would return to China if the political and socio-economic situation improves in the next five years.

Interview notes indicate that, instead of staying in Canada or returning to China, many Chinese scholars intend to live and work in the USA and some Asian-Pacific countries such as Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Korea, Singapore, and Thailand. A few considered Europe, but no one would like to emigrate to South America or Africa. The author believes that the great potential and promising opportunities of economic development in the Asian-Pacific region are very attractive to those Canadian Chinese scholars who hesitate to return to China, but would like to move closer to their former homeland after they complete their studies and work in Canada. With Canadian citizenship or landed immigrant status, they may feel that it is more convenient and flexible to travel and work in those Asian-Pacific countries than as PRC passport holders.

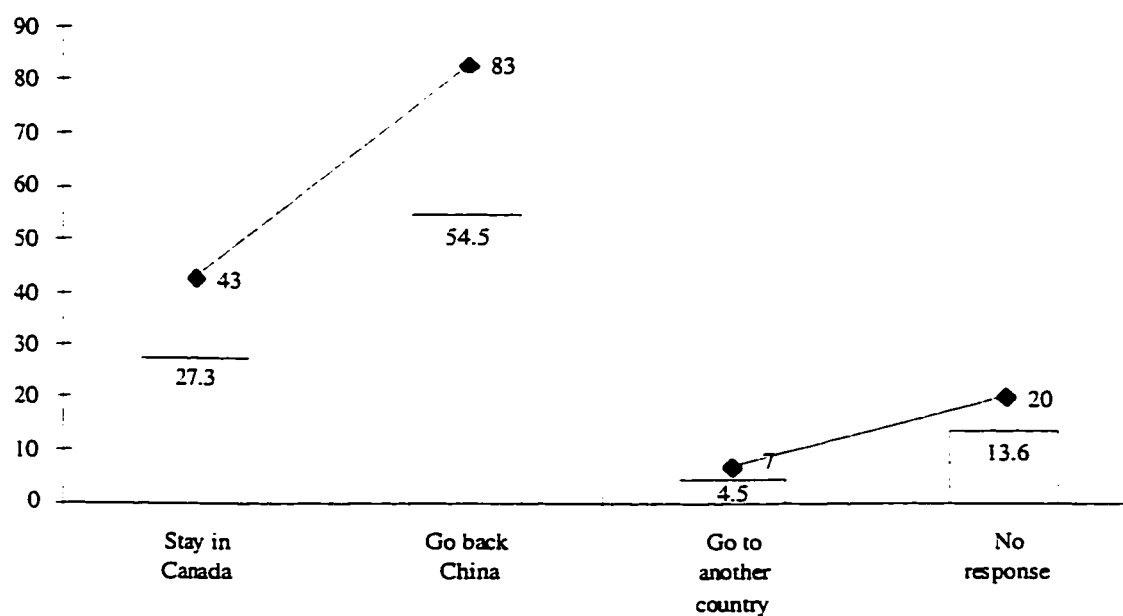
Figure 40 : Where do you want to stay if conditions are better in China ? - Q88

Figure 40 indicates clearly that more respondents would like to return to China if living and working conditions there are improved. The data of Figure 40 support the above analysis that most Chinese scholars would prefer not to stay in Canada if China progresses towards a more promising country, both economically and politically.

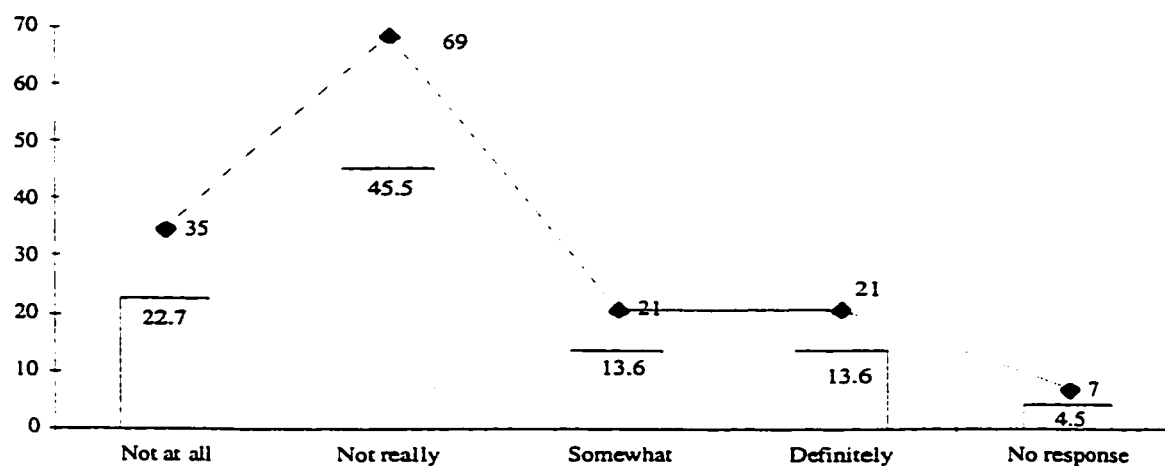
Figure 41: Do you expect to earn more money in China than in Canada? - Q89

Figure 42: Is your professional knowledge based on your education in China? - Q91

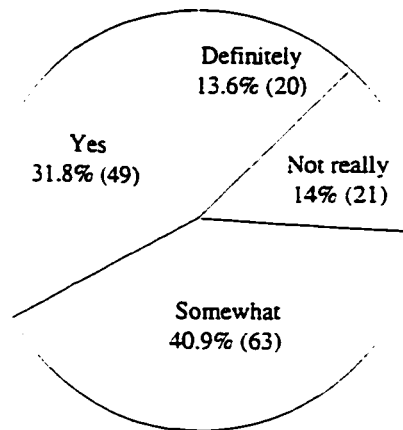
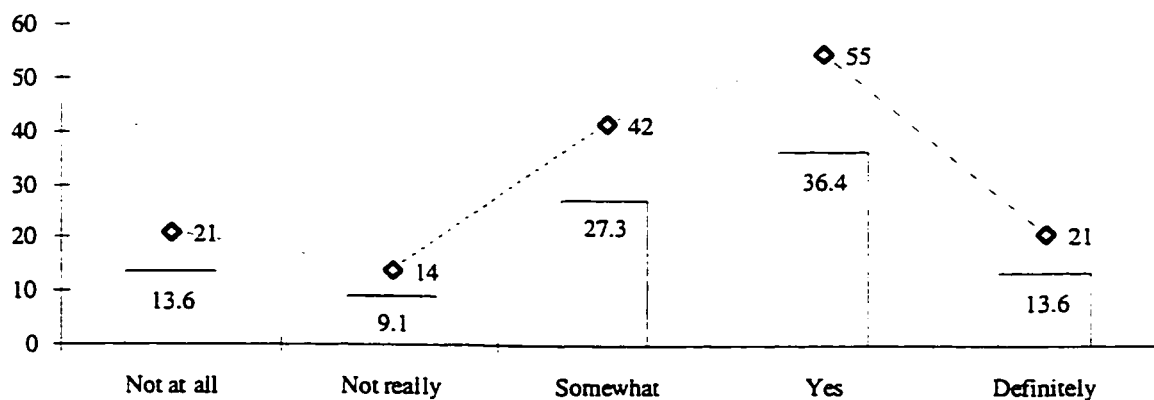


Figure 42 indicates that most of the respondents considered that their education in China had set up foundations to support their advanced professional knowledge obtained in Canada. Only a small portion of 14% assumed that their education in China was not directly relevant to their Canadian post-secondary schooling.

Figure 43: Do you think that you have obtained advanced knowledge in Canada? Q-92



According to Figure 43, most of the respondents thought, to different degrees, that they had furthered their education in Canada; only 22.7% claimed they had not. Most interviewees indicated that they advanced their expertise mainly in the fields of electronic engineering, computer science, and communications.

Figure 44: Do you want to develop and contribute your professional knowledge in Canada at present instead of in China? - Q93

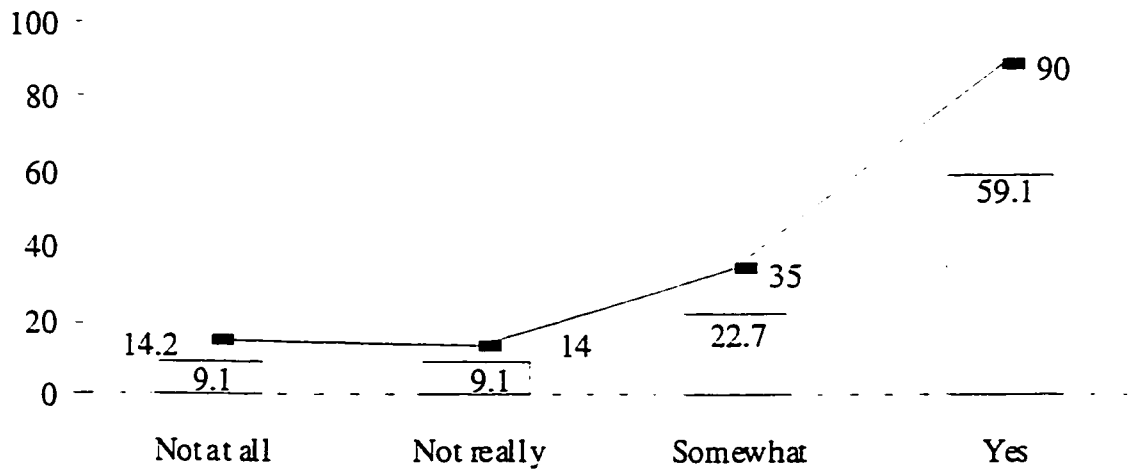


Figure 44 indicates that most of the respondents presently prefer to develop and contribute their professional knowledge in Canada. The data of this figure logically support the data in Figure 39, which indicates that most of the respondents will remain in Canada in the following five years instead of returning to China. Given their continued stay, it is also natural for them to offer their knowledge to Canadian society.

Figure 45: Do you still want to contribute to China in the near future? Q95

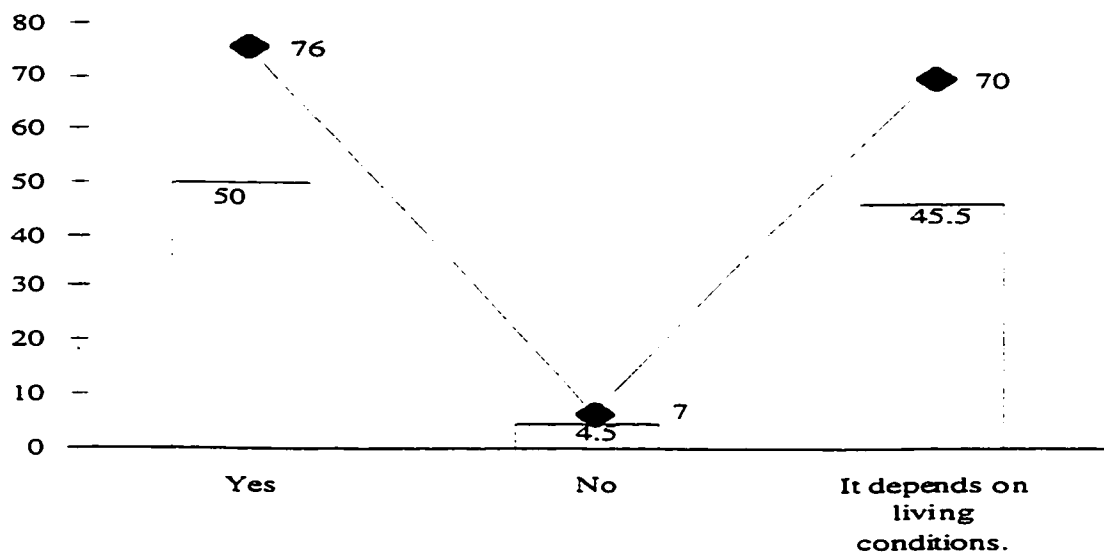
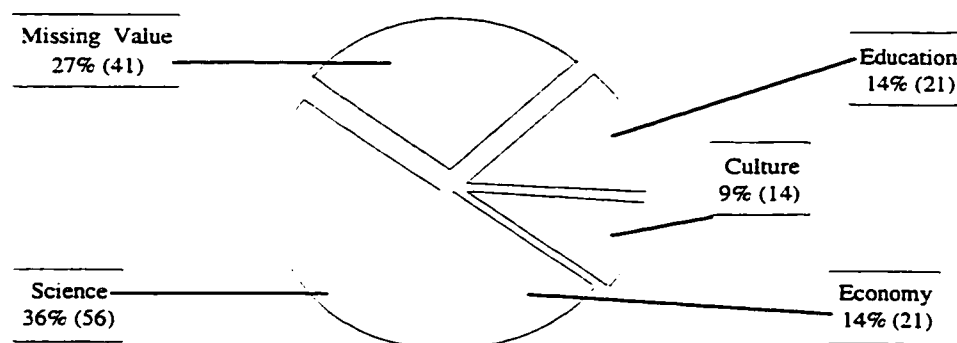


Table 24: Are you able to promote Sino-Canadian relations? - Q96

ANSWERS	%	No.
Not at all	22.7	35
Not really	4.5	6
Somewhat	36.4	56
Yes	31.9	48
Definitely	5	7
Total	100.0	153

According to both Figure 45 and Table 24, most of the respondents have the intention and are capable of contributing to themselves to China and to Sino-Canadian relations. As the interview notes further indicate, a high percentage believed that they would contribute more to the Sino-Canadian relations from within China, however, they were not very determined to move back due to the uncertainty of living conditions in China and other considerations such as political atmosphere, social stability, infrastructures for research and work there. Those few who expressed that they could not promote Sino-Canadian relations considered that they were ordinary intellectuals and just wanted to have interesting work and live well wherever they could. They further stated that it was not their business to concern themselves with the relations between China and Canada.

Figure 46: In which field could you mostly promote Sino-Canadian relations? - Q97

According to Figure 46, 36% of the respondents considered that they may contribute in the field of science, and 37% expected that their contributions would be in the fields of economics, culture, and/or education. The reasons for those 27% who did not respond could be: 1) They had no intention of promoting the Sino-Canadian relations, 2) They assumed that they were not capable, and 3) They were uncertain of their present capabilities.

Table 25: Why can't you contribute to Sino-Canadian exchanges? - Q98

Replies	%	No
No opportunity	27.3	42
Not interested	4.5	7
Other reasons	9.1	14
*Missing value	*59.1	*90
Total	100	153

Table 25 indicates that 59.1% of the respondents did not reply to Question 98. By reviewing and comparing the above Table 26 and Figures 45/46, the author believes that the high rate of the missing value implies that more than 59% of the respondents can contribute to Sino-Canadian relations in various fields, although most of them still wish to remain and make their contributions in Canada, at least until the end of this century as Figures 39 and 44 indicate. The reasons for those 27.3 % who said that there was no opportunity to promote Sino-Canadian exchanges were as follows. 1) They worked for local Canadian enterprises, which had no connection with China; and 2) As individual and ordinary people, they did not think that their personal roles could be significant for national relations between two large countries, and 3) They were actually not interested as those 4.5% frankly expressed, but they considered “no opportunity” was a better excuse than saying “not interested”.

Table 26: Opinions about Canadian immigration policies towards CS - Q99

Opinions	%	No
Only beneficial for Canada	13.6	21
Beneficial for both Canada and China	31.8	48
Good for Canada in short term, for China in long term	27.3	42
No idea	2.7	4
Others specified	4.5	7
Total	100	153

According to Table 26, whether from the perspectives of long term or short term, at least 59.1% of the respondents considered that the Canadian government's policies to attract CS as landed immigrants were beneficial for both Canada and China. The following points from interviewees reflect opinions from those 13.6% who thought that the immigration policies were only beneficial for Canada: 1) In implementing the special policies soon after the 1989 June 4 Incident, the Canadian government got the advantage by accepting approximately 40,000 well-educated Chinese immigrants from within Canada far more cheaply than the cost of normal procedures to obtain similar immigrants abroad; 2) The Chinese government, which spent a lot of money cultivating those CS to post-secondary educational level, lost most of them without much hope of attracting them back to China, at least in the near future; 3) By gaining those CS in Canada, the Canadian government did not only benefit economically, but also obtained further international reputation for its humanitarianism.

Another 4.5% specified that, 1) The Canadian government's special immigration policies towards CS mainly benefited those CS individually and their relatives; 2) Because of the large population and the numerous elite still in China, the Chinese government is not really concerned if the emigrated CS return to China or not; 3) As long as the Chinese

government keeps its open door policy, it should expect such a brain drain; and 4) The Chinese government actually does not want most of the overseas CS to return to work and live in China at this present stage because the government is not able to provide satisfying working and living conditions to them so far.

4. 2. Further Discussion on Measurement and Findings

4. 2. 1. Measurement

The designed model for SPSS analysis is: Assimilation = Adjustment + Education + Interaction effort of Education and Adjustment + Interaction Effect of Adjustment & Socio-demographic Factors.

According to this model, the most crucial dependent variable for this dissertation research is cultural assimilation, which is a combination of several questions asking the respondents whether they would prefer English holidays, movies, novels to Chinese ones (refer to the 10 questions, Q34 -- Q44, in Appendix III). Those who spend more time on Western culture were coded as 1 and those who keep Chinese culture were coded as 0. Among these 10 questions only those who chose Western items more than five times are defined as "more assimilated into Western culture".

The most important independent variable is adjustment, which, as defined in the second chapter, is personal, emotional and psychological adaptation to the environment. Constant and positive adaptation will lead to comfortable personal feelings to the environment. One of the questions asks about whether they would like to stay in Canada. So, this question is treated as an indicator of adjustment. Those giving positive feelings or reasons were coded as 1 and those not feeling positive were coded as 0.

According to the hypotheses presented in Chapter 2, education is one of the key independent variables which influences the assimilative degrees and process. Formal education is more important than non-formal education in the assimilative process.

Non-formal education is considered as supplementary means for immigrants to assimilate in a host country. As indicated by the descriptive analysis on the data in Figures 21 - 25, most respondents thought that their formal education in either China and Canada was significant for them to enter Canadian mainstream society. In other words, their assimilation in Canada greatly depends on their formal education. Figure 21 indicates that 63.6% of respondents thought that their higher education affected their personal adjustment in Canada. Figure 23 notes that 68.2% thought that their formal higher education in Canada provided them an opportunity to stay in Canada. Figure 24 indicates that, at different levels, 95.5% admitted that their post-secondary education affected their life in Canada. Table 11 indicates that 54.5% considered that their job training in Canada was helpful. According to the indication of Table 12, approximately 63% took extra courses like ESL, computer knowledge, driving lessons for suitable jobs and easy life in Canada. Obviously, formal education, which is supported by non-formal education, plays an important role in the process of assimilation.

The English language is a composite of eight variables asking respondents about their English proficiency in reading, writing, listening and speaking. When running the reliability test, the alpha score is .76, indicating that this composite is reliable when measuring proficiency in English language. One aspect of this research project explored the probability of keeping one's Chinese culture versus adapting to Western culture in one's daily life with English as the communication media.

For the purpose of testing the strength of interaction of various independent variables, a hypothesis is assumed that the probability of changing to Western culture is based on one's psychological adjustment (x_1), educational level (x_2), English language level(x_3) and income(x_4). The equation to be tested for my hypothesis is:

$$\ln[P / (1-P)] = a + b_1x_1 + b_2x_2 + b_3x_3 + b_4x_4$$

The criteria for determining effects and differences are statistical tests of significance. The Wald statistic was used for the significance test in logistic regression. The

Wald statistic has a chi-square distribution (SPSS 1990). A model improvement can be seen by checking the significance level of chi-square, which, in this project, was the difference between -2 times the log likelihood before the product term was added and after the product term was added. For each independent variable, the Wald statistic is just the square of the ratio of the coefficient to its standard error. For categorical independent variables, the Wald statistic has degrees of freedom equal to one less than the number of categories (SPSS 1990). However, explanations of any results are to be guided by further theoretical considerations.

4. 2. 2. Findings from Logistic Regression

In order to obtain more significant results from the data, logistic regression was utilized as the advanced statistical analysis. A major portion of SPSS for the logistic regression has been designed as: regression variables = education assimilation adjustment others /descriptive defaults /dependent = assimilation. The following is the result of logistic regression produced by SPSS:

Table 27: Logistic Regression of Assimilation on English, Income, Education, and Adjustment

Variables	b	Wald	Odds Ratio
English	.1581	.255	1.17
Income	.1943	1.941	1.21
Education	.2484*	6.004	1.28
Adjustment	1.7825**	13.393	5.94
Constant	-2.8128	3.905	

* = Sig. level < .05; ** = Sig. level < .01.

From the above table, adjustment has the greatest influence on assimilation, controlling for education, income and English language level. The odds ratio tells us that, the odd of assimilation for adjustment is six times as the odd for the non-adjustment. In the same way, education increases assimilation significantly by one third.

English and income are not significant in this model, which controls education and adjustment. Since the slopes in logistic regression are more difficult to explain than ordinary multiple regression, it is better to transform them into probability for clear explanation. For example, if the probability is .45, we can say that one unit change in an independent variable will cause the probability to increase 45% points.

The probability is calculated based on the formula referred to in Chapter 3:

$$P = e^z / (1 + e^z)$$

The following table represents probability of assimilation regressed on independent variables (1) not controlling for other variables and (2) when controlling for all other independent variables.

Table 28: Probability of Assimilation in Different Conditions

P	Conditions
.85	regressed only on Adjustment
.38	regressed only on English
.45	regressed only on Income
.18	regressed only on Education
<hr/>	
.34	regressed on Adjustment, controlling for all others at minimum values.
.08	regressed on English, controlling for all others at minimum values.
.08	regressed on Income, controlling for all others at minimum values.
.10	regressed on Education, controlling for all others at minimum values.
.85	regressed on Adjustment, controlling for all others at mean values.
.97	regressed on Adjustment, controlling for all others at maximum values.

The relationship between assimilation and some concerned variables is presented in the above table. Adjustment has the most distinctive influence on assimilation. If only in terms of binary relationship, one point change from 'Not adjustable' to 'Adjustable' will cause the probability of assimilation to increase to 85% points, which is well above the .50 occurring event. This indicates that when the Chinese students and scholars have very adjustable feelings to their foreign environment, they are very likely to assimilate themselves into the new culture if no other factors are taken into consideration. All the other factors in this study also have some influence on assimilation, varying from .45 to .18. Adjustment is almost two times bigger than the others. To look at binary relationships exclusively is not enough to study the whole picture. When a theoretical control for each of the indicators is applied, another picture of the model is produced.

When controlling for education, income and English at the minimum value, that is, when the respondent got the lowest from his/her education and his/her income is less than \$10,000 and his/her English is very poor, he or she only has .34 probability to be culturally assimilated even if he or she has adjustable feelings to do so. All other variables when controlled have lesser influence on assimilation than adjustment. In this situation the influence of adjustment is more than four times greater than English and income and more than three times than education. According to the result from binary regression, education has the smallest influence on assimilation compared with the others. In the full model, it has a significant influence on assimilation. In the designed model, education is not purely years of education because most of the respondents have received higher education either in Canada or in China. Education here is the perceived value of education. If years of education has a positive relation to the value, then education value will have great influence on assimilation.

As indicated by Table 28, the probability of assimilation will be .85 for a person with adjustable feelings, controlling for all the others at mean values, almost half of which is from adjustment. If one uses the maximum values for all the indicators, that is, a person

with fluent English, highest value returned from education, salary above \$40,000 and very adjustable feelings, then there is a 97% probability that the respondent will be assimilated into the new society.

In general, this study finds that psychological adjustment and education have significant influence on the process of cultural assimilation into Canadian society among those Chinese scholars and students who came after June 4, 1989.

Chapter 5. Conclusions and Predictions

5.1. Summary

This study focused on the June 4 scholars, who compose a visible minority group in Canada with a high educational background and represent a large portion of the fifth generation of overseas Chinese students and scholars. The 1989 June 4 Incident in China and the resulting special policies of the Canadian government provided a historical opportunity for those Chinese scholars to remain in Canada permanently. Like many new immigrants and refugees in Canada, the June 4 scholars have encountered various problems: cultural shock, homesickness, language difficulties, economic stress, confusion about social customs, ethnic prejudice or stereotype, and physical adaptations to the cold environment, etc. These problems have affected how they have survived in this foreign land, and the issues of assimilation and adjustment are raised in analyzing the June 4 Chinese scholars as a special case study.

During 1995, the collection of data for this study was taken first in Vancouver, Victoria, Edmonton, Calgary, Saskatoon, Regina, and Winnipeg. Then, the survey was extended to other major urban centers in eastern Canada: Ottawa, Toronto, York, and Montreal. This national research survey attempted to yield an understanding of the role of higher education, adjustment, their interaction, and other social factors which apply to the process and phenomena of assimilation.

One major finding of this study is that psychological adjustment and education have significant influence on the process of cultural assimilation. June 4 Chinese scholars, as an ethnic group of intellectuals in Canada, have both actively and passively involved themselves in the process of assimilation immediately upon settling down in Canada. The active and passive ways of their assimilation have shown that Gordon's hypotheses (Gordon, 1964, pp. 228-229) about dividing ethnic intellectuals into three categories were

not proper because, at least, the hypotheses do not apply to the current Chinese intellectuals studied by this dissertation research. Actually, Gordon himself could not prove if his hypotheses on the three categories were correct or not due to a lack of pertinent research at that time (Gordon, 1964, p. 229).

Broadly speaking, this research project has examined the sociological concept of assimilation, which includes the following sequences and major issues, as Gordon and other sociologists analyzed previously: 1) External assimilation, which encompasses two major branches: cultural assimilation and structural assimilation. Cultural assimilation refers to the acquisition of the cultural patterns or traits of the host society, such as language, custom, religion, dress, and diet. Structural assimilation is the large scale entrance into the host society in the domains of economy, marriage, identification, civic, and behavior reception, and 2) Internal assimilation, which is the highest level of assimilation after the complete process of both cultural and structural assimilation.

However, according to the case study of the June 4 Chinese scholars, it is not necessary for immigrants in a host country to complete all the aspects and process of their assimilation, as much depends on their personal adjustment, educational background, and other social factors. This study has shown that the hypotheses as stated in Chapter Two are reasonable and solid. As shown, there are logical processes and directions of assimilation. Components and degree of assimilation are determined by variables like adjustment, education, and their interaction. Cultural assimilation does not necessarily need to precede structural assimilation. They may occur simultaneously. A minority group like the June 4 Chinese scholars cannot be totally assimilated even though they become Canadian permanent landed immigrants or citizens. The June 4 Chinese scholars do not fit into any one of the three “ideal types” of intellectuals as Gordon assumed in his hypotheses in 1964. Education is the key variable which influences the assimilation degree and process when immigrants try to fit themselves into a mainstream society. Formal education is more important than nonformal and informal education in the assimilative process of immigrants.

Informal and nonformal education are supplementary means for immigrants to assimilate themselves in a host country, like Canada.

5. 2. Negative and Positive Impact of the June 4 Incident

The survey carried out for this dissertation research has shown that the June 4 Incident provided a unique opportunity for many Chinese scholars to remain in Canada permanently as they had intended by themselves (Zhu, 1993), without being “forced” to leave for China by any external means. Coincidentally, M. Singer (1996) wrote:

In the Canada-China relationship the concept of “delayed return” or “non-return” can be traced back to 1986 or 1987 when Chinese academics in Canada began to explore whether and how they could “postpone” their return to China. The “special immigration policy” of the Canadian government in response to events in China in June 1989 provided a “one-time” opportunity for these Chinese academics to remain in Canada on a permanent or indefinite basis and a large number took advantage of the opportunity (p. 79).

These Chinese scholars chose Canada as an ideal place to continue their further research, study, and life by taking the historical opportunity created by the June 4 Incident. As Singer (1996) further noted, in light of events in China that happened in June 1989 and the Canadian government’s “special immigration policy” for Chinese nationals in Canada, a majority of the Chinese scholars at the time applied for and received “permanent residents status in Canada and ‘delayed’ their return to China (p.11).”

Most of these Chinese scholars have settled down and begun contributing their knowledge and abilities to Canadian society. Thus, it can be concluded that the June 4 Incident has dramatically and historically altered the life and future of these Chinese scholars, most of whom would have otherwise returned to China. The impact of the 1989 June 4 Incident has been both negative and positive.

One significant negative effect is referred to as the “brain drain”, which is actually a social, political, and economic phenomenon of global scope. In this phenomenon the main trend is that various professionals and intellectual elite have emigrated to developed countries from developing countries. For example, the brain drain became more severe for China soon after the Canadian government adopted special immigration policies and measures after the 1989 June 4 Incident which provided the opportunity for Chinese students, scholars, and professionals to remain in Canada, forcing the Chinese government to adjust its policies towards a huge number of Chinese students and scholars who chose to stay abroad instead of returning to China as expected.

Noticing Canadian government’s special immigration policies and measures towards the Chinese scholars, some other visa students in Canada like those from the Middle East and Africa expressed that they wished that they were Chinese or similar event like the June 4 incident would happen in their countries so that it would be easy for them to stay in Canada permanently, too. As a matter of fact, encouraged by the June 4 Chinese scholars, a number of foreign graduate students in Canada also tried with great effort to stay in Canada permanently by all means. For example, they extended their academic programs, transferred themselves to majors which are more needed in Canada, and found Canadian employers to hire them and to assist them to apply for working permits and immigrant status. Some of them even produced their babies in Canada intentionally in order to stay longer as parents of their Canadian children. Obviously, the response from those foreign graduate students also reflected the global problem of “brain drain”. The effect of the Canadian government’s special immigration policies and measures towards the Chinese scholars applied indirectly to other foreign students, who were supposed to return to their own countries after they complete their studies in Canada.

On the other hand, the “brain drain” has also created a dilemma for Canada which provided shelter to the June 4 Chinese scholars. Previously, Canada desired to help China by harboring its intelligentsia. For example, many Canadian educational and research

institutions had certain CIDA and governmental funded exchange programs with Chinese institutions in the 1980s. From the perspective of “humanitarian and compassionate grounds”, indicated by the special immigration policy adopted by the Canadian government, these Canadian institutions could not force or encourage the Chinese students and scholars to return to their home institutions in China; meanwhile, those Canadian institutions suffered the frustration that they could not further benefit from some exchange programs with Chinese institutions because of the relevant policies adjusted by the Chinese government and the international agents who provided the fund. In addition, as Singer (1996) indicated, Canadian institutions felt sympathetic to the home institutions in China (p. 79) who sent their qualified and valuable academics to Canada, according to relevant agreements, but could not get them back to serve China as expected. Dr. Singer (1996) further indicated,

The non-return of Chinese academics to China after advanced study and research has emerged as the most frequent frustration of both Canadian and Chinese academics. As many of us are aware, this “brain drain” problem is not unique to China, but has also occurred at a certain point in the history of other rapidly developing countries.... Frankly, the Canadian government’s well-intentioned but ill-considered immigration policy had the effect of undermining its own development assistance policy for China and jeopardizing a large number of CIDA-funded university linkage projects (p. 79).

From the perspective of a broader international community, the brain drain issue has been of great concern to all developing countries, especially since those individuals who tend to remain abroad are precisely the ones with the greatest initiative and enterprise - the ones who could make the most significant contributions to their home country. Thus, governments of the developing countries have to take necessary measures to keep and attract their own elite in order to protect their national interests. However, brain drain may not really be a real long-term problem for China and many other developing countries. There are many qualified persons in the home country to take the place of the *émigré*. Besides, according to a survey done by the United Nations Institute for Training and

Research (UNITAR), most students from developing countries plan to return home upon completion of their programs. Those who remain abroad for important practical experience plan to return eventually. Most likely to stay abroad are those who studied some highly specialized field and believe that their new knowledge and experience would be wasted in their home countries. Common factors influencing return are family, friends, and patriotic feelings. Some decide to stay abroad until the job environment improves or the government changes. Many return 10 -15 years later to play an important role in their home countries. Grants from government or employers in one's home country are associated with more returnees; and grants from universities or agents abroad generally precipitate emigration (Orleans, 1988).

The findings of the UNITAR survey illustrated the striking similarities between the brain drain issues of the June 4 Chinese scholars and those students from other developing countries. How effective the Chinese government will be in controlling its lost brain power will depend on many factors, not just on the economic and political situation in China. If the past has any bearing on the future, the Chinese authorities might seriously consider two issues. First, the negative effect of the brain drain may not be forever and, second, certain advantages may still accrue to China even from those June 4 Chinese scholars who continue to live and work in Canada or elsewhere. If the Chinese authorities realize and admit these two issues, then the loss from brain drain can be minimised.

A second aspect of the negative impact is the damage to the moral image of the June 4 scholars in the eyes of China's public. Generally, the public wish is that the students and scholars would contribute to the democracy and modernization of China as soon as they complete their studies or research in Canada. The public believe that the future of China would be linked to the future of the CS abroad. However, after the June 4 Incident of 1989, the relationship between many overseas CS and China deteriorated. Ironically, the situation made many June 4 scholars stand on the opposite side of the democratic process in China. One of their excuses for staying in Canada is that China lacks democracy. If

there were a greater degree of democracy in China, there would have been no need for the CS to become immigrants and/or citizens of Canada to enjoy a better environment for studying, working and living.

Hence, the personal interests of the CS, who were assumed to be the major force and hope of Chinese national democracy, do not coincide with the progress of democracy in China. Furthermore, the public felt the acquisition of Canadian landed immigrant status and citizenship by the CS was based on the sacrifice of those who directly involved themselves in the democratic movement during the 1989 June 4 Event. They suffered hunger strikes, injury, arrest, and even their lives in China, while those CS who stayed in Canada, far away from China, benefited easily from the event by merely offering or claiming their moral support to the democrats and students in China. Thus, morally, the public assumed that some CS in Canada were selfish and shameful because, in order to obtain Canadian immigrant status or citizenship, they claimed to be involved in the Chinese democratic movement and in fear of punishment by the Chinese authorities if they were to return to China. As a matter of fact, many of the CS in Canada were not directly involved in the movement, and the Chinese authorities would not really want to punish the majority of the CS abroad. According to Chinese traditional culture and logic, a person's morality is more important than his or her ability. Morality can conceal inability, while ability cannot make up for loss of morality. The 1989 June 4 Incident provided the historical opportunity for many CS to obtain Canadian immigrant status and/or citizenship, while at the same time, they lost their national dignity, reduced their social profile, and created a negative influence on the process of Chinese democracy.

The third negative impact is from the Canadian and international communities. After most of the June 4 Chinese scholars obtained Canadian landed immigrant or citizenship status, the Canadian public, higher educational and research institutions, as well as Canadian and international foundations, gradually lost their positive recognition and expectations of the June 4 scholars. The host countries were actually disappointed because:

1) the effort and investment from those institutions and foundations were in vain after the June 4 Chinese scholars chose to stay in Canada rather than return to China to contribute their knowledge acquired in Canada; 2) many previously scheduled exchange programs ceased after the participating Chinese scholars decided to stay in Canada for their own sake, not for the mutual benefit of these Sino-Canadian agreements; 3) the continuous economic depression in Canada became more severe and competition for jobs became tougher when more than 10,000 June 4 Chinese scholars and their spouses obtained work permits to join the Canadian job market; and 4) Some other international students and scholars with visiting visas in Canada were disgusted with the June 4 Chinese students and scholars, who were favored by the Canadian government with special policies, while other foreign visa students were not equally treated.

The fourth aspect of the negative impact is the reduction of direct political involvement in China for the CS due to their Canadian immigrant or citizenship status. Chinese history has shown that the contributions of overseas Chinese to China are usually more in the fields of economics, science, technology, and culture, but less in political and military domains if they have foreign status. While contemporary China needs many elite with advanced professional knowledge for its "Four Modernizations", it is also in great need of the elite who are qualified and trusted to act as a new generation of government officials in Chinese political reform. However, with their current foreign immigrant or citizenship status, those CS cannot participate in interior political reform in China due to national security reasons and relevant policies set by the Chinese authorities.

The first positive impact of the 1989 June 4 Incident is an upgrade of "quality life" of the Chinese community in Canada. With the participation of the mainland Chinese scholars, the Chinese communities will assume a more active role in the Canadian multicultural society as these well-educated Chinese integrate themselves in various professional fields in the mainstream community. The June 4 scholars and their spouses represent a new generation of Chinese immigrants in Canada. Most of them have entered Canadian

communities via higher educational or research institutions as engineers, researchers, professors, educated workers or other skilled professionals, quite different from the former Chinese immigrants of 80 to 100 years ago, most of whom were illiterate and worked as coolies, railway builders, and laundry laborers. Those who had some education became merchants in the old and shabby Chinatowns established in the late 19th century (Tan and Roy, 1985). In contrast, many June 4 scholars became members of Canada's middle-class soon after they began professional jobs, while the earlier Chinese immigrants accumulated their wealth and properties and entered the middle-class through the great effort of two or three generations (Tan and Roy, 1985).

The second positive impact is the strengthening and promotion of the official Chinese language and mainstream Chinese culture in Canada. As the mother tongue of the third largest ethnic group in Canada following English and French (Statistics Canada, 1996) Chinese is used extensively by a growing population among previous and current oriental immigrants who have Chinese roots in Canada. In addition, a large number of other ethnic people have started learning Chinese due to their interests in Chinese culture and the attraction of the huge business market in China and the Asia-Pacific area. However, in Chinese communities the existing use of various Chinese dialects (primarily Cantonese and Taishan) and the official Chinese language (Mandarin) by various Chinese immigrants from Hong Kong, Taiwan, and mainland China has created ineffective communications and a regional cultural bias among Chinese immigrants themselves and their descendants. The use of various Chinese dialects and Mandarin has caused confusion to other ethnic people studying Chinese language and culture. Now, in Chinese communities, with the participation of the June 4 Chinese scholars, their spouses, and additional mainland Chinese professional immigrants, there is a strong tendency to promote Mandarin and mainland Chinese culture since China is playing a more active political and economic role in the international community. The impending take-over of Hong Kong on July 1, 1997 and increasing exchanges between Mainland China and Taiwan have also made overseas

Chinese and other ethnic people realize the practicality and necessity of learning the official Chinese language.

The third positive impact is that Canada has benefited politically, culturally, and economically by providing landed immigrant status to the June 4 Chinese scholars, their spouses, and children. The protective response of the Canadian government not only reflected its consistent national policies and increased its international reputation for humanitarianism, but it also obtained more than 40,000 well-educated Chinese immigrants to enrich Canada's human resources. The quality and potential ability of the June 4 scholars, their spouses, and descendants will further contribute to the social productivity and prosperity of Canada.

The fourth positive aspect is the promotion of Sino-Canadian relations and exchanges in various fields. When the June 4 Chinese scholars live and work in Canada, they will not only contribute to Canadian society, but also to Sino-Canadian relations and exchanges in fields like education, technology, science, industry, agriculture, fine arts, and trade due to their strong connections in China and good understanding of both societies. They act as a bridge between the two countries, which are dependent on the scholars for effective communications, information exchanges, and negotiations. These CS may assist Canada and China in exploration and development of potential markets in various fields in the two countries. Some CS are already working on several such exchange programs in the fields of education and technology. With the growing numbers of the June 4 scholars who have completed their studies and research on campuses, an increase in exchange programs is expected.

The fifth positive impact is the tremendous development of China's economy. Miserably, the June 4 Event created an historical tragedy with the loss of many innocent Chinese lives because of the military suppression in Beijing and other Chinese cities during the period. However, the suppression enabled the Chinese government to control the whole country and keep it in a stabilized social condition, a necessity for economic

development. Consequently, the Chinese government was pushed by the June 4 Incident to speed up economic reforms and to keep its open door policies active. By utilizing the facts of the recent economic achievements, the Chinese government wants to prove that the military suppression was necessary during the June 4 Event period. Ironically, more and more overseas Chinese students and scholars have been attracted by the great development of the Chinese economy. For example, according to the People's Daily, students studying abroad had in 1996 returned to work in China at a rate slightly higher than in 1995. Between 1979 and 1995, 75,000 overseas students out of 250,000 returned to China. The number of returning students to the end of 1996 is approximately 90,000, about one third of the total students abroad since 1979. The break-down of the figures are: 4,000 of 130,000 self-sponsored students returned; 37,000 of 44,000 students sponsored directly by the Chinese government returned; and 48,000 of 86,000 work-unit-sponsored students returned. While these statistics show that the brain-drain is still a serious problem, the economic boom in China has lured more graduates back, the report commented (China News Digest, Jan. 25, 1997).

The sixth positive impact is the promotion of political and democratic evolution in China, even though most of CS cannot become a new generation of government officials in Chinese interior political reform. However, with their current foreign immigrant or citizenship status and from a larger international community, those CS have more freedom to apply their active and external influence upon the political reform in China. The June 4 Event has opened a crystal window for the Chinese public to observe and understand the outside world via those June 4 Chinese scholars in Canada. They frequently provide the latest information from the West to China through e-mail, post, facsimile, telephone, and personal visits. Consequently, China will become more open, both economically and politically, meaning an expected increase in political and economic reforms.

5. 3. The Future and Influence of the CS

The 1989 June 4 Incident alienated a new generation of Chinese intellectuals and drove many of them into exile where they remain. Those who were for reform at the time saw themselves as within the system rather than opposed to it, and that position remains an unreconciled matter of some debate amongst those now abroad. The possibility of the opposition in exile, organizing and developing new ideas may pose a significant threat to the Chinese government at some point in the future. However, at present the exiles face enormous structural problems. They are divided, physically separate and disparate. They fundamentally represent a small portion of Chinese intellectuals, among whom some were not essentially involved in the 1989 June 4 Incident, but capitalized on the opportunity to become exiles. They have been outside China for about 10 years and are thus quite homesick, contemplating their future direction and settlement.

For further academic research, the future of the June 4 Chinese scholars in Canada can be predicted with three hypotheses from the perspectives of their assimilation, adjustment and other relevant issues. The role of the CS in China will be also discussed in this section.

5. 3. 1. Staying Abroad Permanently

First, most of them will permanently live and work in Canada or other foreign countries. Since they obtained Canadian immigrant and/or citizenship after 1989, they have become well assimilated, adjusted, and settled outside China. If they return, they will have to adjust again to fit the changed surroundings in China, because they have become accustomed to the new social environment abroad, even though they originally came from China. Their children, who grew up in Canada and do not know the Chinese language and customs very well, will face more dramatic difficulties. Moreover, in spite of some

positive social changes in China, due to existing social problems like severe pollution, bureaucracy, corruption, snobbishness, materialism, complex personal relations, large population, inconvenient transportation, an impoverished majority, increasing crime rates, and potential social chaos, etc., the June 4 scholars and their family members feel more comfortable and safe to live in Canada or some other developed countries. They believe China's problems will last for years. They feel negatively about China's current uncertain situation, which may not be as very promising as the Chinese government and some people have assumed. Thus, they have no intention of taking the risk of throwing themselves back into troubled waters. Some have even decided to stay abroad for the rest of their lives without bothering with preparations for return to China. However, their decision to settle down abroad permanently does not prevent them from visiting their motherland sooner or later as tourists, visitors, agents, or representatives of various exchange projects.

5. 3. 2. Visiting China Periodically and Keeping Foreign Status

Second, CS may return to China to stay periodically for various lengths of time. With their foreign landed immigrant or citizenship status, they feel safe; free to make their trips between China and their home. Those returnees can be grouped generally into the following three categories:

1) Visitors for short term exploration

Since the June 4 Incident of 1989, many Chinese academics and professionals in Canada have decreased their various connections in China. During their return visits, they try to understand the new China, and observe the tremendous changes in current Chinese society. They want to test the real attitude of various Chinese communities towards overseas academics and professionals. They also want to understand their personal feelings about a changing Chinese society, and find out how they fit into the current Chinese society as "outsiders". These returnees only stay in China for a short period. They

have no intentions of immediately terminating their lives, studies, and work abroad, but only want to explore and observe as "foreign visitors."

These exploratory visits may have a positive effect. If overseas Chinese academics and professionals feel comfortable and satisfied, they may finish their foreign lives and decide to return to China permanently. It is natural and reasonable for the overseas Chinese academics and professionals to make a short and exploratory visit before they make such a decision. The authorities and the public in China should understand and encourage this kind of visit and create favorable conditions in order to lure more overseas Chinese academics and professionals back to serve China whole-heartedly and permanently.

However, this transition may have both positive and negative aspects. Positively, some returnees will be encouraged and impressed by the economical achievements, many opportunities, and improved social life in the tremendously changing China; they will find opportunities to develop their personal ambitions in China's environment and relocate. Negatively, they will feel very upset about the increasing corruption of social morals, cumbersome bureaucracy, pollution, and the still backward living standards and other inconvenient social facilities. They will feel it is very hard to adjust themselves to the changing environment in China, even though they have been away from their birth place less than a decade. With feelings of great disappointment and dissatisfaction, they will decide to stay abroad as long as they can, although they may still pay short visits to China now and then.

2) Visitors for combined purposes

These visitors make their trips for a combination of personal, academic, and business purposes. Not only do they pay visits to their relatives and friends in China, but during the same trip, they attend various academic conferences, seminars, and investigate business opportunities.

For academic purposes, the returnees will attend conferences in China and present the results of their research achieved in foreign countries. They will obtain first hand knowledge of academic levels in China by comparing them to their own. They may also exchange professional opinions with their Chinese colleagues in the same field. Besides conferences, short term seminars will be arranged with corporations, and hosted by units in China. Returnees may give lectures on various selected topics which would prove useful to people in China. In their lectures, they may also introduce advanced technology and the latest scientific information according to their more cosmopolitan experiences and direct sources.

The most noticeable phenomenon may be the tendency of the returnees to engage themselves in business in China. With the advantage of foreign status and attracted by the huge business market in China, many returnees may treat their visit in China as mainly a business trip. Through their own social relations and any possible business channels in China, the returnees' business scope may include commercial investment, joint-venture cooperation, sales, technical consulting, real estate, finance, insurance, and stocks etc. Some of them may attempt self-employment, and others may become representatives or agents on behalf of foreign firms in China.

In summary, these visitors who make their trips for a combination for personal, academic, and business purposes may represent a high percentage of the returnees. With the combined purposes, they do not only visit their homes in China, but they are also able to investigate academic and/or business opportunities. If the result of this kind of visit is promising and fruitful, they may sooner or later choose to stay in China permanently.

3) Visitors with high and/or low profile

There will be two sub-groups of returnees, those with high profile, and those with low profile. Those with high profile like to show themselves formally to the public, to call attention from various social levels of their return, and to appear in China as successful

individuals from abroad or as honorable members in delegations invited by high level government authorities or by well-known enterprises. The purposes of those with high profile can be summarized as:

- a. Promote their own social profile in China:
- b. Express their great social values as overseas students and scholars:
- c. Satisfy their proud achievements abroad

Those with low profile will return to China as individual visitors; they do not want to join any group or delegation, nor do they want the public to notice that they are back. They choose low profile for two reasons:

1) During the period of the June 4 Event, 1989, some of these scholars blamed the Chinese government and vowed not return to China if democracy could not be realized as expected. However, eight years have passed, the same government is still in power, and democracy in China has not been achieved. Meanwhile, they are suffering abroad from home-sickness. Thus, in order to avoid possible embarrassment, they feel it is easier for them to visit China as individual and informal returnees.

2) Most feel that they are in a dilemma: on the one hand, they wish that they could devote themselves directly to China to make their homeland more prosperous; on the other hand, they hesitate to return to China permanently because of inconvenient working and living conditions in China. In this case, they do not feel comfortable letting the Chinese public misunderstand their purposes of returning to China. They only want to pay a short visit to their relatives and friends, and to survey the current changing Chinese society for their possible and permanent return at some time in the future.

5. 3. 3. Returning to China Permanently as Chinese Citizens

Third, some CS will return to China permanently, living and working there as Chinese citizens. They will decide to give up their foreign life and status abroad because

they are greatly encouraged by the tremendous economic achievements in China, and attracted by the special policies made by the Chinese government, which has promised to offer some living and working privileges to the permanent returnees. These returnees will feel settled in China more than in any other country, even though they know clearly that there will be some negative aspects of their return to China. For example, they will face lower pay, inconvenient transportation, tough competition for their children's education, and an increasing crime rate in China. However, spiritually they will feel more peace and enjoyment in China than they would staying abroad. They would no longer have to miss Chinese culture, traditional food, and customs which they grew up with.

5. 3. 4. Significant Roles of the Chinese Scholars

Whether they return to China permanently or not, the CS in Canada and other countries have a unique and significant role in the current and future China. Their roles can be classified in the following three perspectives:

a) Re-connection between Chinese society and outside world. Since the 1989 June 4 Incident, various exchange programs between China and the outside world were ceased or discontinued in the fields of academics, science, and technology, etc. because of the boycott applied by some western countries. However, the boycott was temporary and did not work well when China kept its open door policies and demonstrated great economic potential as the largest market in the world. The Chinese government has also realized that the booming Chinese economy will compensate for its political mistakes and negative image due to the 1989 June 4 Event. In this case, both China and the outside world need overseas CS to assist them to re-establish their relations. The overseas CS are willing to act as a bridge between China and foreign countries by utilizing their convenient status and useful knowledge obtained in western countries; it is an effective way for CS to serve China as its connection to the outside world. This historic trend will likely continue, as

more and more CS seek a role in transforming China into a modern developed country when China enters 2000 with the rest of the world.

b) Positive pressure in promoting various reforms in China. Sooner or later, overseas CS will introduce to China advanced “western weapons”, i.e., updated scientific knowledge, sophisticated technology, applied skills, and new management concepts, which will greatly influence the orientation, direction, and process of China’s “Four Modernization,” and the evolution of the economic market system in China. When more and more overseas CS return to China with these “western weapons”, the Chinese government and enterprises will feel pressure from the outside. Consequently, China is motivated to keep its open door policy, improve its social functions, and upgrade the knowledge and quality of various personnel in Chinese society. China must also continue with reform of its political structure to better match its economic development. Otherwise, the super-structure of China’s national machine will have no solid infrastructure as its foundation.

c) Creation of a new meaning of patriotism. Previously, there was a narrow and erroneous concept about patriotism. That is, a patriotic overseas Chinese would return to China, to live and work there to prove that he or she is patriotic. However, at present, the practice of overseas CS has indicated that it is not necessary for them to return to China to show their patriotism. They have proved that they can contribute to China as patriots wherever they are. The Chinese government has realized that it is not practical to force overseas CS to return to China, especially when many overseas CS have obtained foreign landed immigrant status. However, it is possible for China to utilize the intellectual resources of the overseas CS, even if they keep their foreign status and remain abroad. As long as overseas CS want to contribute to their motherland, the scope and content of their contribution from abroad will be greater than they could offer within China. Thus, rather than adopt its previous strict and disciplined attitude, the Chinese government may elect a more liberal attitude to overseas CS. Chinese authorities will likely allow overseas CS to

enjoy more personal freedom abroad and respect their own choice to stay abroad or return. At present there is a new prevailing dilemma amongst the overseas CSS whether to stay abroad or return to China. A majority of the overseas CS are patriotic because they are Chinese born and raised in China; consequently, they will always show their concern for China wherever they are.

In conclusion, the overseas CS have followed or will follow three historical trends: 1) Many of them left China in the 1980s while only a few returned; 2) Two way flows in the 1990s, both out of and back to China; and 3) A majority of the overseas CS will flock back to China in the early 2000s if there is no political and social chaos in China then, and if the working and living environment is favorable.

5. 4. Postscript

The death of Deng Xiaoping on Feb. 19, 1997 marked the end of Deng's era in Chinese history. The next era has started with an uncertain period, which is a threshold for both China and June 4 Chinese scholars before they enter another century. Many overseas Chinese students and scholars have expressed their ideas, worries, or predicaments, which can be classified into the following groups:

1. Deng Xiaoping was "retired for the last three years, leaving his appointed heir, Jiang Zemin to maintain the same firm grip on power."
2. "Deng's death will spark a power struggle and possibly a civil war in China."
3. "Decisions will no longer be made by a single entity. Instead, different power centers will emerge and everyone will want a piece of the pie."
4. "It is impossible to tell what will happen next in China."
5. "In China there is no system for deciding who the next leader is. A new generation will come to power, but before that happens, there will be a power struggle. Whether it is bloody or not depends on the military."

6. "This is the end of the first generation of the Communists in China. There is no one who has the status of Mao, Zhou, Zhu, and Deng."
7. "Expect a smooth transaction at first, but there is no guarantee the present leadership will continue. No appointed successor has ever stayed in power for long." (Various sources, 1997)

After Deng's death, the Chinese government will re-evaluate the 1989 June 4 Incident and announce rehabilitation for those students and scholars who were involved. However, nobody can predict when the rehabilitation will be announced because it depends on the democratic process in China and who really will be in power then. The 1989 June 4 Incident in Tiananmen Square provided a painful lesson to the Chinese government and reduced its reputation in front of billions of people in China and around the world. The rapidity of events in and after 1989 in the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe also offered instructive lessons to the Chinese government. There is no doubt that sooner or later the Chinese government will have to redress its mistakes in handling the 1989 June 4 Incident in order to re-gain its positive social profile, both domestically and internationally.

In the short to medium term, the enormity of the political and economic challenges China faces suggests an uneasy future. Though economic collapse and political chaos are unlikely, they cannot self-evidently be dismissed as of no concern. China's economic growth will be undynamic but steady. Before China can experience an economic take-off like the "four dragons" in Asia, it will have to deal with some basic structural problems. The death of Deng Xiaoping may not immediately plunge China into either crisis or radical transformation. However, the signs for the future of China would all seem to point in one direction. Decentralization, regionalism, economic growth and international integration are all set to increasingly challenge the Chinese central government. It can only survive in its dominant position if it redefines a role for itself based on an acceptance of high degrees of diversity and uncertainty. Sino-Western relations were transformed by the 1989 June 4 Event in Beijing. In fact it marked a turning point in the government policies toward the

outside world. In the aftermath of Western reaction to its suppression of the democratic demonstrations in Tiananmen Square, the Chinese government on one hand announced loudly it would protect China against “harmful” Western cultural influences and any boycott against China. Ironically, on the other hand, it has kept its door opened wider with more preferential policies to attract foreigners and overseas Chinese to invest in and trade with China.

The Overseas Chinese are the major vehicle for China’s economic integration with many developing and some developed countries. There are some 38.6 million overseas Chinese dispersed worldwide (including Hong Kong). 55 million ethnic Chinese throughout the Asia Pacific region, 1.646 million in the States, and 680,000 in Canada, with an additional unknown number of overseas Chinese descendants. (Appendix 6). Among the 680,000 overseas Chinese in Canada, the June 4 Chinese scholars are only a small portion. However, they represent a new generation in Canadian Chinese communities. As an elite group with good educational background, they are capable and active in promoting Sino-Canadian relations. With more and more of them adjusting and assimilating in Canadian mainstream society, they will play a more effective role in establishing links between Canada and China.

Nevertheless, due to the uncertainty of Chinese society following Deng’s death and the return of Hong Kong on July 1, 1997, many CS will continue observing China for a reasonably long period before they decide if they should return to China or stay abroad permanently. Thus, their assimilation and personal adjustment will continue to reach higher levels while they are still abroad. In any case, as predicted, their assimilation and adjustment in Canada and any other countries will not be able to prevent them from following the three historical trends. Finally, most of them will go back to China and re-settle in their homeland sooner or late. At the least they may emigrate from Canada to China’s neighboring countries or areas such as Japan, Korea, Singapore, Taiwan, and Hong Kong if the economic development in the Pacific- Asian regions keeps booming.

Appendix 1: The Letter to Respondents (English Version)

Dear _____ ,

In partial fulfillment of my academic programme. I am embarking on an important research project about how Chinese scholars (including those who were/are in graduate programmes) have adjusted to Canada since 1989. It is my hope that you will be interested in this kind of research as you are one of my fellow Chinese scholars in Canada who can offer helpful information. Thus, I sincerely invite you to participate in the survey.

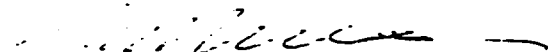
This project has been approved by the Ethics Committee, the University of Calgary. It includes a questionnaire, which requires about 30 minutes to complete. Your input on the questionnaire is vital to this survey. Any personal experience and information you can share would also be helpful. All information you provide will be treated anonymously and in summarized form; therefore, confidentiality is assured. By completing the questionnaire, you are consenting to participate in the survey and you will be entitled to receive the results of this research on request.

With the questionnaire, a return stamped envelope is included for your mailing convenience. If you have any questions, concerns, and comments, please feel free to contact me at:

Tel. (403) 289-0965(h), (403) 220-3187(0), Fax. (403) 284-2295

I will be very grateful for your cooperation and expect that you will mail me the completed questionnaire before May 1, 1995.

Sincerely,



Ning S. Zhu, Ph. D. Candidate

Department of Educational Policy and Administrative Studies
The University of Calgary, Canada

Appendix 1: The Letter to Respondents (Chinese Version)



THE
UNIVERSITY
OF CALGARY

2500 University Drive N.W., Calgary, Alberta, Canada T2N 1N4

Faculty of EDUCATION
Department of
EDUCATIONAL POLICY and ADMINISTRATIVE STUDIES

Telephone (403) 220-5675
Fax: (403) 282-3005

尊敬的

:

您好！自从一九八九年以来，已有数万中国留学生，学者及他们的家属陆续来到加拿大求学，工作，定居。目前，有一个很值得大家共同关心和探讨的问题是：我们如何通过接受加国的高等教育并作相应自我调节，溶合于新的社会环境中更好生存？同时，您可能想了解，将来加拿大和中国政府会如何对待我们？我们是否可以使有关政府部门制定出今后对我们和亲友有利的方针政策？

您作为海外中国留学生和学者群体中的一员，可能会对上述问题产生兴趣，也会乐意为有关的调研提供一些宝贵的信息。因此，我真诚地邀请您以信息提供者的身份参与我所主持的这项调研活动。具体地说，请您花费20分钟左右的时间以匿名的方式回答完附在此邀请函后的所有问题，您将提供的信息和答案对此调研的结果具有重要参考价值和分析意义。为了尊重您的个人权益，我将对您和其它参与者的姓名和提供的答案保密，只对汇总的信息作综合分析。调研结束后，您有权了解有关结果。我将根据您的要求和提供的地址，将分析结果寄给您。

请您在一九九五年三月一日前将回答完的调查资料封存在所提供的信封内通过校园邮递方式寄出或面交委托收件人。如您有何疑问，可直接和我联系。我的通讯地址是：

MR. NING S. ZHU
EDPA. UNIVERSITY OF CALGARY
2500 UNIVERSITY DRIVE, NW. CALGARY AB T2N 1N4

TEL. (403) 289-0965 (H) (403) 220-3187 (C)
FAX. (403) 284-2295 (H) (403) 282-3005 (H)

感谢您的合作和帮助。

加拿大卡尔加里大学教育政策管理研究系

朱宁生 1994.12.11

3. N. S. Zhu
Ning S. Zhu

Appendix 2: The Consent Form

Consent Form for Respondents

By signing this consent form, I hereby agree to complete the questionnaire offered by Mr. Ning S. Zhu for his research on higher education, adjustment, and assimilation of Chinese scholars in Canada. I also have no objection to return my completed questionnaire to Mr. Zhu before May 1, 1995.

(Printed name) _____

(Signature and date) _____

Tel. _____ (home), _____ (work)

Fax. _____

Mailing Address:

I wish to receive a summary of the results. Yes ____ No ____

Appendix 3: The Questionnaire

(Approved by the University of Calgary Education Joint Research Ethics Committee in 1995)

1. You are pursuing:
 - (1) a master's degree
 - (2) a doctoral degree
 - (3) a post-doctoral project or fellowship
 - (4) a faculty member (please specify) _____
 - (5) an employee (Please specify) _____
 - (6) Other (Please specify) _____

2. You have completed in Canada:
 - (1) a master's degree
 - (2) a doctoral degree
 - (3) a post-doctoral project or fellowship
 - (4) Other (Specify) _____

3. If you are a student, circle the year of programme in which you are now
 - (1) 1st year, (2) 2nd year, (3) 3rd year, (4) 4th year, (5) 5th year
 - (6) More than 5 years (Please specify) _____

4. If faculty, staff, or post-doctorate, circle which year of your position:
 - (1) 1st year, (2) 2nd year, (3) 3rd year, (4) 4th year, (5) 5th year
 - (6) More than 5 years (Please specify) _____

5. You came to Canada in: (circle one only)
 - (1) 198_ , (2) 1988, (3) 1989, (4) 1990, (5) 1991, (6) 1992

6. Your present status in Canada is: (circle one or two)
 - (1) Canadian citizen,
 - (2) landed immigrant,
 - (3) visa student with Chinese citizenship,
 - (4) visiting scholar with Chinese citizenship
 - (5) Other (Please specify) _____

7. Where did you live last year in Canada?
 - (1) Calgary, (2) Edmonton, (3) Regina, (4) Saskatoon, (5) Winnipeg
 - (6) Vancouver, (7) Victoria (8) (Other places) _____ (specify)

8. Your previous academic major(s) was/were
 - (1) anthropology (please specify) _____
 - (2) art (please specify) _____
 - (3) business (please specify) _____
 - (4) education (please specify) _____
 - (5) engineering (please specify) _____
 - (6) geography (please specify) _____
 - (7) law
 - (8) management (please specify) _____
 - (9) medicine (please specify) _____
 - (10) social science (please specify) _____
 - (11) Other (Please specify) _____

9. How many years of the post-secondary education did you receive in China?
- (1) Two years
 - (2) Three years
 - (3) Four years
 - (4) Five years
 - (5) Six years
 - (6) More than six years _____ (Please specify)
10. The degree(s) and/or certificate you received in China is/are
- (1) doctorate
 - (2) masters
 - (3) bachelors
 - (4) certificate (Please specify) _____
11. Your current academic major is
- (1) anthropology (Please specify) _____
 - (2) art (Please specify) _____
 - (3) business (Please specify) _____
 - (4) education (Please specify) _____
 - (5) engineering (Please specify) _____
 - (6) geography (Please specify) _____
 - (7) law
 - (8) linguistics (Please specify) _____
 - (9) management (Please specify) _____
 - (10) medicine (Please specify) _____
 - (11) social science (Please specify) _____
 - (12) social works (Please specify) _____
 - (13) Other (Please specify) _____
12. Your professional position(s) in China was/were
- (1) teacher
 - (2) engineer
 - (3) medical doctor
 - (4) researcher (Please specify) _____
 - (5) lawyer
 - (6) administrative staff (Please specify) _____
 - (7) technician (Please specify) _____
 - (8) officer (Please specify) _____
 - (9) other (Please specify) _____
13. Your hometown in China is _____(city/town) _____(province)
14. You are a:
- (1) male
 - (2) female
15. If you are a female, do you think it is more difficult for you to *study* in Canada than for fellow Chinese males?
- 1) Yes.
 - 2) No.
 - 3) I don't know.
 - 4) It depends on my own qualification and academic field.

16. If you are a female, do you think it is more difficult for you to work in Canada than for fellow Chinese males?
- 1) Yes, I do.
 - 2) No, I don't think so.
 - 3) It depends on my own qualification and academic field.
17. If you are a female, do you think it is more difficult for you to *live* in Canada than for fellow Chinese males?
- 1) Yes.
 - 2) No, I don't think so.
 - 3) It depends on my own qualification and academic field.
18. If you think it is more difficult for a female Chinese scholar to study, work, and live in Canada, please circle the most applicable reasons as listed hereinafter:
- 1) There is the gender discrimination against Chinese women in Canada.
 - 2) Females are still less competitive than males in modern societies.
 - 3) Canada is a male-dominated society.
 - 4) Other reasons (Please specify) _____
19. If you are a female, do you wish that you were a male in order to survive better in Canada?
- 1) Yes, I do.
 - 2) No, I don't think so.
 - 3) It depends on my own qualification and professional background.
20. If you are a female, which job do you prefer in Canada?
- 1) A government employee
 - 2) An employee in a private enterprise.
 - 3) An employee in a higher educational institution
 - 4) Other (Specify) _____
21. Do you agree with the saying that a woman's place is in the home?
- 1) Yes.
 - 2) No.
 - 3) No opinion.
22. Do you think that the employment and living conditions for Chinese women in Canada should be further improved?
- 1) Yes.
 - 2) No.
 - 3) No opinion.
23. Do you agree with the existence of "occupational segregation", in which jobs are segregated according to gender. i.e. "women's job"?
- 1) Yes, I do.
 - 2) No, I don't.
 - 3) I don't know.
24. What is your present marital status?
- (1) Married
 - (2) Single
 - (3) Divorced or separated
 - (4) Living with boy/girl friend
25. If you are married and have child(ren), do they live with you in Canada?
- (1) Yes, they do.
 - (2) No, they don't.
 - (3) Only my spouse lives with me.

26. Who earns more money to support your family in Canada?
 (1) I
 (2) My spouse
 (3) Other (Please specify) _____
27. What is your spouse's career in Canada now?
 (1) Student (Please specify) _____
 (2) Worker (Please specify) _____
 (3) Professional (Please specify) _____
 (4) Other (Please specify) _____
28. What was your spouse's career in China before (s)he came to Canada ?
 (1) Student (Please specify) _____
 (2) Worker (Please specify) _____
 (3) Professional (Please specify) _____
 (4) Other (Please specify) _____
29. How many years had you studied English before you came to Canada?
 (1) 1 - 4 years (2) 5 - 8 years (3) 9 - 12 years
 (4) 13 - 18 years
 (5) More than 18 years (Please specify) _____
 (6) None
30. If you took TOEFL previously, your score was between:
 (1) 300 - 400; (2) 400 - 499; (3) 500 - 599; (4) 600 or more
31. Indicate by an x on the line your degree of competence when speaking English

 | (1) Not competent | (2) Somewhat competent | (3) Competent | (4) Very competent |
32. Do you speak more English or Chinese at home?
 (1) More English (2) More Chinese (3) Equal
 (4) Speak more Chinese, but with some English in it.
33. How do you evaluate your own English proficiency according to the following components (Please circle one number of each item):
- | Items | Very good | Good | Fair | Poor | Very poor |
|-----------------|-----------|------|------|------|-----------|
| Grammar | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) |
| Writing | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) |
| Reading | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) |
| Listening | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) |
| Speaking | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) |
| Vocabulary | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) |
| Translation | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) |
| Technical terms | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) |
34. Do you speak more English or Chinese on campus/or at work?
 (1) More English
 (2) More Chinese
 (3) Equal
 (4) Speak more English, but with some Chinese in it.

35. Which do you enjoy reading more?
 (1) Novels, magazines, and newspapers in Chinese language
 (2) Novels, magazines, and newspapers in English language
36. If there is a good English movie and a good Chinese movie for you to select at the same time, which one do you prefer to see first?
 (1) English one
 (2) Chinese one
37. Which TV (cable) programme do you watch more in Canada?
 (1) English one
 (2) Chinese one
 (3) I seldom watch TV because of my study and/or work schedule(s)
38. Which music do you listen more in Canada?
 (1) Chinese
 (2) Canadian country
 (3) American folk
 (4) Western classic
 (5) Modern English
 (6) Other _____(Specify)
39. If you are subscribing to (an) English newspaper(s)/magazine(s), it is. or they are:
 (1) a local one (Please specify) _____
 (2) Globe and Mail
 (3) Time
 (4) Other (Please specify) _____
40. If you are subscribing to (an) English newspaper(s)/magazine(s), the reasons are
 (1) To be familiar with local news, events, and community
 (2) To improve my English reading ability
 (3) To know international news
 (4) To be informed what are on sale in local market
 (5) Other (Please specify) _____
41. Do you often read both English and Chinese newspapers/magazines?
 (1) Yes.
 (2) No.
 (3) Sometimes I do and sometimes I don't.
42. If you often read Chinese newspapers/magazines in Canada, the reasons are
 (1) concern with what is happening in China
 (2) to read news you are interested in
 (3) to enjoy Chinese literature as a hobby
 (4) to use my leisure time
 (5) Other (Please specify) _____
43. Which national programmes of art performance do you enjoy more?
 (1) Chinese ones
 (2) English ones
 (3) Other (Please specify) _____

44. Please circle the festivals and holidays you pay more attention to in Canada:
- (1) Chinese New Year's Day
 - (2) New Year's Day on January 1
 - (3) Christmas Day on December 25
 - (4) Chinese National Day on October 1
 - (5) Canadian National Day on July 1
 - (6) Mid-Autumn Festival
 - (7) Halloween
 - (8) Easter
 - (9) Duan Wu (Dragon Boat) Festival
45. Which activities do you prefer to attend in Canada? (Circle one please)
- (1) Those organised by associations of mainland Chinese Students, Scholars, and professionals
 - (2) Those organised by the local Chinese community, in which the earlier Chinese immigrants are the majority.
 - (3) Those organised by communities of earlier European immigrants
 - (4) Other (Please specify) _____
46. Which kind of food do you eat more in Canada?
- (1) Chinese food
 - (2) Western food
 - (3) Other (Please specify) _____
47. Please indicate how often you visit the following shopping places. Circle the appropriate number.
- | Shopping places | once a week | always often | rarely | never |
|--------------------------|-------------|--------------|--------|-------|
| Chinese groceries | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) |
| Safeway | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) |
| Co-op | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) |
| Real Canadian Superstore | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) |
| Chinatown | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) |
| Malls | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) |
| Other (Specify) _____ | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) |
48. Please indicate why you wanted to pursue your higher education in Canada? (You may circle more than one reason as listed hereinafter)
- (1) To get a master or/and Ph.D. degree for a good job in Canada
 - (2) For personal improvement and academic interest
 - (3) To gain respect and recognition in Canadian society
 - (4) To be in a better position to serve China in the near future
 - (5) To be qualified for professional jobs in China/other countries
 - (6) Other (Please specify) _____
49. Do you think that your higher education is closely related to your personal adjustment in Canada?
- (1) Yes.
 - (2) No.
 - (3) Don't know.
50. Do you think that your higher education has enabled or will let you become a valuable member in Canadian society?
- (1) Yes. I do think so.
 - (2) No. I don't think so.

51. Do you think that your higher education in Canada has provided/will provide you with a good opportunity to stay in Canada?
 (1) Yes. I do think so.
 (2) No. I don't think so.
52. How does the post-secondary education in Canada affect your life?
 | (1) Does not affect | (2) Somewhat affects | (3) Affects | (4) Well affects | (5) Affects significantly
53. What do you think about the degree(s) you obtained from China?
 (You may circle more than one choice)
 (1) Very helpful for my registration in Canadian academic institutions;
 (2) Very useful for my advanced study and work in Canada
 (3) Not very useful for my study and job hunting in Canada
 (4) Totally useless
54. What do you think about the degree(s) you obtained in Canada?
 (You may circle more than one choice)
 (1) Very helpful for acquiring my landed immigrant status;
 (2) Very useful for my advanced study and work in Canada
 (3) Not very useful for my study and job hunting in Canada
 (4) Useless, at least at present
55. What do you think about the knowledge you obtained from your program(s) of graduate studies in Canadian academic institutes?
 (You may circle more than one choice)
 (1) Very helpful for my life and work in Canada;
 (2) Very useful for my understanding of Canadian society
 (3) Not very useful for my study and job hunting in Canada
 (4) Almost useless
56. What do you think about the job training you received in Canada?
 (You may circle more than one choice)
 (1) Very helpful for my job application;
 (2) Very useful for my advanced study and work in Canada
 (3) Not very useful for my job hunting in Canada
 (4) Totally useless nowadays
57. What kind of job training have you received?
 (1) Teaching skills
 (2) Professional and technical English
 (3) Cooking
 (4) Sales
 (5) Lab technician or assistant
 (6) Other (Specify) _____
58. What kind of extra course(s) have you taken?
 (1) English as second language (ESL)
 (2) Computer operation (software and hardware knowledge)
 (3) Driving lessons
 (4) Ballroom dance
 (5) Vocational course(s) _____ (Please specify)
 (6) Other _____ (Please specify)

59. The reason you took (an) extra course(s) is:
(You may circle more than one choice)
- (1) For a certificate in order to find a suitable job
 - (2) For an easy life in Canada
 - (3) For fun or personal interest
60. What do you think about the role of informal education you received from your parents or other senior family members in China?
- (1) It set up my basic family and social values.
 - (2) It offered me the primary standard of behaviour, e.g. table manner.
 - (3) I forget what I learned from them.
 - (4) It has no influence on my study, life, and work in Canada
61. What do you think about the knowledge you obtained from your friends and seniors in China? (You may circle more than one choice)
- (1) It set up the foundation of my life philosophy.
 - (2) It offered me oriental perspectives in family and social life
 - (3) I forget what I learned from my family members and friends in China.
 - (4) It has no influence on my study, life, and work in Canada
62. What do you think about the knowledge you obtained from your friends, family members, and colleagues in Canada?
- (1) It changed my life philosophy, which was formed in China.
 - (2) It offered me western perspectives in family and social life.
 - (3) I did not get any useful knowledge from my friends, family members for my life and work in Canada.
 - (4) It has no influence on my study, life, and work in Canada.
63. Which is significant for you to enter into Canadian mainstream society?
- (1) Formal education in China
 - (2) Formal education in Canada
 - (3) Non-formal education in Canada
 - (4) Other _____ (Please specify)
64. Most of your friends in Canada are:
- (1) Chinese
 - (2) Caucasians
 - (3) Those who are from other countries of Asia
 - (4) Other (Please specify) _____
65. Do you prefer to stay closely involved with the Chinese community? If so, why?
- (1) I feel it is not easy to adjust myself into mainstream Canadian society.
 - (2) I feel more comfortable and confident to deal with Chinese.
 - (3) I am not familiar with non-Chinese culture and social customs.
 - (4) I want to maintain Chinese heritage and my own characteristics.
66. If you prefer not to stay closely involved with the Chinese community, why?
- (1) I feel it is easy to adjust myself into mainstream Canadian society.
 - (2) I feel more comfortable and confident to deal with non-Chinese.
 - (3) It is necessary to maintain Chinese culture and customs in Canada.
 - (4) I want to be familiar with the culture and customs of the mainstream society.

67. If some day you want to return back to China, please circle any of the following reasons which apply to you.
- (1) I still miss Chinese culture, food, and customs.
 - (2) I miss my friends and relatives there
 - (3) I am not used to the cold climate and social customs in Canada
 - (4) It is difficult for me to adjust myself to become a real member in the mainstream society of Canada
 - (5) I will feel more comfortable to live and work in China, even though the conditions may not be as good as those in Canada then.
68. Do you think that you have to adjust yourself to the living and working conditions, as well as the social customs in China if you return there?
- | (1) I don't have to | (2) Not really | (3) Somewhat | (4) Adjust | (5) Adjust a lot |
69. What is your major source of income in Canada?
- (1) Research scholarships
 - (2) Teaching assistantships
 - (3) Salaries or wages
 - (4) Other (please specify) _____
70. What is your annual income?
- | | |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| (1) Under \$10,000 | (2) Between \$10,000 - \$15,000 |
| (3) Between \$16,000 - \$20,000 | (4) Between \$20,000 - \$30,000 |
| (5) Between \$30,000 - \$40,000 | (6) More than \$40,000 |
71. What is your spouse's annual income?
- | | |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| (1) Under \$10,000 | (2) Between \$10,000 - \$15,000 |
| (3) Between \$16,000 - \$20,000 | (4) Between \$20,000 - \$30,000 |
| (5) Between \$30,000 - \$40,000 | (6) More than \$40,000 |
72. Do you get financial support from relatives in China and/or abroad?
- (1) Yes.
 - (2) No.
73. Other than your spouse and child(ren), do you have any of the following persons living in Canada and/or other countries besides China?
- | | |
|--------------------|-------------------------------------|
| (1) Parent(s) | (2) Brother(s) and/or sister(s) |
| (3) Grandparent(s) | (4) Other relatives _____ (Specify) |
74. You currently live in
- (1) you own house or apartment
 - (2) a rented house or apartment
 - (3) a rented room and share facilities with others
 - (4) Other (Please specify) _____
75. You are an owner of
- (1) no motor vehicle
 - (2) a new car or a van
 - (3) a used vehicle with the value of about \$7,000
 - (4) a used vehicle with the value of about \$5,000
 - (5) a used vehicle with the value of about \$3,000
 - (6) a used vehicle with the value of about \$1,000

76. Do you think it is easier to be financially successful in Canada than in China now?
 (1) Yes.
 (2) No.
77. Do you think it is easier to support yourself and your family in Canada?
 (1) Yes.
 (2) No.
78. Do you send money back to China to support your relatives?
 (1) Yes.
 (2) No.
79. If you do not think it will be easier to be financially secure in Canada, do you think it is easier for you to earn money for your own vehicle and house in China?
 (1) Yes.
 (2) No.
80. If you go back to China to work there without any bank saving from Canada, do you think that you will be able to earn a house and a car within six years?
 (1) Yes, I think it is very easy and quite possible.
 (2) Yes, it is possible, but not easy.
 (3) No, I don't think that I can do so within six years in China.
 (4) No, it is impossible for me to earn a car and house in China within six years, even in the rest of my life there.
81. The reasons for your intention to become Canadian permanent residents are: (You may circle more than one choice.)
 (1) It is easier to live in Canada
 (2) Fewer social and family pressures than in China
 (3) Better sociopolitical and natural environments
 (4) Better education for yourself, your spouse and your descendants
 (5) Better income and social welfare facilities
 (6) Better employment opportunities
 (7) I can enjoy more personal freedom and privacy
 (8) All of the above
 (9) Other (Please specify) _____
82. What are your prospects of finding a job related to your academic major?
 (1) Very easy
 (2) Easy
 (3) Possible, with some effort
 (4) Difficult, even with great effort
 (5) Almost impossible at present
83. It is difficult for you to find an ideal job in Canada because: (You may circle more than one choice.)
 (1) My English is not good enough yet
 (2) I am not very sociable
 (3) My academic major does not meet the social need at present
 (4) Too many competitors are in the job market
 (5) Racial prejudice and discrimination still exist in Canada
 (6) No job opportunity due to small market in Canada
 (7) I have no reliable social connections

84. It is easy for you to find an ideal job in Canada because: (You may circle more than one reason.)
- (1) My English is good enough
 - (2) I am very sociable, and have reliable social connections
 - (3) My academic major meets the social need at present
 - (4) I am very competitive in the manpower market
 - (5) I am treated equally as other people in Canada
 - (6) Economic situation is better now.
85. Do you plan to return back to China?
-
- | (1) Not at all | (2) Not really | (3) Somewhat | (4) Yes | (5) Definitely |
86. Do you think that it is your obligation to return back to China?
-
- | (1) Not at all | (2) Not really | (3) Somewhat | (4) Yes | (5) Definitely |
87. If both Canada and China keep their present social and economic conditions in the next six years, do you want to
- (1) live and work in Canada during this period?
 - (2) live and work in China during this period ?
 - (3) live and work in another country like _____ (Specify)?
88. If the social, working, and living conditions in China are better than those in Canada one day, would you like to:
- (1) stay in Canada?
 - (2) return back to China?
 - (3) go to another country like _____ (Specify)?
89. Do you expect to earn more money in China than in Canada in the near future if you return there?
-
- | (1) Not at all | (2) Not really | (3) Somewhat | (4) Yes | (5) Definitely |
90. Do you think that the Chinese students and scholars in Canada can promote economic and cultural exchanges between China and Canada?
-
- | (1) Not at all | (2) Not really | (3) Somewhat | (4) Yes | (5) Definitely |
91. Do you think that most of your professional knowledge is based on the education and training you received in China?
-
- | (1) Not at all | (2) Not really | (3) Somewhat | (4) Yes | (5) Definitely |
92. Do you think that you have obtained advanced professional knowledge and training from the post-secondary education and employment in Canada?
-
- | (1) Not at all | (2) Not really | (3) Somewhat | (4) Yes | (5) Definitely |
93. Do you want to develop and contribute your professional knowledge in Canada at present instead of in China?
-
- | (1) Not at all | (2) Not really | (3) Somewhat | (4) Yes | (5) Definitely |

94. Please circle the following reasons which fit with your opinions of why you now want to develop and contribute your professional knowledge in Canada instead of in China.
- (1) The social and employment conditions are more favourable in Canada
 - (2) The academic and research atmosphere is better in Canada
 - (3) There are more opportunities and freedom for me to select and develop my professional knowledge in Canada
 - (4) The political environment is still uncertain in China at present
 - (5) The economic foundation is still unstable in China
 - (6) Other (Please specify) _____
95. Do you want to contribute the professional knowledge you have obtained in Canada to China in the near future?
- (1) Yes.
 - (2) No.
 - (3) It depends on the future living and working conditions in China.
96. Are you able to promote some exchanges between China and Canada?
- _____
- | (1) Not at all | (2) Not really | (3) Somewhat | (4) Yes | (5) Definitely |
97. If you think that you can promote some exchanges between China and Canada, which of the following fields could you contribute the most towards?
- (1) Education
 - (2) Culture
 - (3) Economy (Specify) _____
 - (4) Science
 - (5) Other (Specify) _____
98. If you think that you cannot promote exchanges between China and Canada, why?
- (1) I have not had the opportunity to do so.
 - (2) I am not interested.
 - (3) Other reasons _____ (Specify)
99. What do you think about the Canadian government's immigration policies which attract more well-educated people from China?
- (1) The policies are only beneficial for Canada.
 - (2) The policies are beneficial for both Canada and China.
 - (3) Beneficial for Canada in the short term, but for China in the long term.
 - (4) I don't have any idea.
 - (5) Other (Specify) _____
100. If you want to comment upon this questionnaire and have something else you would like to tell me, please feel free to write them down in the space below and/or on a piece of paper to be attached. You may write either in English or Chinese. Thank you.
- _____
- _____
- _____
- _____

Appendix 4: Interview Questions and Issues for Panel Discussion

- (1) How are June 4 Chinese scholars identified by Canadian communities? What are the circumstances that led to their stay in Canada?
- (2) What are the legal, social, and economic status of these Chinese in Canada? Should they be treated as political refugees or just a new generation of regular Chinese immigrants in Canada?
- (3) What is the process of their assimilation in Canada? How is their relationship with local communities? Have June 4 Chinese scholars still maintained their original values of morality, philosophy of life, and national characteristics? If so, why?
- (4) How has their education in China and their education in Canada affected them? How have they survived academically and realistically since 1989 within a larger Canadian society?
- (5) What does my survey tell me about the role of informal, non-formal, and formal education in the assimilative process?
- (6) What kind of relationship exists between China and June 4 Chinese scholars? Will they be able to promote mutual exchanges between Canada and China in the fields of education, culture, science, commerce, industry, and social customs? How can they influence relevant policies of Canada and China?
- (7) What is the future of the June 4 Chinese scholars?
 - a. Will they permanently live and work in Canada or other countries?
 - b. Will they return back to China and work there with foreign status?
 - c. Will they return back to China, living and working there as Chinese citizens?
- (8) What are the gender issues as regards the higher education, assimilation, and adjustment of the female June 4 Chinese scholars?

Appendix 5: **Population of Chinese & Its Global Distribution**

(Source: D. Poston, Jr. M. Mao, M. Yu, 1994, pp. 631 - 645)

The total overseas Chinese population is about 38.6 million worldwide (including Hong Kong). the following is a brief overlook of overseas Chinese around the world. The top-ten countries with the largest overseas Chinese population are listed in Table A-1. The percentages in the first column are based on the total overseas Chinese population, which is 38.6 million. The second column indicates the percentage of Chinese in terms of the total population in the country in the same year.

Table A - 1: Top 10 Countries with the Large Overseas Chinese Population

Top 10 Countries with Large Overseas Population	% of Total Overseas Chinese Population (38.6 million)	% of the Total Population in the Country in the same year
1) Indonesia	20%	4%
2) Thailand	16%	10.8%
3) Hong Kong	15%	96%
4) Malaysia	15%	30%
5) Singapore	6%	78%
6) Vietnam	5%	35%
7) USA	5%	0.7%
8) Burma	4%	4%
9) Philippine	2%	1.3%
10) Canada	2%	2.5%
Other countries/areas	10%	

The Chinese can be found on every continent in the world. A large number of Chinese can be found in Asia, North America, and Europe, with fewer in South America, Africa, and Oceania. Along with China's population of nearly 1.2 billion, and Taiwan's of over 21 million, there are estimated to be close to 40 million Chinese in 136 other countries.

The size of the overseas Chinese population has been expanding in several countries, most notably the U.S. and Canada. Other countries have seen growth in their

numbers of Chinese mostly in connection with trade and business opportunities. In addition, more Chinese have roots in countries with their third and fourth generations, in places such as Malaysia and the Philippines. In Toronto and New York City, many second and third generation Chinese bemoan the continued influx of newer Chinese immigrants from Hong Kong. In the last few years, South Africa has experienced a sharp rise in the number of immigrants from China.

Today's Chinese around the world are focused on China. The opening of mainland China's markets is energizing Chinese everywhere. As a result, China is positioned to be a geopolitical and economic powerhouse in the next century. It appears that China's own citizenry, as well as the Overseas Chinese, will profit from this development.

Table A-2: Overseas Chinese Population in Asia (circa 1990)

Country /Area	Number of Overseas Chinese (thousands)	Total Population of the County/Area (millions)
Indonesia	7315.0	179.3
Thailand	6000.0	55.5
Hong Kong	5686.1	5.9
Malaysia	5471.1	18.2
Singapore	2112.7	2.7
Vietnam	2000.0	65.7
Burma	1500.0	40.0
Philippines	820.0	61.5
Macao	423.7	0.4
Cambodia	300.0	8.1
Laos	160.0	4.2
Japan	150.3	123.3
India	130.0	811.8
Turkey	60.0	56.7
Brunei	44.0	0.2
Korea (North)	43.6	21.8
Saudi Arabia	30.0	14.4
Korea (South)	22.8	42.8
Others	17.4	338.3
<hr/>		
Total: 32,287,800		

Table A-3: Overseas Chinese Population in Americas (circa 1990)

Country /Area	Number of Overseas Chinese (thousands)	Total Population of the County/Area (millions)
U.S.A.	1645.5	249.6
Canada	680.0	27.0
Peru	500.0	21.8
Brazil	100.0	147.4
Panama	100.0	2.4
Costa Rica	22.0	3.0
Argentina	20.0	31.9
Jamaica	20.0	2.4
Mexico	20.0	84.3
Ecuador	15.0	10.5
Venezuela	15.0	19.3
Guatemala	14.0	8.9
Chile	13.0	13.0
Surinam	10.0	0.4
Trinidad & Tobago	8.0	1.3
Cuba	7.0	10.5
Paraguay	7.0	4.2
Dominica	6.5	7.0
Guyana	6.0	1.0
Others	17.7	62.0
<hr/>		
Total: 3,226,600		

Table A-4: Overseas Chinese Population in Europe (circa 1990)

Country /Area	Number of Overseas Chinese (thousands)	Total Population of the County/Area (millions)
USSR	274.0	285.9
France	200.0	56.2
U.K.	125.0	57.1
Netherlands	45.5	14.8
Germany	39.5	62.0
Italy	20.7	57.7
Spain	15.0	38.8
Belgium	13.0	9.9
Sweden	12.0	8.4
Austria	6.0	7.6
Denmark	6.0	5.1
Switzerland	5.0	6.7
Others	7.8	147.1

Total: 769.5		

Table A-5: Overseas Chinese Population in Africa (circa 1990)

Country /Area	Number of Overseas Chinese (thousands)	Total Population of the County/Area (millions)
South Africa	36.0	33.8
Mauritius	35.0	1.0
Madagascar	14.5	11.6
Reunion	14.3	0.6
Others	8.2	472.3

Total:	108.0	

Table A-6: Overseas Chinese Population in Oceania (circa 1990)

Country /Area	Number of Overseas Chinese (thousands)	Total Population of the County/Area (millions)
Australia	300.0	16.8
New Zealand	35.0	3.3
Polynesia	18.0	0.2
Fiji	8.0	0.7
Guinea	6.8	3.6
Others	6.1	0.8

Total:	373.9	

Appendix 6: **Population of CS and Its Distribution in Canada**

(Source: FCSPC News Release. Issue No. 8 - 15 . Feb. 12. 1997)

According to a recent survey conducted by FCSPC, the population of Chinese Mainland students/scholars in Canada is rapidly closing to 50,000. During Jan. 1997, FCSPC asked local CSSA presidents and FCSPC officers to report the numbers in their local CSSAs and the surrounding local Chinese communities. Over 50 messages were collected and analyzed. The following is the summary of the population in each province:

Table A-7: Population of CS and Its Distribution in Canada

Province	Population
Ontario:	>25,000
British Columbia:	10,000
Quebec:	<3,000
All other provinces:	6,000
Total:	over 44,000

The *survey found most Chinese Mainland students, scholars, and their families reside in Ontario, which includes about 20,000 in the Great Toronto Area and 4000 in Ottawa region. Due to the recent heat of new landed immigrants from US, the Chinese mainlanders' population in Toronto is rapidly increasing. The second largest home for the Chinese Mainlanders is British Columbia, about 7,000 reside in Vancouver City. Quebec has about 2,500 to 3,000 Chinese Mainlanders, including about 1,500 in the Great Montreal Area.

* The Director of the survey is Dr. (Jonathan) H. Jiang (jonathan@maia.phy.uqam.ca)

Appendix 7: Communication Networks in CS Community across Canada

(Source: FCSPC files: 1995 - 1997)

I. A List of CSSA Leaders' Names and Addresses across Canada (1995 -- 1996)

(Updated on May 11, 1996)

British Columbia

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--- University of British Columbia

President : Liu Guoliang: guoliang@unixg.ubc.ca Tel. 224-7065

--- Simon Fraser University

President: Yuqiang Zhang, School of Engineering Science, yzhanga@cs.sfu.ca

Tel. 937-3895 (home)

Treasurer: Jianping Chen, Department of Math. & Stats., jianping@cs.sfu.ca

Tel. 939-6940 (home).

Secretary: Jian Zheng, Department of Biology, jzhang@sfu.ca. 473-9375 (home).

--- University of Victoria

President, Guo Li, Tel:(604)479-0395 (H) (604) 721-8869 (O), lguo@sirius.uvic.ca

Department of Mechanical Engineering, University of Victoria, Victoria, BC V8W 2Y2

--- University of North British Columbia

President: Dr. JI Shaobo, E-mail: ji@unbc.edu

Mail: Faculty of Management and Administration, University of Northern B.C.

Prince George, B.C. V2N 4Z9

Tel: 604-960-5661 (O), Fax: 604-960-5544 (O), Tel/fax: 613-820-1912 (h)

Alberta

^^^^^^

--- University of Alberta

President: Xu. Xiaosong, Tel. (403)439-3132, E-mail: xxu@smith.re.ualberta.ca

Mail: Dept. of Rural Economy, 515 GSB, U of A, Edmonton T6G 2H1

--- University of Calgary

President: Wang Xiaojun, Tel: (403)284-0500, Fax: (403)284-0500

E-mail: xjwang@acs.ucalgary.ca

Mailing Address: 1002, 1540 29St, NW, Calgary, AB, Canada, T2N 4M1

--- University of Lethbridge

President: Dr. Yang, Jun, 1919 18th Avenue South, Lethbridge, AB T1K 1C4

Tel: (403) 381-8524, E-mail: YANG@ABRSLE.AGR.CA

Vice-president : Mr. Liu Fang, Basesuit, 1026 23 Street South Lethbridge AB T1K 2K3

Tel: (403) 380-6299, E-mail: LIUF000@CETUS.MNGT.ULETH.CA

Saskatchewan

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--- University of Regina

President: Hu, Qiang, Tel. (306) 585-4966 (O) 359-7132 (H) (Fax) (306)585-4827

E-mail: huqian@MEENA.CC.UREGINA.CA

English Dept. University of Regina Regina, Saskatchewan Canada S4S 0A2

--- University of Saskatchewan

President: Ms. Danyuan Zhou, Phone:306-933-4261 Fax: 306-374-7579

E-mail: Fan@pangea.usask.ca Mail: 1649 Thompson Ave, Saskatoon, Sask.

Communication VP: Mr Jin Gui, Tel. 306-931-7350, E-mail: Guil@sask.usask.ca

Internal affairs VP: Mr. Zhaoqin Wang Tel. 306-374-0556 E-mail: zhw220@enr.usask.ca

Entertainment VP: Ms. Dongju Wu, Tel. 933-2807 E-mail: Dongjuwu@duke.usask.ca

Sports VP: Mr. Shi Yin, Tel. 242-4741

Advisory: Dr. Liu Enwu, Tel: (306)374-9042 (H), 966-2719(O)

Manitoba

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--- University of Manitoba

President: Zhu Bin, E-Mail: umzhu008@cc.umanitoba.ca

Address: 40-59 Univ. Cres., Wpg, MAN R3T 2N5

Ontario

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--- University of Toronto

President: Dr. Ren Wenzhi, 30 Charles St. W. Apt.2109 Toronto, Ont. M4Y 1R5

Tel: (416) 324-8271 (H) Voice mail: (416) 979-4753 Ext.3354

E-mail: jianfang.liu@utoronto.ca

Vice-President: Cao Chenglong, Tel: (416)925-3938. E-mail: bcao@whri.on.ca

Secretary General. Wang Xuewen. Tel: (416) 929-7692

E-mail: wangx@esker.geog.utoronto.ca

--- University of Guelph

President: Yang Wuji, E-mail:wyang@sgi1.mathstat.uoguelph.ca

(519)824-4120 Ext 2370 (O) (519)824-9188(h)

15-252 Stone Road W Guelph. ONT N1G 2V7

--- McMaster University

President: Tony (J. S.) Wu, g9526290@mcmail.cis.mcmaster.

--- University of Waterloo

President: Nianhong Bei, Tel: (519) 884-5257 (h)

E-Mail: nbei@chemical.watstar.uwaterloo.ca

MA: Dept. of Chemical Engineering, University Waterloo, Waterloo, Ont.N2L 3G1

--- University of Western Ontario

President: Dr. Xiao Qiang, Robarts Research Inst., qxiao@lrc.med.uwo.ca

Address: Atp.32, 542 Platt's Lane. London, N6G 3A8

Tel: (519)-438-4509 (h), (519)-663-5777 ext 4433

VP: Prof. Li Jin-yan, for external affair, LAWJLI@UWOADMIN.UWO.CA

VP: Dr. Xu Luo-ling, for finance, luoling@sdri.uwo.ca

VP: Guo Li-xiao, for internal affair, lguo@julian.uwo.ca

VP: Zhang Hua, for sports, hzhang@uwovax.uwo.ca

VP: Cai Bei-li, for entertainment, bruce@csd.uwo.ca

VP: Yin Hong, for entertainment, wzeng@julian.uwo.ca

--- York University

President: Qie Jiang Hua, fs300605@sol.yorku.ca Tel: 416-661-8918.

Vice-President: Zhang Yingping, fs300631@sol.yorku.ca (416)663-2749

--- Queen's University

President: Ding Zhong Zhu, dingz@qucdn.queensu.ca 613-546-2287

Director of Entertainment: Liu Fenglei, liuf@eleceng.ee.queensu.ca 546-1147

Director of Recreation: Huang Yiqiu, 4yh@qlink.queensu.ca 549-5157

Director of Finance: Liu Chunling, 3cl32@qucdn.queensu.ca 544-8507

Director of Cultural Affairs: Wang Jin, wangjin@qucdn.queensu.ca 547-4809

Director of Cultural Affairs: Jiang Qianfu, qfjiang@ee.queensu.ca 549-2117

Director of Sports: Shen Jian, 4js2@qlink.queensu.ca 545-0533

Director of Students Affairs: Zhao Lin, zhaol@eleceng.ee.queensu.ca 542-7765

Director of Students Affairs: Liu Chi, 4cl17@qlink.queensu.ca 549-2062

Director of Interorganizational Relations: Huang Tafang, 389-4571

Director of Information: Wang Shangyu, wangs@qucdn.queensu.ca 634-3920

Director of CSSA Office: Li Tong, 4tl3@qlink.queensu.ca 549-2062

--- Ottawa Chinese Students, Scholars and Professional Association

President : Xue, Jingsheng

Vice-President: Yan Changmin, (CSSA-University of Ottawa)

Tel: (613) 819-246-9248 E-Mail: 107767.152@compuserve.com

Vice-President: Wang Jianming, (CSSA-Carleton University) Tel: (613) 237-7554(H)

E-Mail: jwang@ccs.carleton.ca

Vice-President: Qing Wang, (CSSA-Bell-Northern Research) Tel: (613) 763-9126

Email: qing@bnr.ca

Vice-president: Ma Changmin, (CSSA-National Research Council) Tel: (613) 993-2715

Email: cma@irs.phy.nrc.ca

--- CSSA, Sault Ste. Marie

President: Jizhong Jin, Tel: (705)946-1553 (H), 705-949-9461 Ext. 2176 (O)

E-Mail: jjin%soo.dnet@cedar.pfc.forestry.ca

Mailing Address: Canadian Forest Service, Natural Resource Canada

Box 490, 1219 Queen St. E.

--- University of Windsor

President: Bao Lihua, Tel: (519)256-2256

Quebec

^^^^^^

--- Concordia University

President, Yang, Xianshu. Tel: (514)938-2072(h), 848-4580(o)

E-mail: xianshu@vax2.concordia.ca

--- University de Montreal

President, Zhang Ning, Tel: (514)737-4776 (H), (514)340-5942 (O)

E-Mail: zhang@serveur.meca.polymtl.ca

Mailing Address: Section Aerothermique, Dept. de Genie mecanique.
 Ecole polytechnique de Montreal, P.Q. H3C 3A7

--- McGill University

President: Chen Gang, Tel: (514) 845-8743 (H)

Mailing Address: Department of Biochemistry, McGill University

--- Mcdonald College

President: Xie Xinghua. Tel: (514) 457-0504

E-Mail: Xie@AGRENG.LAN.MCGILL.CA

Mailing Address: 4 College, Apt.4 , Ste-Anne-de-Bellevue, Quebec H9X 1X1

--- University Laval

President: Yueyun Liang, Tel: (418)647-4094, E-Mail: chang@phy.ulaval.ca

--- University of Sherbrook

President: Chen Yong Chun, Tel: (819) 820-7053

Newfoundland

^^^^^^^^^^^^^^

--- Memorial University of Newfoundland

President: Dai Liu, Tel: (709)737-2457 E-Mail: dai@garfield.cs.mun.ca

Mailing Address: Box 24, Dept. of Comp. Sci.,
 Memorial University of Newfoundland,
 St. John's, NF, A1C 5S7

New Brunswick

^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^

--- University of New Brunswick

President: Gong Meng, E-mail: d3d6@unb.ca Voice-mail: 7547 (Office) 454-9585 (h)

Vice-President: Xie. Xi

Nova Scotia

^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^

--- Dalhousie University

President: Chen Ling, Chenling@is.dal.ca

--- Technology University of Nova Scotia

President: Wei Qiu, Tel: (902) 420-7965 (O) E-Mail: qiuw@tuns.ca

Mailing Address: Mechanical Dept. Technical University of N.S. Halifax, NS

--- Saint Mary's University

President: Zhiyu Bu, Tel: (902)425-8253 (H) (902)420-5691

Prince Edward Island

^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^

--- University of Prince Edward Island

President: Mengchi Liu, Tel: (902) 566-0522 (O), (902) 368-8876 (H)

E-Mail: mliu@sun1.math.upei.ca

MA: Department of Mathematics and Computer Science

University of Prince Edward Island

Charlottetown, PEI Canada C1A 4P3

II. INTERNET LISTSERV ADDRESSES OF FCSPC & LOCAL CSSAs IN CANADA

National:

fcsscN-l listserv@uwalpha.uwinnipeg.ca

News Release by Federation of Chinese Students and Professionals in Canada -in English-

FHY-PS listserv@uwalpha.uwinnipeg.ca

FCSPC Feng Hua Yuan Chinese Magazine for printing.

FHY-GB listserv@cunews.carleton.ca

FCSPC Feng Hua Yuan Chinese Magazine for reading.

Regional:

cssa listserv@unixg.ubc.ca

Email network for Association of Students and Scholars at University of British Columbia

cssa listserv@cs.uregina.ca

Email network for Association of Students and Scholars at University of Regina

chi-list listserv@ee.umanitoba.ca

Email network for Association of Students and Scholars at University of Manitoba

gcssa-l listserv@listserv.uoguelph.ca

Email network for Association of Students and Scholars at University of Guelph

chinese listserv@unb.ca

Email network for Association of Students and Scholars at University of
New Brunswick (UNBCSSA)

ring-l listserv@uwalpha.uwinnipeg.ca

News Release and email network for Association of Students and Scholars in Ottawa

acssy listserv@yorku.ca

Email network for Associations of Students and Scholars at York & Toronto Universities

MChinese listserv@envirolink.org

Email network for Association of Students and Scholars at McGill University

cssa listserv@majordomo.srv.ualberta.ca

Email network for Association of Students and Scholars at University of Alberta

cssauc-l listserv@listserv.ucalgary.ca

Email network for Association of Students and Scholars at University of Calgary

Remarks:

To sign on/off any LISTSERV, send a email to the listserv address. At body part of your email, type:

"subscribe <List name> <Your Name>" or "unsubscribe <List name>"

e.g.(1) If Lin Qing want to receive the News Released by the Federation of Chinese Students and Professionals in Canada, send an email to: listserv@uwalpha.uwinnipeg.ca, at body part of the email type: subscribe fcsscN-l Lin Qing

e.g.(2) If Jiang Ping want to sign on the email network for Association of Students and Scholars at University of Alberta (CSSA-UA), send an email to listserv@majordomo.srv.ualberta.ca, at body part of the email type: subscribe cssa Jiang Ping

III. INTERNET HOMEPAGE ADDRESSES OF FCSPC & LOCAL CSSAS

ASSOCIATIONS

INTERNET HOMEPAGE ADDRESSES

Federation of Chinese Students
and Professionals in Canada

<http://uwalpha.uwinnipeg.ca/fcssc>

FCSPC Feng Hua Yuan Chinese
Magazine

<http://uwalpha.uwinnipeg.ca:8001/fhy>

Chinese Embassy in Canada
University of Alberta CSSA

<http://www.buildlink.com/embassy>

<http://www.ualberta.ca/~cssa/cssa.html>

University of British Columbia CSSA

<http://www.interchg.ubc.ca/cssa>

University of Regina CSSA

<http://www.cs.uregina.ca/~wu/cssa/cssa.html>

University of Calgary CSSA

<http://www.ucalgary.ca/~chinsch>

University of Manitoba CSSA

<http://www.umanitoba.ca/CSSA/umcssa.html>

University of Guelph CSSA

<http://www.uoguelph.ca/~gcssa>

Ottawa CSSA

<http://infoweb.magi.com/~chinese/cssa>

York University CSSA

<http://www.yorku.ca/org/acssy>

Appendix 8: Acronyms and Abbreviations

BBQ	=	Barbecue
BMDP	=	BioMedical Data Programs
CASA	=	Canadian Asian Studies Associations
CC	=	Chinese communities
CIDA	=	The Canadian International Development Agency
CPC	=	The Communist Party of China
CS	=	Chinese scholars
CSSA	=	Chinese Students and Scholars Associations, Canada
CSSP	=	Chinese students, scholars, and professionals
DSA	=	Descriptive statistical analysis
ERIC	=	Educational Resources Information Clearinghouse
ESL	=	English as a second language
FCSSC	=	The Federation of Chinese Students and Scholars, Canada
FCSPC	=	The Federation of Chinese Students & Professionals, Canada
GPCR	=	The Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution
H&C	=	Humanitarian and compassionate
NHQ	=	National Headquarters
NO	=	Numbers
PRC	=	The People's Republic of China
Q	=	Question
SAS	=	Statistical Analysis System
SPSS	=	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SSI	=	Social Science Index
TOEFL	=	Test of English as a foreign language
UNITAR	=	The United Institute for Training and Research
USA	=	The United States of America
UK	=	The United Kingdom

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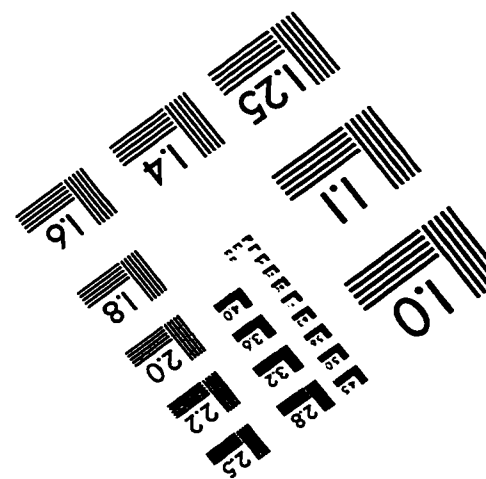
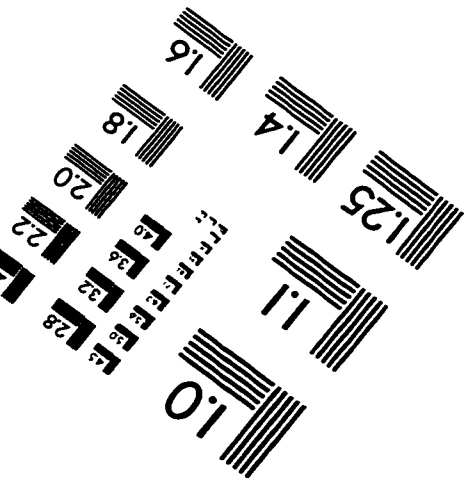
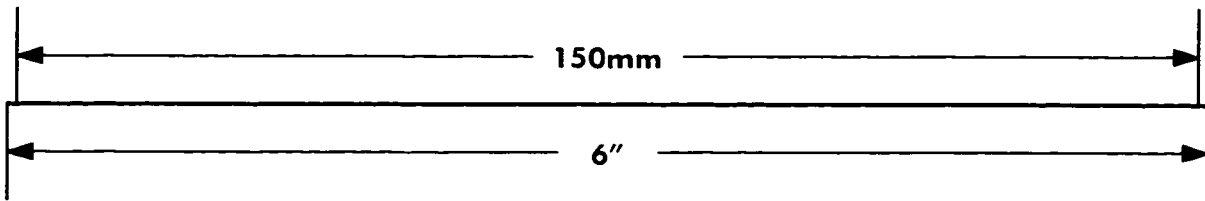
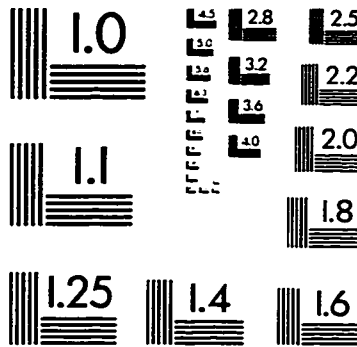
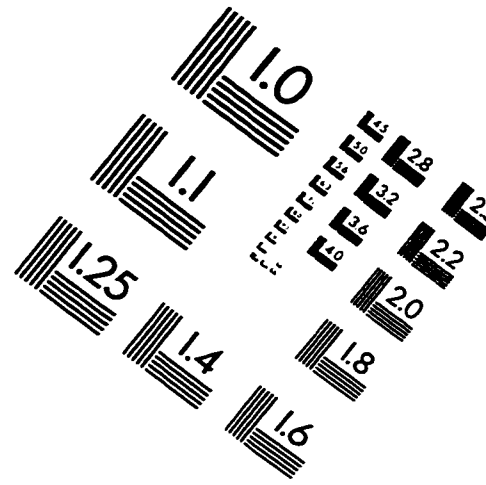
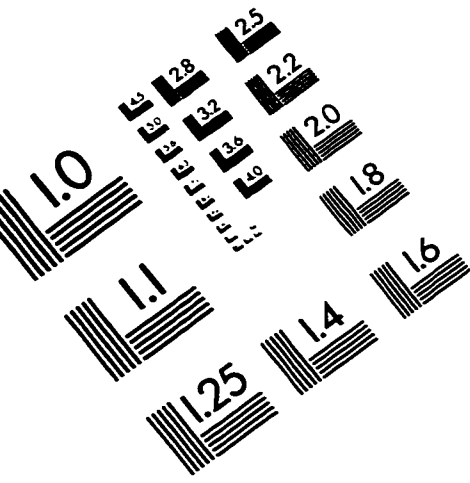
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IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (QA-3)



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