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I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Kazue Fujiwara entitled "A Study of Japanese ELL Students in Mainstream Classrooms." I have examined the final electronic copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Education.

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A STUDY OF JAPANESE ELL STUDENTS IN MAINSTREAM CLASSROOMS

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The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Kazue Fujiwara
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ABSTRACT

In today's educational arena, English Language Learner (ELL) children have to exert a great deal of energy to be accepted by their mainstream peers. They often shun their primary languages and cultural practices in an effort to become assimilated into the mainstream.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the current socialization practices experienced by particular Japanese ELL intermediate schoolchildren in Masonville (pseudonym), East Tennessee. Much of my interest was sparked by Vygotsky's (1978) work on the sociality of learning. Through this qualitative research study, I was able to present an in-depth understanding of issues surrounding these children and describe how the children, parents, and classroom teachers dealt with these issues.

The participants in the study were five Japanese ELL children, their mothers, and two mainstream classroom teachers. I used a naturalistic inquiry (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Data were collected through two individual interviews with each of the participants and 10 unobtrusive classroom observations of each participant student.

Focusing on the analyses of observations of and interviews with the five participant students, I was able to identify and discuss five themes: the differences of school cultural tendencies, emotional support of friends and teachers, identity and self-confidence, parental support, students' access to resources, and anxiety over the children's development in Japanese. The participant students perceived major differences between American schools and Japanese schools, yet, bonds between the Japanese students and the emotional support they received from peers and teachers were helpful in easing the children's challenges they experienced in their new school life.

They maintained a strong Japanese ethnic identity and degree of self-confidence due to their belief that diligent work would always lead to success. The five Japanese students were academically successful, and supported by their families, who spared neither time nor effort and provided abundant resources for their children. Finally, both the children and their parents experienced anxiety over readjustment to the Japanese school system upon re-entering Japan. Their anxiety mainly came from the delay of the children's development in Japanese and their perceptions of the difference of the two cultures between the U.S. and Japan.

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

In today's educational arena, English Language Learners (ELLs) children have to exert a great deal of energy to be accepted by mainstream peers. They often shun their primary languages and cultural practices to become assimilated into the mainstream. At the beginning of their education, ELL students may feel that they are inferior to the students from the mainstream culture because the mainstream does not recognize or validate their first language culture and language skills. Cheng and Chang (1995) state, "Students may see acculturation as fundamental to achieving acceptance by mainstream peers. This often entails learning to speak, dress, eat, and behave like other students" (p. 14). Children desire to fit in with others in school. If a child behaves differently than his or her peers, a feeling of alienation arises. Thus, ELL students may have difficulty developing their own identity since they suppress behaviors that mark them as different (The Northeast and Islands Regional Educational Laboratory, 2002).

Some of the students I taught at the Japanese Saturday school expressed their difficulty with assimilation into mainstream classrooms (I taught from April, 2001 to March, 2006 at the Japanese Saturday school located at Masonville (pseudonym) in East Tennessee). For example, they do not want to eat their Japanese-style lunches in their public schools. Even when their mothers prepare their favorite lunches for the children to take to school, the children do not want to eat their Japanese lunch in school. They do not want to attract attention from their peers because of the differences between their culture and the mainstream culture. They expressed their concerns about their school identity. I will return to this issue in the Review of the Literature in order to discuss it

further. Through this study, I explore the current socialization practices experienced by particular Japanese ELL schoolchildren in U.S. mainstream classrooms.

Statement of the Problem

The social context of classroom learning plays a crucial role for all students' participation in the classroom. In this study, I focus on language socialization practice in a specific population of Japanese students.

The National Research Council (1997) states that research is needed to examine the nature of socialization practices experienced by language-minority children, focusing on learning opportunities in their classrooms. Although research studies have been conducted on cultural differences, there is little research focusing on socialization practices experienced by language-minority children representing ethnic groups in the United States (National Research Council, 1997). In particular, remarkably little is known about the characteristics of issues surrounding Japanese children in the United States. Thus, basic descriptive work on this area is needed to understand the factors that influence socialization practices experienced by this particular population of children.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the current socialization practices experienced by particular Japanese ELL intermediate schoolchildren in Masonville (pseudonym), East Tennessee. I was drawn to this research topic by both concern and interest. Much of my interest was sparked by Vygotsky's (1978) work on the sociality of learning. Through this study, I present an in-depth understanding of issues surrounding these children, and describe how the children, parents, and classroom teachers deal with these issues. A conspicuous paucity of research studies of language minority students

from Asia exists, and few researchers have focused on Japanese ELL children in mainstream classrooms.

Mainstream classrooms play a crucial role in the linguistic, cognitive, and social development of ELL students since they spend most of their day there. The focus of this study is on providing insights into the perspectives and experiences of a particular population of Japanese ELL students, parents, and mainstream classroom teachers. I present the case with sufficient details to provide the reader with a vicarious experience, "so that the reader can make good comparisons" (Stake, 2000, p. 444) with other cases.

Significance of the Study

This study of Japanese ELL students in mainstream classrooms is significant for the following reason. This study was conducted based on the rationale that the research would enhance the ability of educators to understand about socialization practices experienced by specific language-minority children and their learning contexts in the United States.

Even though there have been research studies on the language socialization process of ELLs, remarkably little is research focusing on Japanese ELL students. It is anticipated that this study will augment the present research base on the topic. In particular, my primary audience is educators and future educators. I hope that this study will be especially beneficial to educators examining their classroom practices and probing effective ways to teach diverse language-minority students in mainstream classrooms. According to Erickson (1986), it is not trivial to make visible the invisibility of everyday life of educational settings since it helps educators rethink the problem with refreshed perspectives.

Research Questions

I am interested in situations that the ESL students have in the classroom, such as positions, statuses, and social identities. My research questions are,

1. What are Japanese ELL students' perspectives on attending school in mainstream classrooms?
2. What are the Japanese parents' perspectives on their children's school lives and language development?

Assumptions

The underlying assumptions of this study are rooted in the social development theory of Vygotsky (1978; see also Wertsch, 1985) and the language socialization theory of Schieffelin and Ochs (1996; see also Ochs, 1986). The major theoretical construct of social development theory is that social interaction plays a fundamental role in a child's cognitive development. Vygotsky's (1978) social development theory establishes the importance of the sociality of learning: "Learning awakens a variety of internal developmental processes that are able to operate only when the child is interacting with people in his environment and in cooperation with his peers" (p. 90). Social activities play a role in the development of the mind. That is, a child's full cognitive development requires social interactions.

Another theoretical framework is the language socialization of children, during which they become linguistically and culturally competent members of their community through interactions with other more linguistically competent members. The language socialization theory explains how children learn cultural values and norms in their communities, using the language. Interactions with others facilitate the development of

intelligence, knowledge, and language. From this perspective, therefore, I assume that ELL students' interactions with their peers and teachers are essential to the acquisition of sociocultural knowledge as well as to their development of cognition, language, and persona.

Limitations

This study has several limitations. First, I had only one semester during which I collected data. I had to finish interviewing and observing the participating students because not all of them would stay in the U.S. after the fall semester in the year of 2005. Second, I was in only two classrooms, observing five students. Third, I interviewed only two classroom teachers, the five Japanese students, and their parents. Therefore, the results of this study were limited by these restrictions. However, I collected in-depth data by focusing on a very small number of participants individually, and, I had a good rapport with the participants. Thus, I hope that the study focusing on the small number of the participants has yielded rich information about their perspectives.

Definition of Terms

In the following list, I briefly describe the definition of terms that are used in this study.

Acculturation: "The process of adapting to a new and different culture" (Chaney & Martin, 2000, p.261)

Assimilation: "An approach to acculturation that seeks to merge small ethnically and linguistically diverse communities into a single dominant national institutional structure and culture" (Garcia, 2000, p. 415)

Collectivism: "Collectivism is reflected in common knowledge, common ideals, a single curriculum for all, and emphasis on national culture rather than pluralism and multiculture, and on learning together rather than in isolation" (Alexander, 2003, p. 25).

Community Forces: " A strategy of accommodation, together with strong family support for education and an additive view of acculturation, helps immigrant minority students to transcend some of the barriers to their success in school" (Gibson, 1991, p. 372)

Cultural Capital: "The knowledge and modes of thought that characterize different classes and groups in relation to specific sets of social forms … some forms … have a higher exchange value [social value] than others in relation to a set of social forms" (Norton, 2000, p.10). It "varies with the distance between the cultural arbitrary imposed by the dominant PA [pedagogic action]" (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1990, p.30).

ELL (English Language Learner) Students: Students from non-English speaking backgrounds whose listening, speaking, reading, or writing skills are not the same as that of their native English-speaking peers due to linguistic or cultural differences. The terms, ESL/LEP/language-minority students and ELL students are used interchangeably (Carrasquillo & Rodriguez, 2002), although presently, ELL is used more in the literature.

ESL (English as a Second Language) Students: Students whose primary language(s), or language(s) of the home, is/are other than English, and who may therefore require additional services in order to develop their individual potential

within a school system. The terms, ESL/LEP/language-minority students and ELL students are used interchangeably (Carrasquillo & Rodriguez, 2002).

Hidden Curriculum: "Any of the contexts of schooling, including the student-teacher interaction unit, classroom structure, the whole organizational pattern of the educational establishment as a microcosm of the social value system" (Vallance, 1983, p. 10)

Language-Minority Students: Students who are from homes where a language other than English is mainly used; therefore, they may have limited English proficiency or be bilingual (National Research Council, 1997, p. 16). The terms, ESL/LEP/language-minority students and ELL students are used interchangeably (Carrasquillo & Rodriguez, 2002).

Language Socialization: "A process which results in the acquisition of linguistic and social knowledge and skills through language practices and through interaction with more expert or more knowledgeable others in order to become competent members of a social group" (Day, 2002, p. 14)

Legitimate Peripheral Participation: Apprenticeship in a learning community: "Apprentices learn to think, argue, act, and interact in increasingly knowledgeable ways, with people who do something well, by doing it with them" (Lave, 1997, p. 19).

LEP (Limited English Proficiency) Students: "Students who come from language backgrounds other than English and whose English proficiency is not yet developed to the point where they can profit fully from English-only instruction" (National Research Council, 1997, p. 15). The terms,

ESL/LEP/language-minority students and ELL students are used interchangeably (Carrasquillo & Rodriguez, 2002).

Mainstream Classrooms: Classes designed for native or highly proficient speakers of English, in which little or no accommodations are made for ELLs (Carrasquillo & Rodriguez, 2002).

Organization of the Study

The study is divided into five chapters. Chapter I presents an introduction to this study, a statement of the problem, purpose of the study, significance of the study, research questions, the underlying assumptions, research limitations, and definitions of terms used in the study. Chapter II reviews the literature relevant to the study. Chapter III details the methods and procedures followed to conduct this study, and includes the description of the participants, data collection, and data analysis. Chapter IV presents the findings from the data analysis and interpretations from the findings. Finally, Chapter V provides conclusions, implications, and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

In this study, I focus on socialization practices experienced by specific Japanese ELL children in mainstream classrooms from the perspectives of Vygotsky's (1978) social development theory (Vygotsky, 1978; Wertsch, 1985), as well as, Schieffelin and Ochs' language socialization theory (Ochs, 1986; Schieffelin & Ochs, 1996). Vygotsky states that learning occurs from interactions with more capable members in a society, and such social construction of learning is necessary and desirable for acquisition of knowledge. Schieffelin and Ochs argue that language interactions with others, who are linguistically and socially competent, are necessary for acquiring the linguistic and social knowledge. They emphasize the importance of social interactions in children's development. Moreover, from the sociocultural viewpoint, it can be said that the learning situations of ELL students are shaped by local school cultures; intergroup perceptions; and pedagogical, curricular, and administrative practices. These components create the degree, quality, and consequences of interactions between newcomers and the mainstream (Olneck, 2001).

In the following discussions in the review of literature, I primarily synthesize important works pertaining to this study. I will highlight themes running through what researchers have studied concerning ELL students' learning situations from sociocultural and critical perspectives. Then, I will explore the differences between Japanese and U.S. classrooms in order to advance the discussion of learning environments of specific ELL children in this study.

Social Contexts and Situations in Language Learning

Forman, Minick, and Stone (1993) argue that it is important to see rich connections between cultural institutions such as schools and homes, social practices, and interpersonal relationships in developmental process of literacy and knowledge acquisition. They emphasize the social process of human development of literacy and cognition. Therefore, social contexts and situations play an important role in language learning. As Bakhtin (1986) states, "we know our native language—its lexical composition and grammatical structure—not from dictionaries and grammars but from concrete utterances that we hear and that we ourselves reproduce in live speech communication with people around us" (p.78). Social interactions are necessary for language learners to learn the language of the community. Social context and situations can shape the social interactions for leaning. Lave (1997) theorizes about apprenticeships in learning: "Apprentices learn to think, argue, act, and interact in increasingly knowledgeable ways, with people who do something well, by doing it with them as legitimate, peripheral participants" (p. 19). Day's (2002) perspective on language learning reflects the theory of apprenticeship in learning: "This perspective sees language and cultural learning as interdependent and focuses on how learners acquire linguistic and social knowledge (such as values, attitudes, roles, identities, and emotional stances) by participating in a community's communicative practices" (p.21). ELL students can learn by interacting with their peers in the mainstream classroom as apprentices. In Lave & Wenger's (1991) theory of learning as legitimate peripheral participation, in a community of practice, learning must involve access to and participation in the community. In a similar view, Trueba (1989) states,

> Linguistic minority children need to cope with stress and they face serious social and psychological challenges (including a redefinition of self during the transition from home culture to school culture) in establishing these learning relationships. Communicative ability (requiring linguistic, social, cultural, and cognitive skills) is critical in the process of self-redefinition and adjustment. Curriculum content and level of performance are secondary during the initial phases of adjustment; consequently, priority should be given to increasing students' participation in communicative activities. (pp. 26-27)

ELL students should acquire communicative ability at first through active classroom participation. Lave (1997) sees it as "learning-in-practice" (p. 20), which means that "apprenticeship forms of learning are likely to be based on assumptions that knowing, thinking, and understanding are generated in practice" (p. 19).

Identity Formation

There are two components of one's identity: one is self-definition, the other is the definition given by others (Erikson, 1963). Identity is fluid, changing (Norton, 2000), and "always in process" (Hall, 1990, p. 222) since it is built through interactions with others, and multiple identities are formed in the classroom (Holland, Lachicotte, Skinner, & Cain, 1998). ELL students in the mainstream classroom acquire and develop new identities. According to Erikson, identity can be categorized into cultural identity, social identity, and personal identity. In terms of ELL students at school, their academic performance, social skills, as well as language ability can affect their identity formation. Toohey (2000) argues that identity can be regarded as the product of specific identity

practices, such as ranking by teachers and peers in classrooms. She lists the specific ranking practices in the classrooms as (1) academic competence, (2) physical competence, (3) behavioral competence, (4) social competence, and (5) language proficiency (see also Cohen, 1994). Classroom ranking practices produce specific kinds of students. ELL students often withdraw from participation in classroom activities due to their lack of language and social competence. This may result in creating an identity for them of being too quiet and lacking interest in classroom participation. Thus, they are viewed as being incompetent.

Language Competence and Social Identity

Individuals are located in social relation to others instead of being seen as isolated individuals (Kress, 1989). Therefore, social identity is multiple, a site of struggle, and changing over time (Holland, Lachicotte, Skinner, & Cain, 1998; Peirce, 1995). In the classroom, social identity is closely tied to a student's status, which is the student's social position in relation to others. ELL students may be given undesirable social identities and positions of a social role in the classroom because of a lack of language competence. Harklau (1994) notes, "Language minority students are often placed in mainstream, English medium classrooms long before they develop the degree of language proficiency necessary to compete on an equal footing with native speakers of the school language" (p. 241). Therefore, "large numbers of minority students in schools worldwide are at considerable risk of alienation, isolation, and failure because of the discourse and interactions that surround them on a daily basis"(Duff, 2002, p. 316). ELL students may not feel that they are full members of the mainstream classroom because of their language barrier. To be full members, they must be heard as speakers of the language used in the

classroom, and acknowledged as legitimate speakers of English (Miller, 1999; 2000). Miller (2000) states, "If students cannot be heard representing themselves and enacting social roles in ways that other students can recognize, a degree of exclusion from social interaction seems inevitable" (p. 73). These insights are helpful in understanding the relationship between language competence and social identity of an ELL student.

An identity as an ELL student indicates that the student has less English proficiency or a lack of language competence in a mainstream classroom (Kanno, 2000). For the ELL student, there is no choice other than to admit inferiority in language competence, even when classroom teachers try to place a positive value on the student's linguistic diversity, in order to encourage development of self-esteem. In reality, the current English-only medium of instruction does not give mainstream students a chance to value linguistic diversity in the classroom. Miller (1999) comments, "Not speaking English in a way that is acknowledged by other speakers of English, places … student[s] in a position of vulnerability and powerlessness, and makes the development of confidence problematic" (p.161). The language barrier may create ELL students' feelings of powerlessness, even in getting the help necessary to learn in the classrooms. Gersten (1999) reports, "the fear of failure, of making some mistake in grammar, pronunciation, or word order, was often great. Many [ELL] students played it safe and hesitated to volunteer" (p. 45). In terms of the language barrier, Miller (2000) reports on the isolation that a new ELL student feels in a mainstream classroom which includes:

> […] formidable barriers to John's [an ELL student's] academic success in the mainstream. What was it like, to sit for months in classes, for hours each day, not

> understanding what was being said, what was going on, or what was supposed to be done? (p. 92)

In Miller's study, an ELL student, John, was an outsider to classroom discourse because of his incompetence in the language. Ironically, compared with other students in his classroom, John had fewer opportunities to use English in his mainstream classroom, where English and English-speaking students were dominant. He found he was neither heard nor understood in the mainstream classroom. Miller states, "How are such students to acquire the majority language if they cannot participate in personal interactions with its speakers at school? These interactions are also essential for the acquisition of discourse and sociocultural rules" (p. 97). This point of view is congruent with the social development theory (Vygotsky, 1978; Wertsch, 1985), as well as, with the language socialization theory (Ochs, 1986; Schieffelin & Ochs, 1996). John-Steiner (1985) advances these assertions, saying that "when young immigrants experience a great social and emotional distance between themselves and speakers of a target language, their learning is likely to be inhibited by a sense of passivity or alienation" (p. 368). It is clear that peer social interactions are essential for ELL students to gain language competence, but their social distance from mainstream peers prevents them from becoming competent participants of the school community.

In this light, Duff (2002) reports her study of interaction analyses in classroom discussions. Duff states that silence of ELL students protects them from humiliation, while their classmates regard the silence as a lack of willingness to participate in classroom activities. The consequence of the ELL students' classroom behaviors is the stigma of appearing to be linguistically incompetent in their mainstream classrooms.

Butler and Gutierrez (2003) report another instance of negative perceptions toward ELL peers in mainstream classrooms in their case study of fourth graders in California. In their study, mainstream classmates were interviewed about their perceptions toward Spanish-speaking ELL students in their classrooms. The perceptions of native English-speaking students were that bilingualism was an asset as long as English was the dominant language. They also answered that it was hard for other people to understand the ELLs because Spanish speakers had an accent. Furthermore, "An ELL Spanish student in the classroom said, 'they don't really like the idea about Spanish people sometimes. Some people, they don't want to be Spanish because Spanish is not that good and English is better' " (p. 178). In their study, an ELL Vietnamese student in the classroom also reported that some students in her class imitated Vietnamese sounds and made fun of Vietnamese-speaking students. The study indicates that the linguistic majority-group members in the mainstream classroom may have negative perceptions toward their ELL peers. Another instance of the negative perceptions of majority group is reported by Kanno (2000), who relates a story from a Japanese ELL student in Canada. When the student had trouble with one of her classmates, she heard an insult, "Are you deaf or ESL?" (p. 375). Therefore, those students who are not confident in speaking English may rely on their first-language groups, which are ethnic and cultural groups, for social interaction at school if the groups exist there.

Ethnic and Cultural Identity

Campbell (2004) states that ethnic identity is a sociopolitical boundary distinguishing group membership. School systematically gives ELL students ethnic identities according to the students' linguistic and cultural backgrounds, race, and country

of origin. For example, their first languages are identified by a home language survey administered by the school in which they are enrolled (Tennessee State Department of Education, 2003). However, Aboud (1987) states that "ethnic self-identification is the sense of oneself as a member of an ethnic group, possessing attributes common to that ethnic group"(p. 32). In order to distinguish ethnic identity from ethnicity, Rotheram and Phinney (1987a) define it.

> *Ethnicity* refers to group patterns and *ethnic identity* refers to the individual's acquisition of group patterns. Ethnic identity is conceptually and functionally separate from one's personal identity as an individual, even though the two may reciprocally influence each other. (p. 13)

With respect to cultural identity, ELL students are called linguistic and cultural minorities. The term, cultural minority, conveys a message that being ethnic is considered as being un-American, which connotes devaluation of ethnic and cultural identities (Gibson, 1988; Urrieta & Quach, 2000). School can be a site for the construction of such ethnic and cultural identities. Cheng (1994) reports in her case study that,

> Kamphet [a little Laotian girl] … as soon as she entered preschool, she learned to speak English, often asking questions such as: "Why is my name so different?" or "Why do I not have blonde hair?" In her desire to be socially accepted, she was determined to learn English. … She often wondered why she was not invited to parties like some of the others in her class. (p. 167)

This instance indicates that ethnic and cultural identity is fragile and vulnerable in a mainstream community, in terms of power relations. ELL students often tend to feel that they are inferior to the mainstream culture in the classroom. Darder (1991) states,

> American schools predominantly reflect the values, worldview, and belief system of the dominant culture's middle and upper classes, while it neglects and ignores the lived experiences of subordinate cultures. Hence, students of color are silenced and their bicultural experiences negated and ignored, while they are systematically educated into the discourse of the dominant culture—an ethnocentric ideology that perceives the discourse of the other as inferior, invaluable [*sic*], and deficient in regard to the aims of American society. (p. 68)

Ethnic and cultural identity may make ELL students feel a sense of distance from peers in the mainstream culture.

Their feeling of the social distance may be developed with age. Children generally build up a sense of their own ethnic group membership after their schooling begins, and elementary school children generally tend to be less aware of the ethnic boundaries than high school students. Rotheram and Phinney (1987b) suggest that ethnic behavioral styles become more stable and differentiated with age. Elementary school children usually show little resistance mingling with students from different ethnic groups. At the high school level, however, students have a more keen sense of the ethnic boundaries, which makes it more difficult for ELL students to be acculturated or assimilated into mainstream classrooms (Duff, 2002; Kagan, 1986, Kanno, 2000). Miller (2000) makes a similar point, stressing the difficulty of high school students being

acculturated or assimilated into mainstream classrooms, such as in the case of a high school ELL student maintaining "his sense of otherness and social distance" (p. 94) from his mainstream peers. Miller states that ELL students sometimes have no English-speaking friends even after years of stay in this country. Such students may develop "a distinctive sense of themselves as a separate category, and as a marginal and inferior group" (Olneck, 2001, p. 319). However, as Phinney and Rotheram (1987) explain, children's ethnic socialization depends on the way ethnic groups are defined, the coherence of group, and support the group can provide such as social group organizations and language schools. Especially, Japanese ethnic groups often possess such support systems.

Asian Students and Community Forces

Asian students are typically seen as being diligent and successful, and they are described as being well adjusted, quiet, passive, and academically high-achievers. They are likely to invest in learning English as a second language; therefore, they attain academic success. Therefore, Asian students are likely to be perceived as model minority students in the classroom (Pang, 1995, p.412).

In line with successful Asians, Gibson (1988) reports her study of Punjabi immigrants in California. An element of the Punjabi immigrants was "their strong and positive sense of cultural identity, even superiority" (p. 171). According to Gibson's study, the Punjabis had high self-esteem, and it helped them minimize an impact of prejudice of the mainstream. They pursued "accommodation and acculturation without total assimilation" (p.173). Their "children are taught, furthermore, that responsibility for success or failure in school rests with the individual" (p.176). Therefore, the children

tried to set aside ethnic differences and competed as individuals, which led to their academic success. The parents' encouragement of their children to become self-motivated learners was one element of "community forces" (Gibson, 1991, p. 375).

According to Ogbu's (1999) cultural-ecological theory, Asian students (who are categorized as voluntary immigrants) enjoy higher academic attainment than those who are involuntarily placed in another cultural setting. The term, voluntary immigrants, refers to people who come to a host country by their choice, and the cultural-ecological theory explains two factors influencing minority students' school performance: "how society at large and the school treat minorities" and "how minority groups respond to those treatments and to schooling" (p. 156). He calls these two factors *the system* and *community forces*, respectively. He explains that voluntary immigrants, in contrast to involuntary immigrants, experience community forces that promote students' academic success. Their community forces are the following: voluntary immigrants assume that, even if they face discrimination, it is necessary to focus on the opportunity to learn knowledge and skills (Gibson, 1988, 1991), accepting the mainstream cultural norms in order to succeed in the host country (Finn, 1999; Foster, 2004). In short, " a strategy of accommodation, together with strong family support for education and an additive view of acculturation, helps immigrant minority students to transcend some of the barriers to their success in school" (Gibson, 1991, p. 372).

In a similar vein, Olneck (2001) examines the literature on immigrants and education. He reports that Asian students see their cultural differences from the mainstream as barriers to be overcome, which contrasts with Latino students whose cultural trait is characterized as an oppositional social identity that conveys rebellion

against the mainstream (see also Finn, 1999). On the other hand, Asian students sometimes give negative impressions to mainstream teachers and peers. Olneck (2001) states that their reticence of classroom participation is perceived as lack of interest, voluntarism, and initiative. "As a result of the quiet, docile way that children from this cultural background are taught to respond at home, often immigrant Asian students are less verbal and [less] expressive at social occasions" (Carrasquillo & Rodriguez, 2002, p. 44). For example, even when they know the answers to the teacher's questions, they try not to volunteer to answer the questions. Therefore, Asian students generally lack the social skills to allow them to interact with teachers and peers.

Teacher's Treatment of Language-Minority Students

Generally, teachers like hard working, responsive, and high-achieving students and respond more favorably to such students (Brophy & Good, 1974). Besides, teachers' perceptions of a student's academic achievements are often related to the student's social class, language use, and ethnic background. Teachers tend to express their expectations for students by differential treatment based on certain aspects of students such as race, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, and language competence. Minority children easily fall in a lesser of each of those categories. For example, teachers interact with language-minority students less frequently and spend more time interacting with students for whom they have higher expectations. Then, the teachers' attitudes, transmitted as learning expectations, play a crucial role in promoting students' achievement in school (Boyd, 1989; Brophy & Good, 1974; Cheng, 1994; Persell, 1977). Regarding differential treatment of students, Losey (1997) reports that teachers praise and encourage Anglo students more than Mexican-American students. Losey's study shows that teachers'

differential treatment of students is another source of difference of classroom interactions, added to the theory of cultural mismatch between home and school. "Alienation from the social organization of the classroom decreases students' participation in academic activities and students' opportunities to learn, thus leading to a much poorer performance over time"(Trueba, Jacobs, & Kirton, 1990, p.87).

According to Wong (2000), classroom teachers sometimes provide students labeled low-achievers with low-quality instructions, including ELL students. For example, when the teachers work with lower reading groups including ELL students, they do not have high expectations for those students' performances. Therefore, the teachers give those students instructions for lower-level thinking and undemanding assignments such as rote memory and repetitive worksheets. Furthermore, teachers may "underestimate the capabilities of language-minority students. As a result of this underestimation, these children are relegated to lessons that do not facilitate their educational and intellectual advancement"(Diaz, Moll, & Mehan, 1986, p. 225). For instance, teachers may give reading instruction that only provides ELL students with mechanical tasks of decoding or phonics, instead of comprehension exercises. Trueba, Jacobs, and Kirton (1990) report, "Most of their group [lower reading group] instruction time was spent in spelling and workbook activities supervised by the aide"(p. 82). This hinders the students' academic advancement since they are usually put in a low reading ability group.

In addition, mainstream classroom teachers may perceive language-minority students' behaviors as frustrating and confusing because the behaviors do not match the teachers' cultural expectations (Trueba, Jacobs, & Kirton, 1990). Therefore, teachers

allow the students to remain on the sidelines, and sometimes, even label them as learning-disabled students because of their initial adjustment problems (Erickson, 1986). Such judgments made by teachers are integrated into the students' self-esteem, and their sense of marginality is reinforced (Olneck, 2001).

Given that some teachers inappropriately treat specific students as discussed above, it is clear that such teachers' attitudes toward ELL children may have an influence on peer perceptions, interactions, and their self-esteem. Cowie, Smith, Boulton, and Laver (1994) state that when the classroom teachers treated language-minority students negatively (e. g., not involving them in group activities, ignoring their attempt at contributions to the class, and assuming their inability of English), the created negative peer perceptions would cause teasing or taunting of the language-minority children. Further, such situations may also result in discouraging the students' participation and lowering their self-esteem since they face embarrassing failures in the classrooms (Trueba, Jacobs, & Kirton, 1990). Therefore, it is clear that teachers have a great responsibility for creating positive social identities of language-minority children in the mainstream classroom.

Status Treatments by Teachers

Children can ascertain who appears to be more academically able and who is less able by the end of elementary school. At the same time, teachers' behaviors have significant effects on the improvement of self-esteem and social development of ELL students. Teachers can have substantial impact on how students feel about these differences (Slavin, 1997).

With regard to classroom participation of ELL students, their classroom status is a significant predictor. As strategies for producing equal-status interactions in the classroom, two status interventions are described in the literature: multiple-ability treatment and assigning competence to low-status students (Cohen, 2004; Cohen & Lotan, 1997). In a multiple-ability treatment, the classroom teacher discusses with students the fact that there are many different intellectual abilities needed to complete collective tasks, and explains that each student will be good at least one. If this treatment is successful, peer expectations, based on peer and academic status, can be modified. In the other intervention of assigning competence to low-status students, the teacher positively evaluates a student's performance so that the class will believe that the student's ability is consistent with the teacher's evaluation. The student is more likely to volunteer a response than students who have not received positive evaluations from the teacher. Then, this belief may affect the student's competence in classroom tasks. The key is to help the student achieve notable public success. Accordingly, this affirms the students' identity. If this treatment is successful, not only will the class accept the teacher's evaluation of the low-status student as being competent, but also the student can gain a sense of self-esteem and competence.

However, status treatment is not enough to facilitate ELLs' equal-status interactions in the classroom. Wilcox (1982) states, "education is primarily a process of cultural transmission" (p. 275). The organizational pattern of schooling is part of cultural transmission. Therefore, ELL students are challenged to learn such an organizational pattern as school culture to be full members of the school community and attain their academic success.

The Hidden Curriculum

The *hidden curriculum* includes various characteristics of schooling that students and teachers within the dominant culture take for granted in the mainstream classrooms. Gearing and Epstein (1982) explain the hidden curriculum as being "any set of unspoken but acted-out assumptions which is about the underlying nature of a classroom or school" (p. 243). Furthermore, Schnee and Hayness (2004) state that social skills at school are included in the hidden curriculum, which reflects a value system of the society. The hidden curriculum is everything about the school that exists behind the academic curriculum. If ELL students fail to acquire the knowledge of the hidden curriculum, they cannot fully participate in the classroom and have trouble with their classmates and teachers. Consequently, the failure of their participation may impede the development of a satisfying persona for the students. Thus, ELL students are challenged to acquire knowledge about the hidden curriculum in order to become cross-culturally competent. ELL students must understand the hidden curriculum if they want to be full members of the school community and succeed academically and socially (Cheng & Chang, 1995).

While children want to take on the identity of a good and successful student, children from minority cultures experience cultural devaluation at school. Some may fail academically or withdraw by becoming passive unless they quickly learn the school culture. Therefore, mastering elements of the hidden curriculum is critical for the students. These include the following:

1) Participative competence: Students respond appropriately to class task demands and to the procedural rules for accomplishing them.

2) Interactional competence: Students respond appropriately both to classroom rules of discourse and to social rules of discourse, interacting appropriately with peers and adults while accomplishing class tasks.
3) Academic competence: Students are able to acquire new skills, assimilate new information and construct new concepts. (Carrasquillo, 2002, p.14)

ELL students may have difficulty identifying the hidden curriculum from the start of their school days in order to join as members of the mainstream classroom. If they fail to attain the knowledge of the hidden curriculum, they will be labeled as incompetent in the mainstream classrooms. In order to discuss further learning circumstances of specific ELL children—Japanese ELL children, I will present the differences between U.S. and Japanese classrooms in the following sections.

Differences between U.S. and Japanese Classrooms

In terms of cultural tendencies, I will contrast U.S. classroom practices with those of Japanese classrooms as documented in the literature. These are divided into four topics: classroom expectations, teachers' control, teachers' attitudes toward students, and cultural orientations.

Classroom Expectations

Brophy and Good (1974) define teacher expectations as "inferences that teachers make about the present and future academic achievement and general classroom behavior of their students" (p. 32). Classroom expectations are different between Japan and the U.S. Therefore, there are differences in students' classroom behaviors. Also, the differences of classroom discourse between the U.S. and Japan can be identified. For instance, American teachers generally give extra weight to the social function of talk in

developing the pupil's confidence, and encourage independence, achievement, and fulfilling individual needs (Alexander, 2003; Trumbull, Rothstein-Fisch, & Greenfield, 2001), while Japanese teachers traditionally expect students to learn by listening. That is, American teachers prefer students who speak out more often and exhibit competitiveness in the classroom than those who do not (Cheng, 1994).

According to Shimahara and Sakai (1995), U.S. elementary classrooms emphasize cognitive development over students' social, emotional, and physical development, whereas Japanese elementary classrooms show equal concerns with cognitive, mental, and physical development along with moral development. That is, teachers' expectation is embedded in the whole-person education in Japan.

Teacher's Control

American classrooms have many rules described in detail that regulate student behaviors. I found classroom rules posted on a Website of Central Elementary (2004) through the Internet; most school web sites have a page of classroom rules explained in detail. The following is an example of classroom rules shown at the Website:

- Respond to the classroom signal immediately—Give me five.
- Respect yourself, others, and school property.
- Raise your hand to speak—Wait until your name is called to answer.
- Listen quietly when directions are given.
- Keep hands and feet to yourself.

Consequences—if you choose to break a rule

- Severe disruption: student sent immediately to the office.

- You will have the chance to have a check removed from your name if no checks are given in a thirty minute time period (Central Elementary, 2004).

These statements seem to emphasize strict control of teachers over students. However, it can be said that these U.S. classrooms are categorized as working-class schools or middle-class schools in general, where the teachers make an effort not to lose control over their students, the statements above show a pattern of control and much detail: sanctions to be taken against students (Finn, 1999). Another way of controlling students in the U.S. is to provide little time and space for student activities outside the classroom. For example, the break time between classes is only five minutes, in which students move to another classroom to attend the next class. During recess time, teachers usually stand on the playground to watch students. U.S. teachers exercise control over students' time, activities, and space by regulating and monitoring them closely. U.S. teachers also exert their authority to control students, while Japanese teachers tend to appeal to students' sense of guilt, which is cultivated through Japan's moral education. U.S. teachers tend to restrict peer interactions in the classrooms, whereas Japanese teachers promote peer interactions so that students learn to be members of a group (Shimahara & Sakai, 1995).

Japanese classrooms are generally less dependent on rules explained in detail. A sense of trust and interpersonal relations between the teacher and students, as well as among the students, are a key to classroom management. The classroom is perceived as group having interpersonal relations essential for an effective learning environment. Japanese teachers also rely on student self-governing routines established by whole-school practices in the formation of children's attitude toward order in a large collective group, such as a Monday morning school assembly:

> At 8:30 A.M., … all students were expected to line up promptly in several rows, grade by grade, on the school playground in less than two minutes. … Every child was expected to stand straight, and no talking was allowed during this process. When all students lined up in front of their teachers, the principal went up to the podium to greet them and gave a speech …. Not only the morally inclined messages communicated to the children, but also their attitudes and behavior in a large collective setting. (Shimahara & Sakai, 1995, p. 180)

Teachers' Attitudes toward Students

Another component of the differences between U.S. and Japanese classroom interactions comes from the difference in teachers' attitudes towards students. Brophy and Good (1974) state that "general attitudes stem from the teacher's personality and his definition of his role as a teacher"(p. 130). There are some differences of the definition of teacher's role between U.S. and Japan. According to Okano and Tsuchiya (1999), Japanese teachers go beyond the job that American teachers consider as being a teacher's role. For instance, even outside of the classroom, Japanese teachers join children and share time when they play on the playground at recess, rather than just supervise and monitor them. They are concerned with students' behavioral problems outside school and they visit each student's home to become familiar with the students' parents. Japanese teachers seek personal information about their students in order to understand them, build relationships, and bond with them. Understanding each other as a whole person is considered to be important, and this leads to the fostering of empathy in the Japanese classroom. Thus, Japanese students feel close to their teachers in the classroom. In contrast, American teachers value students' development of independence. Consequently,

American teachers' attitudes make teachers detached from their students (Shimahara & Sakai, 1995).

According to Okano and Tsuchiya (1999), Japanese teachers pay more attention to slow learners. They explain that most Japanese teachers tend to teach their lessons at the level of their below-average students, while most American teachers teach at the level of their above-average students. The rationale behind this fact can be clarified: Whereas U.S. teachers want to facilitate individual learning, Japanese teachers want to keep the students as a group at the same level and have them step up as a whole; therefore, the teachers have to give instructions conducive to that goal. In the next section, I will discuss the differences in the cultural tendencies of schooling between the U.S. and Japan.

Individualism and Collectivism as Cultural Tendencies

Kubota (2001) shows how images of U.S. classrooms are *discursively* constructed, indicating "a particular representation of the Self as the ideal norm is produced in contrast with the Other" (p. 9). In a similar vein, Voronov and Singer (2002) critically view the dimension of individualism vs. collectivism. The authors state that "I-C [Individualism-Collectivism] appears to have been overused and misused … the relationships were assumed rather than measured" (p. 468). They argue, "Researchers must aim to capture the complexities of human behavior and understand its interaction with the larger socioecological context" (p.476). Therefore, I will describe the cultural differences between the U.S. and Japan as existing cultural tendencies.

In individualistic cultures of U. S. classrooms, personal achievement and competition among individuals are accepted and reinforced. They value "individual accomplishment, completion, and independence from the group" (Rotheram & Phinney,

1987b, p.202). School practices in the U.S. embrace individualism as being fundamental to the society. By comparison, Japanese society may be based on collectivism, giving the group priority over the individual. It emphasizes affiliation, cooperation, and interpersonal relationships (Rotheram & Phinney, 1987b). People in such a society need human interdependence to achieve a common goal. According to Alexander (2003), "collectivism is reflected in common knowledge, common ideals, a single curriculum for all, and emphasis on national culture rather than pluralism and multiculture, and on learning together rather than in isolation"(p. 25).

In terms of classroom expectations, Yamauchi (1998) states that a collectivistic culture tends to allocate resources equally regardless of the contributions of individuals, whereas an individualistic culture tends to distribute resources based on individual contributions. In a collectivistic culture, a group takes the responsibility for the group members; thus, even if a group member cannot contribute, the rest of the members take care of him/her in order to maintain group harmony. Students from collectivistic cultures also may not want to cause conflict by appearing smarter than others. Since group harmony is important in collectivistic cultures, students from such cultures tend to withhold the expression of negative emotions and use less direct verbal communication than individualistic cultures. In Japan, a classroom is a group. Group consciousness and group solidarity are a part of the hidden curriculum in Japan. Schooling plays a role in developing peer solidarity and reinforcing individual identity within the group (Singleton, 1989).

In contrast with American individualism in the classroom that encourages the individualization of learning, instruction in the classroom of Japan aims to keep students

at the same level. Furthermore, Japanese student task groups take charge of school lunches, and small groups are assigned areas for the cleaning of school facilities. The responsibility within a group binds the group members (Shimahara & Sakai, 1995). Group activities contribute to the maintenance of cohesiveness in the classroom, which shows the ideal of collectivism in Japan.

Another feature of collectivism in Japan is identified in the issue of school bullying. The difficulty in identifying bullying resides in the collectivistic culture in the classrooms. That is, classmates know who is bullied, but the classroom teacher does not understand the reality of the bullying. Nobody who witnesses bullying incidents in the Japanese classroom reports them to the teacher, since doing so means that one is functioning outside of classroom conformity, which is a tacit rule: everybody behaves the same. As a result, "homeroom teachers, for example, incorrectly believed that their classes had no incidence of bullying (40 per cent at primary schools, 30 per cent at middle schools and 70 per cent at high schools)" (Okano & Tsuchiya, 1999, p.198).

On the other hand, it should be noted that a classroom activity setting might emphasize more individual or collectivistic orientations, depending on its system of rewards and incentives and the discourse patterns that are expected and promoted. Crystal (2000) reports a research study that investigated the difference in the concepts of deviance and disturbance between American and Japanese children, based on individualism and collectivism paradigms. Crystal found that "notions of 'individualism' and 'collectivism' are relatively fluid and can change depending on the specific domain, research question, or age of the respondents" (p. 214). In addition, there exists an amount of variation within a cultural group. Some individuals may strongly show behavioral

styles typical to their group, but others may not. Therefore, although common features within a culture can be identified, it is important to avoid stereotyping and remember that within any given culture, individual situations may vary (Trumbull, Rothstein-Fisch, & Greenfield, 2001).

Kubota (2001) emphasizes that "common understandings of a particular culture are not mirror reflections of objective truths but are constructed by discourses" (p. 10). She argues,

> We have tended to perceive ourselves as the norm and exercise our power to keep us superior to, and thus different from, other cultures. We need to understand how the notion of cultural differences is produced and exploited to justify certain ways of thinking and certain relations of power. (p. 32)

Therefore, the differences of classroom expectations and teachers' attitudes between the U.S. and Japan can be subject to individual perspectives.

Anxiety of ELLs' Parents

Most parents wish for their children's well-being at school. When they have some anxiety about this, they may want to contact the teachers. Nevertheless, some parents of ELL students may believe that it is not appropriate to bother teachers with questions about their children's school progress. Others may feel a social distance from the school community because of their insufficient English proficiency. Most parents of ELL students may not be aware of what is best for their children in terms of their children's development of language and cognition (Brice, 1994). However, they may be anxious to get information about it. The following narrative description shows how the

author, as an ELL parent, felt during a beginning period of time in the UK, where the family had just newly arrived from Japan:

> Our worries seem endless in spite of his [the mother's son] good English because of our lack of knowledge about the National Curriculum, and lack of enough up-to-date information about his school. I find it very difficult to appreciate how much he can understand, what he has studied … and how my son is coping with his friends … Nobody seems to know where we are going …. (Shibata, 1998, p. 114-115).

Therefore, schools should give proper guidance for those parents as well as school expectations for ELL students. The *Tennessee English as a Second Language Program Guide* (Tennessee State Department of Education, 2003) suggests that teachers should "provide classroom orientation, including orientation to procedures, text, assignments, evaluation and expected behaviors" (p. 3.16) for newly-arrived ELL students. The orientation should also be provided for the parents of the ELL students in order to reduce their anxieties.

Chapter Summary

I have reviewed sociocultural and critical literature and discussed how classroom interactions influence the development of language-minority children. My perspective is based on the social development theory by Vygotsky (1978) and the language socialization theory by Shieffelin and Ochs (1986), both of which emphasize the importance of the social interactions in the development of children. The perspectives of the sociocultural and critical researchers resonate well in this study. In order to discuss learning circumstances of specific ELL children that I focused on, I have included

literature on the differences between U.S. and Japanese classrooms. The next chapter will present the methods and procedures used to collect data for this study.

CHAPTER III: METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Introduction

I used naturalistic inquiry in this study in order to capture the participants' perspectives in contextualized natural settings. Data were collected and analyzed in a recursive cycle that helped me know what I was finding and not finding as the study unfolded (Hatch, 2002). I will provide readers with rich, contextualized descriptions of the findings in Chapter IV.

In the following sections, I discuss the methods and procedures of the study. I begin with the selection of methodology, followed by discussions of my rationale, participants, research contexts, entry and access to the research contexts, data collection, data analysis, and methodological issues.

Research Questions

My research questions are:

1. What are Japanese ELL students' perspectives on attending school in mainstream classrooms?
2. What are the Japanese parents' perspectives on their children's school lives and language development?

Selection of Methodology

My research methodology is a naturalistic inquiry (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Regarding the term, naturalistic inquiry, Lincoln and Guba explain that "naturalistic inquiry is always carried out, logically enough, in a natural setting, since context is so heavily implicated in meaning" (p. 187). I designed my study on the foundation of constructivist assumptions. Ontologically, I assume that multiple realities exist in the

world, which are constructed by individuals. Epistemologically, I assume that knowledge is subjectively constructed through mutual engagement in the process of co-construction of realities. According to Hatch (2002), constructivist methods include naturalistic inquiry, in which a researcher studies individuals in their natural settings in order to make sense of those individuals' behaviors and to understand their realities and represent the construction of their realities. In this naturalistic inquiry, I conducted in-depth interviews and observations in natural settings in order to understand the participants' perspectives.

Rationale for the Selection of the Methodology

I took naturalistic qualitative inquiry as my research methodology because of the following reasons. First, my research questions are best explored and answered using naturalistic qualitative inquiry. Contexts and local meanings play a crucial role in finding answers to those kinds of research questions. That is, a naturalistic inquiry allows a combination of contextual descriptions and interpretations to communicate to the readers (Merriam, 1988). Second, through a naturalistic qualitative study, I can capture the participants' perspectives in natural settings and present them in their own voices (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). Based on constructivist assumptions that knowledge is "constructed in and out of interaction between human beings and their world, and developed and transmitted within an essentially social context" (Crotty, 1998, p.42), my research participants and I became interlocked through the research process, which is important to me as a constructivist researcher. Finally, my goal is to demonstrate plausibility for the assertions in my findings, resulting from systematic data collection and data analysis. In order to present clear pictures of my assertions, I provide narrative descriptions from field notes and direct quotes from interviews (Erickson, 1986). A qualitative study opens a

way toward this goal. Therefore, naturalistic qualitative inquiry is a powerful and effective methodology for this study.

Lincoln and Guba (1985) state that humans can be "the major form of data collection device" (p. 250) and that naturalistic inquiry demands a human instrument, which is "appropriate to humanly implemented inquiry: interviews, observations, document analysis, unobtrusive clues, and the like" (p. 187). Merriam (1988) also argues that "humans are best-suited for this task [a qualitative research inquiry] —and best when using methods that make use of human sensibilities such as interviewing, observing, and analyzing" (p. 3). Humans are equipped to complete the tasks of a qualitative inquiry because they understand how humans make sense of the world (Merriam, 1988). It was necessary to draw on my inferential ability and human sensitivity to conduct interviews, observations, and analyses in order to understand participants' perspectives. I collected data by in-depth interviews and observations in natural settings in order to understand my research participants' realities and represent the construction of their realities. A naturalistic qualitative inquiry was used because of my intrinsic interest in the particular population of Japanese ELL children previously described.

Participants

The participants in my study were five Japanese ELL children, their mothers, and two mainstream classroom teachers. I interviewed the five students and their mothers as well as the two teachers who teach those children in mainstream classrooms. I selected five 5th grade Japanese ELL children. They were two girls and three boys, whose age range was 10 to 11 years old. In fall of the year 2005 and spring of 2006 when the interviews and classroom observation occurred, the five children were enrolled in the 5th

grade of an intermediate school in the Masonville City School District. The reason why I chose 5th graders was because I assumed that they were old enough to answer my interview questions. I utilized the information from an enrollment list of East Tennessee Japanese Saturday School students to select the children who were in the 5th grade and attending the intermediate school. I had been working at East Tennessee Japanese Saturday School since April 2001. Therefore, I could gather information concerning the participant students without asking for status-oriented information such as age, home address, and parents' occupations (see Davies, 1982) in the interviews. Besides, I had already developed a good rapport with the participant students, which facilitated gathering information that I needed. I also had opportunities to meet the parents at the Japanese Saturday School in person.

In order to protect the rights of the participants, I obtained approval of the Institutional Review Board of The University of Tennessee and obtained informed consent from the participants. Since "participants are the ultimate gatekeepers" (Hatch, 2002, p. 51), I made an effort to establish and maintain good working relationships with the participants. In order for the participants to be comfortable during the research study, I provided opportunities for them to ask questions about the research process and asked how they perceived it. I also offered an opportunity for the participants to give feedback on the findings following data analysis (Hatch, 2002).

Contexts

The research site was Masonville Intermediate School (pseudonym) in the Masonville City School District in which the Japanese ELL students were enrolled. In the Masonville City School District, there are four elementary schools, one intermediate

school, one middle school, and one high school. Among those schools, I selected the above-mentioned intermediate school because it enrolled Japanese children whose ages were appropriate for this study.

In Masonville, Tennessee, there is a Japanese electronics company, to which Japanese workers have come with their families to work for several years. The families typically have two or three children whose ages run from kindergarten to high school. The Japanese community runs a Japanese Saturday school in Masonville, called the Tennessee Japanese Saturday School. As of December, 2004, the enrollment at the Japanese Saturday school consisted of 22 kindergarteners, 114 elementary school students, 37 middle school students, and 14 high school students (Japan Overseas Educational Services, 2004). All of these students were also concurrently enrolled in public schools in East Tennessee.

Entry and Access to the Research Contexts

When I obtained permission to conduct the proposed research study from the director of the school district, the principals, and the classroom teachers, I kept in mind that educational settings always have complex professional, social, and political contexts (Hatch, 2002). The initial gatekeepers were the Director of the Masonville City School District and the Principal of Masonville Intermediate School. I used the following steps for entry and access to the research contexts:

1. I contacted Director of the Masonville City School District in order to obtain formal permission to conduct the research at the Masonville Intermediate School. I sent him an email with an attachment of my research proposal in order to introduce the purpose of this study, participants, a period of time to conduct the

research, research procedures, and a projected final product of the research study. He mailed me his official letter of permission to conduct the study.

2. I contacted the principal of Masonville Intermediate School. I sent her an email with an attachment of my research proposal in order to introduce the purpose of the study, participants, research procedures, a schedule for classroom observations and teacher interviews, and a projected final product of the study. She mailed me her official letter of research permission.
3. I submitted the IRB (Institutional Review Board) Form B with copies of the permission letters from the director of the Masonville City School District and the principal of Mary Intermediate School to the office of Institutional Review Board at The University of Tennessee in order to obtain approval for the research study.
4. I contacted the ultimate gatekeepers: the five Japanese ELL children, their mothers, and the two mainstream classroom teachers.
    - I contacted the five parent participants of the five selected Japanese ELL students, initially, by giving them a phone call and explaining the purpose of my study, the period of the research, the research procedures, and the projected final product of the study.
    - I met each of them in person, explained the research study in detail, and asked the parents for informed consent to conduct interviews with them and observations of their children in the mainstream classroom. Then, I explained the study to the children and asked for their assent to conduct classroom observations and interviews with them. I clarified to both the parents and the children that participation was voluntary. The five

parents gave me their signed study participation consent forms in both Japanese and English.

- I sent the two teachers an email with an attachment of my research proposal in order to introduce the purpose of the study, participants, research procedures, a schedule for classroom observations and teacher interviews, and a projected final product of the study. I made an appointment with the teachers to explain the research in detail. I obtained their signed study participation consent after explaining the study and clarifying that participation was voluntary.

Through these steps for entry and access to the research contexts, the plan went through without major obstacles.

Data Collection

I collected data over the period of fall and spring semesters in the 2005-2006 school year, focusing on individual interviews with the five Japanese students, their mothers, and the two teachers. The Japanese students and their mothers were interviewed in Japanese, which is their first language and that of the researcher. I focused on a small number of participants in order to obtain in-depth data from each participant. I also collected data from classroom observations using detailed field notes. Data collection and data analysis were organized and processed systematically. As Hatch (2002) recommends, I conducted data collection and data analysis in an on-going fashion, following a recursive cycle, which was conducive to productivity in that I was able to know what I was finding and not finding for the study. The recursive process and flexibility in these stages enriched the information collected. The interviews with the five

students and their mothers consisted of two individual interviews with a duration of 30-35 minutes for each student and 40-70 minutes for each mother. These took place at two- to three-month intervals at a time and place arranged for their convenience. During the interval between the first and second interviews, I analyzed the data from the first interviews. Then, I created guiding questions for the second interviews, based on the data analysis of the first interviews. When I planned the interviews with each of the five students, I was concerned about whether they were able to respond to my open-ended questions. Davies (1982) makes a similar point, saying that 'I don't know' is "an easy way out of not answering my questions, or evasion" (p. 32). If the children did not know any appropriate words to express their thoughts, they might say 'I don't know.' Therefore, while the parents were present during interviews with the children, I asked them to help their children answer my questions in order to avoid 'I don't know'-answers. In the interviews, I explained to each of the parents about how to help their children answer to my questions: When the children seemed to want to answer to my question and to be looking for any appropriate words to express their own thoughts, the parents could offer some words that were likely to express the children's thoughts. Then, if the words were what the children were looking for, I could understand the children's thoughts.

I asked the parents for information about their concerns regarding their children's school lives and language development in Japanese and English (See Appendix B). I interviewed the five students regarding their feelings and concerns about their school lives (See Appendix A). I also interviewed each teacher twice in Fall 2005 and Spring 2006. The interviews, about 40 minutes long each, were semi-structured interviews and were audio taped. The interviews took place after school in the classroom

of each of the teachers. I asked for information on how the teachers dealt with concerns arising from teaching the Japanese ELL children in their mainstream classrooms (See Appendix C and D). Also, five informal classroom observations occurred at Tennessee Japanese Saturday School, where the students attended Saturdays for supplemental lessons of Japanese curriculum.

During the period of four months, I generated field notes by recording classroom interactions between the participant children and their teachers. I conducted 10 unobtrusive classroom observations of each of the participant children, resulting in 10 classroom observations of a language arts class and 20 classroom observations of a social studies class. Each classroom observation consisted of a class period of 50 minutes. The classroom teachers were informed of my observational visits well in advance.

The field notes were filled in during and after observations. I added information to the raw notes as subsequent reflections after observation. Erickson (1986) explains the importance of the reflection: "There is no substitute for the reflection during fieldwork that comes from time spent with the original field notes, writing them up in a more complete form, with analytic insights recorded in them" (p. 144). In addition, following Hatch's (2002) suggestion, I kept a research journal on a daily basis for writing impressions, preliminary interpretations of the record of the field notes, and created record of information from informal conversations at the research sites.

The interviews were semi-structured, formal interviews made up of mainly open-ended questions. I was open to following the leads of interviewees and probed into areas that arose during the interviews, with a broader focus in mind in order to gather in-depth information of the interviewees' perspectives (Hatch, 2002).

I transcribed interview data from the audiotapes into text. Regarding observation data, I processed field notes into research protocols by filling in with more complete descriptions, based on my memory, as soon after the observation as possible.

Data Analysis

As a framework for a systematic data analysis strategy, I conducted "inductive analysis" (Hatch, 2002, P. 161). Inductive process begins with specific elements, then pulling them together as a pattern. I followed steps of inductive analysis suggested by Hatch (2002).

At first, I read through the interview data, the observation data, and the research journals, keeping the research questions in mind:

1. What are Japanese ELL students' perspectives on attending school in mainstream classrooms?
2. What are the Japanese parents' perspectives on their children's school lives and language development?

Next, I reread the data, focusing on each of the individual Japanese student participants. I divided the data on each of them into parts by identifying segments containing single ideas, using a computer word processor program. I created domains by examining semantic relationships among the segmented ideas. Then, I identified salient domains, assigned those domains codes, and put other domains aside in order to reduce the data. After that, I created an outline format on a word processor. I refined salient domains by rereading the data, and kept a record of the places where relationships were found in the data. I verified that the domains were supported by the data, in other words, whether the data were strong enough to make a case. I explored each of the salient domains,

searching for the possibility of reorganizing the domain elements. Then, I searched for themes that ran across the domains by looking for similarities and differences among the domains. At this stage, the following domains were explored: the beginning of the children's U.S. schooling, parental support, academic performance of the children, cultural differences they experienced, peer relationships, the children's situations in the classroom, bonds among the children, and anxiety over the development in Japanese. I wrote a short summary of what has been found and created a master outline organizing the domains. Finally, I selected data excerpts to support elements in the outline.

As Hatch (2002) recommends, I started data analysis soon after data collection began. Data analysis and data collection were conducted in a recursive cycle that allowed me to know what I was finding or not finding. Using the framework of inductive data analysis, I found the voices of the participants in this study.

Methodological Issues

Lincoln and Guba (1985) provide details for establishing trustworthiness of naturalistic inquiry. Patton (2002) explains about credibility issue of qualitative methods. The discussion in this section centers on issues of generalizability and reliability, triangulation, and ethical issues of research.

Generalizability and Reliability of Case Studies

Constructivist researchers who conduct qualitative case studies are interested in understanding and interpreting their participants' perspectives. I selected the particular case of Japanese ELL children in the mainstream classrooms. By concentrating on the particular case, this naturalistic inquiry revealed significant factors that explained unique characteristics of the particular phenomenon. This particularistic nature is a

distinguishing quality of case studies. Janesick (2000) comments on generalizability and reliability in case study research:

> Traditional thinking about generalizability falls short, and in fact may do serious damage to individual persons. The traditional view of generalizability limits the ability to reconceptualize the role of social science in education and human services. In addition, the whole history of case study research in anthropology, education, sociology, and history stands solidly on its merits. In fact, the value of the case study is its uniqueness; consequently, reliability in the traditional sense of replicability is pointless here. (p. 394)

This clear statement of case studies describes what a qualitative case study is all about. Therefore, this qualitative case study to explore unique experiences in highly contextual settings is neither intended for generalizability nor designed for research replicability. However, I present the case with sufficient details "so that the reader can make good comparisons" (Stake, 2000, p. 444) with other cases, which may result in learning from the particular case.

Triangulation and Participant Validation

In constructivism, "the traditional positivist criteria of internal and external validity are replaced by such terms as *trustworthiness* and *authenticity*" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000, p. 158). In order to claim trustworthiness and authenticity in this research study, I used triangulation and participant validation (Silverman, 2001).

Regarding triangulation, Denzin (1989) explains four types of triangulation: data triangulation, investigator triangulation, theory triangulation, and Methodological (within- and between-method) triangulation. I used data triangulation and within-method

triangulation in this study. That is, the data sources were the participant students, parents, and teachers. As within-method triangulation, I conducted interviews and classroom observations.

According to Stake (2000), "triangulation has been generally considered a process of using multiple perceptions to clarify meaning"(p. 443). As Stake states, the purpose of triangulation is to verify and extend information gathered by using multiple sources, that is, to use multiple perceptions to reduce misinterpretation. Hatch (2002) states,

> When particular social phenomena are under investigation, having data from a variety of sources can be very powerful. Here the intent may not be to explicitly follow up on one source with data from another but to collect data on the same phenomenon from a variety of sources. (p. 133)

In this study, data from interviews with the five students, their mothers, and the two teachers triangulated each other. Data from classroom observations also served to triangulate data from the interviews with the participants. Regarding participant validation, I presented to each of the participants the findings from the data collected from each participant and verified that the findings reflected his/her view appropriately.

Ethical Issues

My research participants included children, mothers, and schoolteachers. Regarding minor participants, Koocher and Keith-Spiegel (1994) stated, "the concept of obtaining a minor's assent acknowledges the child's right to know that she is a subject of a research study and has the right to accept or reject this opportunity to be intruded upon" (p. 65). When I obtained permission from the children, I explained my study in understandable language to each of the children. I understand children's vulnerability

and respect their rights. Therefore, when I asked the children, their mothers, and the classroom teachers for participation in the study, I clearly informed them of my research purpose and procedures as well as the fact that participation was always voluntary. I also assured them of the protection of the privacy of the participants and maintained the confidentiality of data. No reference was made in oral or written reports that could link the participants to the study. I explained to the participants "the steps taken to maximize confidentiality and minimize risk" (Erickson, 1986, p. 142). In addition, although I entered research contexts with an intense interest in personal views and circumstances, I kept in mind that I was a guest in the participants' private space of the world (Stake, 2000).

Chapter Summary

This chapter addressed methods and procedures of the study. Using a foundation of constructivist assumptions, I collected data through individual interviews and classroom observations. I conducted inductive data analyses. From the beginning of this study, I maintained flexibility in order to accomplish it. The next chapter will present the analysis of the data collected through the study.

CHAPTER IV: ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the "inductive analysis" (Hatch, 2002, p. 161), which helped me search for overarching themes across data domains (Hatch, 2002). The chapter begins with a brief description of the participants, followed by my presentation of results from individual case analyses of the student participants and cross-case analyses. In order to answer my research questions, I started the data analysis focusing on each of the five student participants: Kimi, Sana, Yuji, Ryo, and Ken. After I completed the individual case analyses, I conducted a cross-case analysis through which I identified five themes: differences of school cultural tendencies, emotional support of friends and teachers, identity and self-confidence, parental support and access to resources, and anxiety over the children's development in Japanese. In order to show glimpses of participant perspectives, I will present selected excerpts from interview transcripts and field notes with them.

Brief Description of the Participants

Five Japanese students in the fifth grade, their mothers, and two classroom teachers participated in this study. Table 1 provides a brief description of the five Japanese students' names, genders, their status in their respective ELL programs, their dates of arrival to the U.S., their expected dates for leaving the U.S., their levels of language arts class, and levels of math class. More detailed descriptions of these participants will appear later in this chapter. Pseudonyms were assigned to participants to protect their anonymity.

Table 1

The Japanese Student Participants

Name[a]	ELL program	Date of the arrival to the U.S.	Expected date of leaving the U.S.	Level of Language Arts class[b]	Level of Math class[b]	Teachers of students
Kimi (Female)	Exited in 2 years and half (started in Kindergarten)	July, 2000 (kindergarten)	June, 2006	1	1	Ms. Forest (language arts)
Sana (Female)	Enrolled	May, 2003 (the 3rd grade)	June, 2007	ELL[b]	2	Mr. Moll (social studies)
Yuji (Male)	Exited in 2 years (started in the 2nd grade)	July, 2002 (the 2nd grade)	Sometime in 2008	1	1	Mr. Moll (social studies)
Ryo (Male)	Enrolled	July, 2003 (the 3rd grade)	May, 2007	ELL	1	Mr. Moll (social studies)
Ken (Male)	Enrolled	December, 2004 (the 4th grade)	Sometime in 2008	ELL	2	Mr. Moll (social studies)

[a] All names are pseudonyms.

[b] ELL is an abbreviation for English Language Learners, who do not attend a regular Language Arts class.

1 indicates the highest achievement class of the three classes divided by reading test scores.

All five student participants attend mainstream classrooms at MIS (Masonville Intermediate School) and a supplemental Japanese Saturday school called TJSS (Tennessee Japanese Saturday School). All the students were between 10 to 11 years of age when the data were collected. The five parent participants are the students' mothers. The two teacher participants teach 5th grade at MIS. Kimi and her family came to the U.S. in July 2000, when she was five years old, and they are scheduled to return to Japan in June 2006. Sana came to the U.S. with her family in May 2003, when she was 9 years old, and will go back to Japan in June 2007. Yuji came to the U.S. in 2002 with his

family, and they will return to Japan in April 2007. Ryo came to the U.S. with his family in July 2003 and will go back to Japan in May 2007. Ken came to the U.S. with his family in December 2004 and will go back to Japan in 2008. Therefore, the five Japanese students interviewed vary in the length of their stay in the U.S.

Research Questions

This study was guided by the following questions:

1. What are Japanese ELL students' perspectives on attending school in mainstream classrooms?
2. What are the Japanese parents' perspectives on their children's school lives and language development?

Individual Case Analyses

Focusing on Kimi, Sana, Ken, Ryo, and Yuji, I wanted to understand what the Japanese ELL students' perspectives were on attending school in mainstream classrooms and what the Japanese parents' perspectives were on their children's school lives and language development. I identified several salient themes for each of the participant students through the individual case analysis. I will present these themes for each student by incorporating the perspectives of the students, their mothers, and the teachers. In the fall 2005, I conducted 10 classroom observations for each student participant at MIS. During the fall 2005 and the spring 2006, I interviewed the participants. The quotes from the interviews with the Japanese participants, which appear in the following subsections, are my translations. Following the individual case analyses, I will describe the five themes prevalent among the five students generated from a cross-case analysis.

Kimi

Kimi is a quiet girl in the 5th grade. She has two older brothers, one in the same school, MIS, the other in a local high school. She speaks Japanese at home and has a good command of both English and Japanese. In order to maintain her Japanese language skills, Kimi takes correspondence courses from Japan, which include Japanese, mathematics, social studies, and science; these courses are based on the national curriculum in Japan. Kimi is shy, and rarely volunteers in the classroom. During the interviews, she described herself as a reserved student and explained that she preferred to speak out only in small group settings. In Kimi's subsections, I will describe five themes identified through an individual case analysis: parental support, cultural differences, peer relationships, academic performance, and Japanese language.

Parental Support

Through the interviews with Kimi and her mother, I found that Kimi was provided with significant parental support. During the first year of Kimi's schooling, her father willingly participated in the teacher-parent conferences that took place in the evening. It is rare for Japanese fathers to participate in school activities because most school meetings in Japan take place during the daytime when the men are typically at work. Consequently, participation in school activities is usually a mother's territory. Therefore, it can be said that Kimi's parents are enthusiastic about their children's education, since they both were participating in their children's school activities. Kimi's mother often oversaw Kimi's homework by reading textbooks with Kimi and checking notes brought home from school. In order to understand this information better, the

mother attended a college English language institute in the neighborhood and hired a private English tutor. She remembers those days:

> I attended the English Language Institute at Masonville College for 13 weeks to improve my English skills because I wanted to help my children complete their homework. I also wanted to thoroughly understand information brought from school. After 13 weeks, I hired a private English tutor for myself and attended English classes sponsored by a church. I learned American traditions in those classes. I think I did my best to help my children.

In order to understand what was going on at school, the mother utilized a network of Japanese mothers. She describes how she communicated with other Japanese mothers.

> Kimi's mother: When I arrived in the U.S., I did not know what school activities were. The information brought from school did not make very much sense to me. For example, I did not understand 'Fox Trot.' I asked other Japanese mothers about what was going on at school.
>
> Interviewer: The network of mothers helped you, didn't it?
>
> Kimi's mother: Yes, it helped me a lot. After one year of experience, I understood what the school activities were.
>
> Interviewer: Did you often communicate with other Japanese mothers by phone?

> Kimi's mother: Yes. I often called them to ask for information about school.

In terms of communication with Kimi's classroom teachers, the mother used post-it notes approximately three times a week at first. She made an effort to participate in school events as well, and volunteered for school activities as often as possible. She describes her participation in such activities:

> I participated in school activities or events as much as I could. I remember how I introduced Japanese culture to the children at Johnson Elementary School with four or five other Japanese mothers. We showed clothing for Japanese children's festivals and Japanese snacks. We also taught them simple Japanese greetings. I made an effort to participate in such activities as much as possible.

Kimi's mother seemed to have enjoyed such school activities, in which she proudly demonstrated some Japanese holiday-traditions and shared some Japanese snacks.

As described above, Kimi's parents provided her with ideal parental support. Her mother's physical and mental energy, especially, to do supportive work was enormous. In the next subsection, I will show some cultural differences Kimi perceived in the U.S.

Cultural Differences

Kimi's perspective on attending school in the U.S. can be clearly described through some cultural differences Kimi perceived. In the interview, I asked Kimi whether she noticed any differences of school cultures between the U.S. and Japan. She explained her thoughts on girls playing soccer as an example of that.

I want to join a sports club teaching girls' soccer because after I go back to Japan, I won't be able to play soccer. Soccer is a boys' sport in Japan.

Kimi also perceives peer differences between TJSS and MIS.

Interviewer: Kimi, you said that American students do what they want to. Could you give me an example of that?

Kimi: The students in TJSS may think that since a student is doing something different from others, he/she is strange, but at MIS, they may say to the student, "You can enjoy doing what you want to. We're enjoying doing what we want to."

Interviewer: Do you mean that Japanese students want to do the same things as others do?

Kimi: Yes.

.....

Interviewer: Kimi, do you feel more American or Japanese?

Kimi: I am Japanese, but do things like an American.

Interviewer: Do you feel good about yourself at TJSS?

Kimi: No, but I can feel good about myself at MIS.

Asked which school she feels comfortable with, Kimi answered that MIS made her relax because she could feel better about herself there. Kimi prefers MIS to TJSS because she does not have to do the same things as other do. The five-year stay in the U.S. made her perceive herself as almost being an American. In addition, Kimi thinks that American peers do what they want to do, compared with her Japanese peers. She feels that her American peers are more independent than Japanese peers, who tend to be less

individualistic and more part of their peer group. In the following subsection, I will describe Kimi's relationships with her peers.

Peer Relationships

Regarding peer relationships between Japanese and American students, Kimi makes the following suggestion:

> If you have Japanese students in your class at MIS, you may not have time to speak to American peers because you feel more at ease talking in Japanese and may tend to stay with Japanese students. You should make sure that you include American peers in your group.

Kimi is the only Japanese student in her language arts class. Sharon (pseudonym) is Kimi's current best friend in that class. They are always together. They seem to enjoy each other's company. During my visits to MIS, I often saw Kimi and Sharon walking together. Ms. Forest comments on the relationship of the two:

> Kimi and Sharon are still extremely close. I do not see her [Kimi] seeking out other Japanese students.

Kimi said that she tried not to stay exclusively with Japanese students in order to build good relationships with American peers. She explains,

> During my stay in the U.S., I want to make American friends. If you stay with only Japanese friends, American peers never come to you.

Her mother had said the same thing to Kimi. Therefore, Kimi usually makes a conscious attempt to talk to her Japanese friends in English when they are around American peers.

She usually stayed at home after school without going out to play with children in her neighborhood. Her mother said,

> I don't see many school-aged children in the neighborhood, and I know they go to a different school than Kimi. So, she never goes out after school, but last year, she had some opportunities to visit her friend who was in the same class as Kimi, but not anymore now.

Staying home after school is common for the Japanese students that I interviewed because they want to use their time to prepare for schoolwork at both MIS and TJSS.

Kimi's experience of school life as described above shows her perspective on attending school in the mainstream classroom. The following subsection describes her academic performance in the classroom.

Academic Performance

Kimi is a brilliant student and her academic performance at school shows her high achievement. Kimi started schooling as a kindergartner upon arrival to the U.S. During her first days of school, Kimi's mother sometimes stayed with her in the classroom in order to ease Kimi's anxiety. The mother comments on the situation:

> I asked the teacher to let me stay with Kimi in the classroom. However, Kimi started as a kindergartener during the new semester with other classmates, which was good for her to get accustomed to the new environment together with other beginning kindergartners. She really enjoyed kindergarten.

When Kimi was in the first grade, her classroom teacher challenged Kimi to read books. Since then, Kimi has had confidence in reading long stories. Her mother remembers Kimi at that time:

> Kimi had a nice classroom teacher when she was in the first grade. The teacher challenged Kimi to read long stories. At the beginning, Kimi spent a lot of time just reading one page of a book. I listened to her reading the page aloud. I also helped her look up difficult words in the dictionary. When she finished the first book, she gained confidence in reading. Now, she can quickly read books. I am thankful to the teacher for challenging Kimi.

The mother said that Kimi's teachers gave her individual attention, and therefore, Kimi developed confidence in reading difficult books.

Regarding her current language arts class, I asked Ms. Forest about Kimi's academic performance. Ms. Forest characterized Kimi as an excellent student. She describes Kimi as one of her best students.

> Kimi is a solid, bright student, who seems to know exactly what to do, meets every expectation, and exceeds it every time.
>
> ……
>
> In fact, I'm just grading papers, a test we had. I'm just grading some papers. So far, she is the only one that I got [*sic*] a perfect paper, and it was an English test. (Ms. Forest laughs.)
>
> ……
>
> My challenge with Kimi is to keep her challenged. Sometimes, I have to give her extra work. What I do is I have to check the books that she picked out for their level of difficulty, and make sure that she is getting enough of a challenge because she is gifted. I want to make sure that she

> is reading books on a high enough level for her. I'm not checking for content, just for difficulty.

Ms. Forest mentioned that Kimi's work exceeds that of others in the classroom. She wanted Kimi to advance her intelligence through reading challenging books. The field notes indicate that Ms. Forest showed her intention by giving individual instruction to Kimi as well as to Sharon:

> Ms. Forest approaches me and explains that she gave an extra assignment to Kimi and Sharon because they are exceptional students. The assignment is that the two students read a higher-level book, talk to each other about the book, and write response letters to Ms. Forest.

Although Kimi is a shy, reserved student and rarely volunteers in the classroom, Ms. Forest tries to call on Kimi whenever she raises her hand:

> If she happens to raise her hand, I try to make sure I call on her because it's not very often she does that. If she doesn't, I'm not as likely to call on her as other students with their hands down because usually with other students who have their hands down, I need to check to make sure they understand. But with Kimi, there's rarely a time when she doesn't understand.

The quality of Kimi's relationship with Ms. Forest mentioned above might help Kimi increase her high self-esteem in the classroom and reinforce the possibility for Kimi to learn more (Day, 2002). Ms. Forest provided Kimi with a good learning environment as a supportive teacher. In addition, the teacher perceives that cooperative learning and

small group discussions are a great way for ELL students to actively participate in classroom activities:

> Well, cooperative learning is a great way for them to participate because …. We do a lot of small group activities, and especially for somebody like Kimi, who is quieter and more reserved…. This is the time for her to provide input in a small group setting, where she is not speaking in front of the whole class. So, that's a good way to get them involved. I do that a lot.
>
> ……
>
> In small group discussions, we have literature circle discussions, which is wonderful for her because she [Kimi] is such a great reader. She loves books, clearly loves them, and responses very well to them and can get deep meaning out of them. So, we have literature circle discussions based upon the books that they've chosen and then get together with their group. They have guidelines that they follow, and everybody needs to participate. So, she does have to say something, which opens her up a little more. But it's a safer small setting.

Ms. Forest's classroom has a highly interactive environment, where desks are arranged in four blocks of six desks that face each other. I observed Kimi interacting actively with her group members. In a small setting, she freely expressed herself. In the next subsection, I will describe Kimi's development in the Japanese language.

Japanese Language

Kimi has already acquired a good command of English. In order to find out how she used Japanese in her daily life, I asked her what language she preferred for note taking. She replied,

> I take notes in English at school. When I am at home, I use Japanese, but I write in English for school things. My mom tells me to use Japanese at home.

Regarding Kimi's development of the Japanese language, her mother perceives that Kimi has a poor Japanese vocabulary, and the longer the family stays in the U.S., the poorer the Japanese vocabulary Kimi will have. Memorizing Kanji characters is Kimi's current challenge. In Japan, schoolchildren must have a command of 1,006 Kanji characters by the end of the 6th grade, according to the Japanese national curriculum (Mitsumuratosho, 2004). Notwithstanding, Kimi has difficulty in reading books written with many Kanji. Kimi comments,

> I like reading English books, but not Japanese books because I'm not good at Kanji. I can't keep reading without a dictionary. It makes me slow down, and I have to ask my mom for help to read Kanji.

Kimi's mother explains that because the family has to go back to Japan, the children should have a strong Japanese identity. Furthermore, Kimi is Japanese, therefore, she should have strong Japanese language proficiency. The mother wants Kimi to maintain a good command of Japanese. I asked Kimi how her mother told her to use Japanese at home. Kimi says,

Interviewer: What does your mom say when you speak English at home?

Kimi: She tells me to speak Japanese because we have to go back to Japan soon. But, I sometimes don't know how to say some words in Japanese.

Interviewer: So, you can only say the word in English. Has your mom been telling you to speak Japanese at home for a long time?

Kimi: When I was in kindergarten, she said, "You can speak English at home." When I was in the 3rd grade, she started to tell me to speak Japanese at home.

In order to keep Kimi even with children in Japan, her mother has been paying close attention to Kimi's language use.

In addition, in order to keep up with trends and events in Japan, the family sometimes watches Japanese TV programs. Kimi's mother explains about such TV programs:

Kimi's mother: We only speak Japanese at home. We watch TV programs through *TV Japan.*

Interviewer: Could you tell me about *TV Japan*?

Kimi's mother: Yes. It broadcasts Japanese TV programs that are the same as those in Japan. We can enjoy the same programs as if we were in Japan.

Interviewer: So, you can obtain information about trends and events in contemporary Japan. Do you think those TV programs help Kimi develop her Japanese skills?

Kimi's mother: Yes. I think so, but the programs are not enough for her to maintain her Japanese language.

Both Kimi and her mother are anxious about how Kimi's development of the Japanese language will go.

Kimi's parents provided her with ideal parental support, and Kimi's academic performance showed her high achievement. However, Kimi's development in Japanese was not as good as her academic achievement. The anxiety over her language development in Japanese was not only her problem but also a problem perceived by other Japanese participants. I will present the data analysis of Sana in the following section.

Sana

Sana is a quiet girl in the 5th grade and has an older sister in the 8th grade. Sana speaks to her family only in Japanese. Sana and her sister rarely see their father because he comes back home from work late at night and plays golf on most weekends, which is typical for Japanese families staying in the U.S. who have fathers working for Japanese companies.

In order to provide academic support for Sana, her mother hired a home tutor during the first four months her family was in the U.S. The tutor was Japanese and helped Sana do her homework and read textbooks, translating them into Japanese. Currently, Sana usually brings home the school textbooks and looks up words in a glossary in advance to stay up with her peers. Of all her classes, it is social studies that

Sana has the most difficulty with. On the other hand, Sana thinks her math class is easier than her other classes. She also attends a reading class in the evening twice a week, which is open to American schoolchildren in her neighborhood. In the following subsections, I will describe five themes identified through an individual case analysis of Sana: the beginning of her U.S. schooling, Japanese language, in the classroom, cultural differences, and peer relationships.

The Beginning of Her U.S. Schooling

Sana remembers the beginning months of her schooling in the U.S.: She was thankful to her classmates who always came up to her and helped her. For example, they invited her to sit with them in the cafeteria or to play together at recess. Sana also remembers that she used emergency notes prepared by her mother when she got sick at school one day. She showed me the notes she used. They consist of four pieces of small paper written in both English and Japanese about physical illnesses such as a stomachache or a headache. When she showed her teacher the note with stomachache on it, the teacher called her mother at home. Fortunately, Sana only had to use it once. In her classroom at that time, Sana wondered whether one day she would be able to communicate in English without using such notes. In order to help Sana, her classroom teacher gave her take-home tests. Sana and her mother comment about that time:

Sana's mother: Sana's teacher in the 3rd grade was especially strict.

Sana: She was too strict.

Interviewer: Did she give you the same homework assignments as others?

Sana: Yes. When I was in the 3rd grade, I didn't understand English well.

Sana's mother: The teacher Sana met in the 4th grade was not as strict as the 3rd grade teacher. The teacher spoke to Sana slowly, but Sana had already acquired enough English necessary to function in the classroom because the 3rd grade teacher was very strict with Sana.

Interviewer: Sana, how did you feel in the 3rd grade classroom?

Sana: I thought life in America was tougher than in Japan.

Here are some of Sana's mother's comments about Sana's teachers at her elementary school:

Sana's mother: The teachers praised Sana even for her test scores that were not good enough. I wanted to hear advice from them about how Sana could improve her academic skills instead of just hearing praise. I wondered that the teachers might think I could not understand the English they spoke. I wish I could have spoken to those teachers in depth about Sana's progress.

Interviewer: What else did you notice about the teachers?

Sana's mother: It might depend on the characteristics of the teachers how they responded to parents, but I had a bad memory of one of the teachers. When I wrote to the teacher to ask about Sana, she gave her oral response to Sana instead of

> writing back to me. But Sana at that time did not understand English well. The answer did not make sense to her. I sent a second letter to the teacher. She never wrote back to me. I gave up and asked my older daughter to help me as an interpreter, and finally established communication with the teacher.

The mother explained that she wanted to know about Sana's school life at a conference with the teacher when Sana was in elementary school. She wanted to hear the teacher's thoughts about in which area Sana needed to work, but she heard only praise for Sana's work. The mother regretted that she was not able to talk with the teacher in depth because of the language barrier.

Now that Sana understands English and communicates well with her peers, she enjoys school very much. However, she feels more relaxed during classroom lessons than at lunchtime or during recess because in class, she does not have to keep thinking what to talk to her peers about. I felt complete empathy with her. Next, I will describe Sana's linguistic progress in Japanese.

Japanese Language

Concerning her Japanese language development, Sana's mother makes an effort to help Sana maintain and improve the ability of her Japanese. When Sana uses incorrect expressions in Japanese, with wrong expressions, her mother corrects her on the spot. Sana's mother explains how this works:

> Sana's mother: I did not know how well Sana spoke English because she never talked to me in English at home. I notice that Sana

speaks incorrect Japanese at home. I usually correct Sana on the spot.

Interviewer: Do you think immediate corrections work well for Sana?

Sana's mother: Yes. After I correct Sana's wrong expressions in Japanese, she rarely makes the same mistake using the same expressions.

In an effort to support Sana's development of Japanese, her mother bought Japanese books for Sana whenever Sana wanted. The mother is enthusiastic about Sana's education.

> When Sana goes back to Japan as a 7th grader in the near future, she might be behind her peers in Japanese classes. I would like to help Sana maintain her Japanese language as much as possible. I have bought any books that Sana wanted from Japan online.

In addition, Sana's mother told her to keep a diary in Japanese, and Sana wrote a half page per day. However, during a second interview which took place three months later, Sana mentioned that she quit keeping the diary because it was difficult for her to continue it. Sana, however, is concerned about Japanese classes upon reentering the Japanese education system. She has little confidence in competing with Japanese peers who might have already exceeded her academically, but is willing to make an effort to catch up with them. Sana will exceed Japanese peers in English classes when she restarts school in Japan, but will probably get behind in other classes. She is especially concerned with her Kanji ability, which is the most difficult writing system in the Japanese language. However, Sana is determined to prepare herself for reentering the Japanese school system.

For example, she has been taking correspondence courses from Japan Overseas Educational Services, based on the national curriculum in Japan. She has also begun to take swimming lessons at a sports club in the community because the Japanese school curriculum includes swimming as a mandatory requirement. In the next subsection, I will describe Sana's situation in the mainstream classroom.

In the Classroom

Her current social studies teacher, Mr. Moll, mentioned that Sana rarely volunteered without being called on in the classroom. Consistent with the teacher's comments about Sana, I rarely observed Sana volunteering to answer a teacher's question. Her reticence may be due not only to her shy personality but also to her language level as an ESL student. The following is an excerpt from the field notes of classroom observations focusing on Sana in Mr. Moll' social studies class, in which there were 24 students at the time:

> The students are engaged in their group projects. They are making miniature models of the battleground of the Civil War. Mr. Moll explains the procedures for the group projects. Sana is following directions given by a girl in her group of the three, who seems to be the group's leader. Sana is standing by the girl who is directing the group. Sana is watching the other group members working on their own tasks. The leader tells Sana to draw something on the cover page of the project paper. [Sana seems to be able to participate in the group work following this girl's directions.] Sana starts drawing a picture on the cover page. Sana stops drawing and walks around to see other groups' projects. Sana returns to

her place and resumes her drawing on the cover page. [Sana seems to be attentive to what is going on around her in the class.]

This excerpt indicates that Sana participates in the group activity as a follower. Furthermore, I noted Sana's participation in a group presentation in the class:

> Sana's group presentation begins. Sana gestures during her group presentation while another member is reading a passage from the textbook. [Sana plays the role of a peripheral participant in the group's presentation. Because the group members consider that Sana is not good at speaking in front of the class, they allow her to make gestures rather than having Sana speak.]

I rarely observed Sana interacting with peers in the classroom: I noted,

> Mr. Moll [Sana's social studies teacher] tells the students to work on vocabulary definitions and talks about a quiz for the next class. Sana starts the assignment. She is copying the definitions from the textbook, and is doing her work diligently. [She seems to want to finish the assignment quickly.] She does not join in interactions with the girls in her group even when the others chat with each other.

Sana's presence is not conspicuous in the classroom. The following excerpt from the field notes shows her inconspicuousness:

> Mr. Moll introduces a *Freeze and Thaw* game with radio music. At the end of the game, Sana is among the last three students. [Was she able to remain to the last of the game because of her inconspicuousness? She might get little recognition from her classmates because of it.]

Regarding this incident, I asked Mr. Moll about Sana's inconspicuousness. He describes her situation:

> In the game we play *Freeze and Thaw*, they [the students] have to be really still and be, as you said, inconspicuous. I can see that she has definitely managed to do that. When we freeze, she may be just totally hidden somewhere in the room. They don't even see her there. It may also be because of her nature of being so sweet, keeping to herself. The other students might feel a little bit hesitant about calling her out, too, because that's a kind of singling out. She wins quite often. I don't have a problem with that. She is inconspicuous.

Sana is inconspicuous in the classroom as shown in Mr. Moll' comments above. Sana also describes herself as such:

> Interviewer: Sana, your classmates may think you are a quiet student from Japan. How do you feel about that?
>
> Sana: They don't know that I go to an ESL school. They don't even know the word, ESL. Emily [one of her classmates] asked me twice, "What's ESL?"

Concerning to her academic performance, Mr. Moll describes Sana:

> Sana doesn't really require much individual assistance because she has so much support from the group around her, because a lot of work of assignments and quizzes are done group-wise. When we are [working] individual[ly] though, Sana is very hesitant to ask for help. In checking her work, many times I found she was very accurate. She doesn't need

> much [assistance]. When she needs individual assistance, I provide that. But it's not very often that she needs it. When she does, most often she has support [from the] group of students around her that would help, [but] not give her answers. When they're doing group work, which we do quite a bit, she has a good support team around to help her with that.

Mr. Moll explained that Sana worked well in group settings because her group members helped her well. During my classroom observations of Sana, I perceived that she was a quiet, inconspicuous student. This is consistent with Mr. Moll's description of Sana. Next, I will describe Sana's perspective on school cultural differences between the U.S. and Japan.

Cultural Differences

Sana perceives that American school culture is different from that in Japan. For example, in the U.S., students are allowed to eat snacks and drinks other than at lunchtime. Students can also wear accessories such as earrings, necklaces, and nail polish at school. This never happens in Japan. However, Sana prefers Japanese schools to American schools because she can easily express herself in Japanese, which is very important to her. Sana clearly understands thinking styles of Japanese students better than those of American students, and it is easier for her to get along with Japanese students than with American students. She mentioned that if she were in Japan, she would be able to share the same thinking styles as those of her peers in Japan. She seems to miss Japan. For example, she wished she could go on an overnight school excursion with her peers in Japan, which is traditionally the first and biggest event that Japanese schoolchildren experience in their school life. She gazed in the air as if she had imagined

how her school life would be in Japan rather than in the U.S. This subsection described cultural differences Sana perceived in the U.S. In the next subsection, I will present Sana's relationships with her peers.

Peer Relationships

Sana has several friends at MIS although she had much more friends in Japan. Sana explains the reason why she has fewer friends now.

Interviewer: Did you have many friends at school in Japan?

Sana: Yes. But, I have a few friends at MIS.

Interviewer: Why do you only have a few?

Sana: Because I don't speak to them very much. I can't speak to them fluently in English.

The reason why she has fewer friends here is that she knows fewer words in English than in Japanese. However, she makes an effort to join girls' groups playing on the playground at recess. I observed Sana standing by a group playing jump rope during recess, watching them for a while, and then finally joining them.

At the Japanese Saturday School, Sana has a good friend called Mika. They mostly stay together at that school. However, I did not see them playing together on the playground at MIS. I asked Sana the reason for this during our first interview. She responded that they both have their American friends to play with at MIS, so they do not have time to interact with each other. In addition, Sana is known to some students in the class as a student who is good at drawing. In fact, I noted in the observation notes, "I saw Sana share her drawing with a girl after the class. Her drawing is an illustration of a cute girl's face."

I described Sana's beginning as a new students in a mainstream classroom in the U.S., her Japanese language development, her situation in the mainstream classroom, her perspective on school cultural differences between the U.S. and Japan, and her peer relationships. In the following section, I will present the data analysis of Yuji.

Yuji

Yuji speaks to his parents only in Japanese at home, but Yuji and his sister, who is in the 2nd grade, talk to each other with a mixed language of Japanese and English. His mother, however, does not tell them to only speak Japanese at home. She perceives it as being difficult for her to regulate the language the children use because they have been immersed in an environment where English is the only medium for communication in their daily lives. In the following subsections, I will describe four themes identified through an individual case analysis of Yuji: his first experiences in a U.S. classroom, parental support, school life as a Japanese student, and his situation in the mainstream classroom.

The Beginning of His U.S. Schooling

During his first months of schooling in the U.S., Yuji was excused from taking quizzes. He reported to his teacher that he was not comfortable knowing that his academic performance was poorer than his American peers. Then, the teacher allowed him to not take quizzes. He was also given reduced homework assignments. Consequently, he felt that he was falling behind his peers in the classroom. In the meantime, Yuji showed symptoms of a tick; he blinked frequently. This might have been caused by heavy stress from a change in environments (i.e., change in schools) and the new language barrier he encountered. At that time, Yuji mostly stayed home without

friends to play with. His mother explains Yuji's anxiety about his change of school environments:

> Interviewer: May I ask about the problem that Yuji had with his tick?
>
> Yuji's mother: I didn't notice his tick until much later.
>
> Interviewer: How did you notice the problem?
>
> Yuji's mother: He blinked frequently and moved his eyes restlessly. I took him to a doctor's office, but he had no problem with his eyes. So, I understood that the problem might have come from his mental fatigue. The syndrome began in the 1st grade and lasted to the 4th grade. During this time, he might have experienced uneasiness by being in a new environment.

Fortunately, his tick has disappeared since Yuji has finally become accustomed to daily life in the U.S. Now that he has confidence in interacting with his peers, since he has improved his English skills, he can even visit his American friends near his home. Yuji's mother ties his improvement of English skills to his behavioral change:

> I think Yuji is getting more self-confident. As he improved his English, he got confidence in doing things for himself. Now, he can visit his friend's house alone, which he could not do before.

In addition, I asked Yuji about the communication problem that he experienced at the beginning of his schooling in the U.S.

> Interviewer: What problems did you have at the beginning?

Yuji: I could not communicate with anybody at school. I had no friends at that time.

Yuji's mother: Some of his Japanese friends came to our home, but he usually stayed home without friends to play with. He could not communicate with schoolchildren in the neighborhood.

With respect to his mother's concerns, she did not communicate well with the teacher because she had little confidence in her English to do so. She attended the regular parent-teacher conferences only once. She regrets that she could not communicate a lot with the teacher, otherwise, it might have been possible to alleviate or cure Yuji's tick earlier or to mitigate it. Now, Yuji points out his new problem at MIS:

Yuji: When my classmates tell a joke, I sometimes don't understand it. They laugh with each other, then, I laugh with them together, although I don't understand why they laugh.

Interviewer: Did you ask them about the meaning of the joke?

Yuji: Yes. They explained to me, but I still didn't get it.

In the meantime, the mother talked about another emerging problem of Yuji's Japanese language. She explains,

Yuji has difficulty memorizing Kanji now. Compared with schoolchildren studying in Japan, he has much less time for learning their curriculum. I'm concerned with that and the situation he will get in after we go back to

> Japan. He may get behind in his classroom work and get in trouble with his new peers because of his Americanized behaviors.

Yuji is also concerned about his possible delay in Japanese and in math concepts compared with students in Japan:

> I will get behind my classmates in Japan, especially in Kanji and math. I will be the slowest in math in the classroom. It will be best for me to take special lessons to catch up with them.

Such concerns are common to the Japanese students who came from Japan and who must reenter the Japanese school system upon their return to Japan. In the next subsection, I will describe parental support for Yuji.

Parental Support

In terms of academic support, his mother helped Yuji do his homework and read textbooks together during his first few months of schooling in America. She remembers that time:

> I could help Yuji do his homework because the assignments were easy. He was in the 2nd grade. Yuji and I read the textbooks aloud together, and practiced spelling words.

Now that Yuji has started language arts class when he exited from his ESL program and has become a 5th grader, his mother does not have to help him as much. In addition, she made an effort to participate in volunteer activities at school. She describes her situation at that time.

> Yuji's mother: I volunteered to help with crafts and prepare parties several times.

Interviewer: How did you feel about your participation?

Yuji's mother: Actually, I didn't know what to do in the classroom because of the language barrier.

She encountered a language barrier through her participation in school activities. However, she currently feels that there is no need to meet with Yuji's teachers because Yuji has no problems with school now.

Interviewer: Have you ever participated in a teacher-parent conference held once a year at school?

Yuji's mother: Only one time for the first conference since we arrived here because, I think, it's difficult for me to communicate with the teacher in English. I will not participate in a conference any more. Yuji has already become accustomed to school.

The language barrier is a common problem for parents of Japanese students in communicating with teachers.

Turning to educational resources that Yuji has access to, his mother described those in terms of quality and quantity. His mother is enthusiastic about her children's education. She has hired a private home tutor for Yuji. The home tutor is Japanese, and helps Yuji do school assignments once a week. In order to improve his reading skills, Yuji attends a reading class, which is open twice a week to schoolchildren in the area of Masonville. He also takes private piano lessons once a week. In addition, his mother has bought Yuji more than 100 books (which were mainly from school book-fairs,) since the

family came to the U.S. Thus, Yuji has been given abundant resources. Next, I will describe Yuji's school life as a Japanese student.

As a Japanese Student

Regarding the previous school Yuji attended in the U.S., his mother was concerned with his possible isolation since all of his Japanese peers at the school had already gone back to Japan. His mother explains why she sent Yuji to MIS, which had some Japanese students enrolled.

Interviewer: Why did you send your son to MIS instead of to your zoned school district?

Yuji's mother: Since all the Japanese families in my district have gone back to Japan, Yuji might have felt lonely at school, although I was concerned with whether he would only stay around Japanese students at MIS.

Yuji's mother feels that it is not good for Japanese people to stay together when they are around American people. She gave some advice to Yuji that Japanese students should not build exclusive groups nor talk loudly in Japanese in front of their American peers. The Japanese company that sent the family to the U.S. gave them the same advice before they came here from Japan. The company also arranged the location of the houses of Japanese families so that they would not to be concentrated in a specific area. Therefore, Yuji understands the meaning of his mother's advice. He explains his thoughts:

> I don't feel good when an exclusive group from another country talks loudly or laughs with each other in front of me in their home language that

I don't understand at all. So, I try not to do this when we are with American peers.

Although Yuji's mother did not want Yuji to stay exclusively around Japanese students, I often saw Yuji around two Japanese students, Ken and Ryo. The three students seemed to enjoy each other's company. Yuji describes his relationship with the two students:

Interviewer: I often saw you staying around Ryo and Ken at MIS.

Yuji: I always stay around them.

Interviewer: Why so?

Yuji: I feel it is easier for me to speak Japanese than English.

Interviewer: What else do you feel about them?

Yuji: I can share common ideas with them. For example, we talk about Japanese animation movies and comic books.

In the second interview, which took place three months later, I asked Yuji the same question as before. He did not change his previous answer:

Interviewer: Do you feel at ease when you are with Ryo and Ken?

Yuji: Yes. I don't have to think in English when I'm with them. It's easier for me to talk to them in Japanese.

Interviewer: Do you have any difficulty communicating with American peers?

Yuji: Not really, but I feel more relaxed with Ryo and Ken.

Because he feels comfortable talking in Japanese about familiar topics such as popular Japanese animation movies, Yuji wants to stay around Ken and Ryo. He believes that the three of them understand each other and share a sense of solidarity. He mentioned that

when his American peers told jokes and laughed, he sometimes could not understand them but pretended to laugh with them. Although he asked about the meaning of the jokes, it was still difficult for him to make sense out of them. He mentioned his feelings about Japanese students.

Interviewer: Where do you feel more relaxed, at TJSS or MIS?

Yuji: TJSS. There are only Japanese at TJSS. They behave in the same way and think the same way as others there.

Interviewer: What subjects can't you share with American peers at MIS?

Yuji: Recent popular movies. I don't watch the movies they like. They don't watch the movies I like.

However, he does not want to be conspicuous at MIS because of his cultural differences. For example, he never brings a Japanese-style lunch to school because he wants to eat the same lunch as his peers. He does not want to show or explain to his peers a Japanese-style lunch. Yuji is one of the Japanese students who think it is awful to stand out among one's peers. I asked about the Japanese-style lunch:

Interviewer: Did Yuji take Japanese snacks or lunch to his elementary school?

Yuji's mother: No. He doesn't want to bring Japanese snacks or lunch to his school because he doesn't want to get attention from others. One day, I had him bring a Japanese-style lunch. His classmates asked him about his lunch. Since then, he never brings a Japanese lunch to school again.

Interviewer: Yuji, why didn't you explain to your classmates about your Japanese lunch?

Yuji: I didn't want to. I didn't know how to explain it in English.

Yuji's mother: Yuji doesn't like to be special or stand out among his classmates. He just doesn't like that.

As described above, Yuji has been one of the typical Japanese students who value being like others. The temporary stay in the U.S. means that Yuji must prepare for reentering Japanese school life. Therefore, it might be better for him to maintain certain Japanese traits and customs. Likewise, he wants to know about the current trends among Japanese school students. In order to catch up with these trends, for example, he watches Japanese videos sent by his relatives in Japan.

Interviewer: Do you often watch videos from Japan?

Yuji: Yes. I can get information about what is going on in Japan from the videos.

Interviewer: When you go back to school in Japan, you can join your classmates talking about popular TV programs, can't you?

Yuji: Yes. I think so.

Interviewer: Do you want to know more about present-day Japan?

Yuji: Yes.

For Yuji, a thorough knowledge of Japanese popular culture may add credibility to the fact that he is the same as his school peers in Japan. Therefore, it can be said that Yuji

wanted to maintain his identity as a Japanese student in the U.S. Next, I will describe Yuji's situation in the mainstream classroom.

In the Classroom

Yuji's social studies teacher, Mr. Moll, describes Yuji as a good student:

> Yuji is very well-rounded. He presents himself, and does written work extremely well.

Additional comments from Mr. Moll about Yuji:

> He is a little more introverted [than his peers]. He doesn't socialize very much. He is not outgoing. I don't see him striking up a conversation like Ryo does. Socially, he is a little bit more reserved; academically, though he is very well advanced. ... I would consider Yuji to be a follower as well. His social identity in the classroom would be more "I lead only if I have to." He could be a great leader and would be if need be, but wouldn't take that on himself unless it were necessary. … He would rather be a follower. That's just his nature.

Mr. Moll described Yuji's introverted nature. When Yuji did not understand some vocabulary the teacher used in the classroom, he usually asked his peers instead of asking the teacher because he felt free to repeatedly ask peers. His classmates helped him understand English by using easier phrases.

Turning to Yuji's description of the social studies class, he mentioned that compared with school in Japan, the teacher gave more project-oriented assignments at school here in the U.S. than in Japan. He likes such assignments and enjoys group activities in the classroom.

In this section, I described Yuji's beginning days in a U.S. classroom, his parental support, his school life as a Japanese student, and his situation in the mainstream classroom. In the following section, I will present the data analysis of Ryo.

Ryo

Ryo has an older sister in the 7th grade and a younger brother in the 2nd gade. Although they usually speak Japanese at home, he and his brother sometimes talk to each other in English. Ryo has a good command of both Japanese and English and actively participates in the classroom. I often observed Ryo raising his hand to volunteer to answer his teacher's questions. In the following subsections, I will describe four themes identified through an individual case analysis of Ryo: his first experiences in a U.S. classroom, parental support, academic performance in the mainstream classroom, and cultural differences between the U.S. and his affiliation with Japanese students.

The Beginning of His U.S. Schooling

Ryo remembers that during the beginning of his schooling in the U.S., he sometimes slept in the classroom because he listened to his teacher's talk as if it were a lullaby: He did not understand what the teacher was talking about at all. The teacher informed Ryo's mother about his sleeping in class and asked for her help, explaining that the teacher did not know what to do with Ryo. The mother told Ryo not to give up and to drink water or wash his face whenever he felt sleepy. In the meantime, Ryo had other troubles at school. His music teacher at that time got upset because Ryo did not follow her instructions that the students should not make noise on the keyboard when the teacher was talking. He was called to the principal's office to apologize to the music teacher. Nevertheless, Ryo did not even understand why he was called to the office. In addition,

his poor communication skills caused other troubles with his peers at school. In retrospect, Ryo still has not understood what he did wrong. Now that he has a good command of English, he wants to give the impression to his classmates that he is a funny and friendly student.

Turning to the feelings of his family about the transfer to the U.S., Ryo's mother remembers that the family felt it was a major uprooting when they had to come to the U.S. and that they missed the place they left behind in Japan. She remembers the situation at that time:

> My children complained saying that they didn't want to come to the U.S. because they didn't like to leave home, school, and friends. They had to give it all up. … When they arrived to the U.S., they didn't understand English. They repeated, 'Why do we have to have such difficulties?'

She told her children, however, not to worry about their new school and that the new experience waiting for them would be valuable. Her optimistic attitude might have been a good influence on Ryo; he has already adjusted to his new school life and has been enjoying it. In the next subsection, I will describe parental support for Ryo.

Parental Support

With respect to Ryo's mother's enthusiasm for her children's education, she has been willing to participate in volunteer activities at school and has made an effort to keep contact with Ryo's classroom teachers to ask for information about Ryo's progress. She remembers the beginning of Ryo's schooling in the U.S.:

> Ryo didn't understand English at all in the classroom during the beginning. He couldn't find the pages the teacher directed the students to. Then, the

> teacher told me to tell Ryo not to give up. And, I often asked the teachers about how Ryo was doing at school.

Ryo's mother utilized the time when she dropped off Ryo at school in the morning and picked him up in the afternoon to talk to his classroom teachers. Furthermore, she has been learning English from her private tutor to communicate better with the teachers.

Regarding academic support, his mother helped Ryo understand the textbooks by translating them into Japanese. The translation help by the mother lasted for the first four months. Fortunately, she has teaching experience in Japan and did not need to hire a home tutor for Ryo. She literally taught him as his home tutor. In an attempt to maintain the children's development of the Japanese language, the mother sometimes reads stories to them at bedtime. With respect to support for the Japanese language, Ryo has been taking correspondence courses from Japan Overseas Educational Services to stay caught up with the national curriculum in Japan.

In terms of access to current trends in Japan, their relatives send the family TV program videos every month from Japan. Ryo also subscribes to a comic book from Japan. Therefore, Ryo has much information on the current tends in Japan and maintains a good command of the Japanese language. At present, the mother's concern is that since her children have already become accustomed to U.S. school life, they might have trouble upon reentering the Japanese school system.

In this subsection, I described the mother's support of Ryo. Next, I will show Ryo's academic performance in the mainstream classroom with incorporating his classroom teacher's perspectives.

In the Classroom

In an interview with Mr. Moll, Ryo's social studies teacher, I asked him to describe Ryo. Mr. Moll comments,

> Really, I don't think that Ryo needs assistance as much as he wants, or as much as he asks for. He's a perfectionist. He wants to be exactly right, which is great. I see that in [his participation in] the chess club as well. I'm a chess club sponsor. Ryo is in chess, and does a great job. He's a very good player. When the scores, the rankings come out, he wants to know how he got his ranking, who's ranked there, why the scores are lower or higher. He wants to know the details. That spills over into the classroom, which I totally respect. I wish more students had that ethic in their class work. I work one-on-one [with him] probably more than with any other ESL students because he often asks for that assistance. Often, he has the right answer. He knows the right answer. He wants the confirmation, double-checking, 'Ah, I was right.' He just wants to make sure. He's a perfectionist, I think. So we work one-on-one a lot.

Consistent with Mr. Moll's description of Ryo, I often observed Ryo raising his hand without hesitating to ask Mr. Moll questions in the classroom. He actively participated in classroom activities. Ryo was eager to volunteer to answer Mr. Moll's questions. When Mr. Moll asked a question, Ryo persistently put up his hand, and when called on, made a contribution that was accurate. Ryo comments on his attitude about classroom participation:

> Interviewer: I often saw you raising your hand in the classroom.

Ryo: I want to be called on. The teachers called on me only about five times a day.

Ryo's mother also comments on Ryo's attitude:

> Ryo's teachers said that it was very good for Ryo to volunteer to answer whether he knew the answers or not. His active participation makes him understand better.

Mr. Moll describes Ryo's noticeable participation in classroom activities as the following:

> As far as teacher-student [interactions], he asks, wants to do well, wants to please. He asks me specific questions about assignments, so, upon their completion, he will know that he has done it in the way that I like him to do it. He's very concerned with how accurate his work is. As I said, socially, he [has become] very well adapted to other students, in those extra curricular settings as well as in the classroom. He does well with that. He's a very likable young boy and is a hard worker. I just really enjoy having had him in the class.
>
> ……
>
> Ryo is definitely a leader not only for Japanese students but also for all students. He can lead. He is very polite, kind, and mannerly, and follows the rules. He is a strong leader and a strong student.

Mr. Moll spoke highly of Ryo, however, Ryo told me that learning American History was not useful because it was not relevant to the Japanese school curriculum. American History is included in a Japanese school subject as a part of World History. However, its

perspective differs from that of American History in the U.S. Ryo's statement shows that "learning and teaching are always culturally situated; they are never culturally neutral" (Sleeter, 2005, p. xii). Next, I will describe what cultural differences Ryo perceived and his affiliation with Japanese students in the mainstream classroom.

Cultural Differences and Affiliation with Japanese Students

Ryo experienced noisy classrooms in Japan, which are different from his classroom here where the students are strictly controlled and no students are allowed to interrupt the teacher. While the teacher is talking, the students with raised hands are ignored. Such a strict atmosphere also impressed Ryo's mother when she visited the school. She describes her impression:

> I think MIS has a specific atmosphere in which students should know how to behave. The teachers discipline the children very well. Therefore, Ryo had to behave and be serious as well, which is good for him.

Also, the mother mentioned that Japanese school Ryo attended controlled children less than at MIS.

I asked Ryo about the difference of his attitude between TJSS and MIS, Ryo answers,

> Interviewer: Do you think you are different at TJSS than at MIS?
>
> Ryo: Yes. I am quiet in MIS because I have to speak in English.
>
> Interviewer: Is it difficult for you to respond quickly in English?
>
> Ryo: (He nods.)

Although Ryo has a good command of English, he is still aware of the language barrier that makes him quieter at MIS than at TJSS. Even though Ryo behaves differently at

MIS and at TJSS, he may be becoming closer to adapting to American culture: His mother said that Ryo had changed in his behavior since he came to the U.S. For example, he has started to persist and not give up in what he wanted to do, although she does not know whether this change came from his current environment at MIS where individual rights go first, or from elsewhere.

Ryo's perception of himself is that his classmates see him as being active and funny. However, I rarely observed Ryo interacting with his peers during lunchtime or recess. Nevertheless, Ryo's strong affiliation with Ken and Yuji was observed through my school visits. The following is an excerpt from the field notes.

> In the cafeteria, I asked Ryo whether he would play on the playground or practice his music instrument during recess today. He said, "Because Ken doesn't want to practice his music instrument today, we will play on the playground together."

Ryo's reasoning shows that the three always want to stay together. When one of the three could not do the same as the other two, they seemed to give in to each other. Field notes of subsequent observations reveal some examples where Ryo, Yuji, and Ken always stay together.

> Ken, Ryo, and Yuji stay in the music room for practice. They always stay together.
>
> ……
>
> Ryo, Yuji, and Ken sit together in the cafeteria as usual.

I saw a strong bond among them. However, Ryo mentioned that if he stayed in a group of Japanese students, it would be difficult for him to make friends who are American. Ryo seemed to know that it was better for him not to built an exclusive group of Japanese.

In this section, I described Ryo's first experiences in an American school, his mother's support, his classroom performance, and cultural differences he perceived as well as his bond with the Japanese students. Next, I will present the data analysis of Ken.

Ken

Ken has been enrolled in an ELL program since his arrival to the U.S. in December 2004. He is active and cheerful; he likes sports and participates in an intramural sports team of MIS. At the interview, he expressed his wishes to stay longer in the U.S. than the expected length of time for the family because he was enjoying his new school life so much. The American school atmosphere seems to impress Ken. He noticed that American students were more controlled and quiet while teachers talked compared with students in Japan. He was also surprised at students who were allowed to lie down on the floor while they were listening to the teacher reading a storybook. He found such a cultural difference a new experience. In the following subsections, I will present three themes identified through an individual case analysis of Ken: his situation in the mainstream classroom, peer relationships, and parental support.

In the Classroom

Ken has been given reduced homework and modification of quizzes except in his math class at MIS. Despite such modification, social studies is the most difficult subject for him since he has problems understanding vocabulary in the textbook. His social studies teacher, Mr. Moll, explains about the modification of tests for Ken:

> I let him use his paper that he did for homework during quiz time. So he can use that as a reference. Rather than make him memorize those definitions, I let him use that sheet for reference. I feel like that's perfectly fine. If he needs to find the meaning of words to work now, he does not have to pull it out of memory. He'll know to go find it in a glossary or a dictionary or [electronic] translator. So I don't feel like that's a big modification that's penalizing him at all.

Mr. Moll also makes an effort to address Ken's language barrier. Mr. Moll talks to Ken through Ryo and Yuji by having them translate into Japanese what he is trying to say. Mr. Moll comments,

> To help him [Ken] understand in the least painful way, many times I have Ryo or Yuji and Ken, myself … we can meet as a small group. I'll talk through the other two, 'Hey, would you tell Ken, this is what we're doing?' And they translate for me.

I observed Mr. Moll telling Yuji to translate for Ken during an activity in the classroom:

> When it's Ken's turn to answer, Mr. Moll tells Yuji to translate the question from Mr. Moll for Ken.

Mr. Moll thinks that Ken is uncomfortable speaking English in the class. The following excerpts from the transcripts of the interview with Mr. Moll illustrate some examples of this:

> Ken seems to work best with independent work. I say, best. He seems to be more comfortable with that when he doesn't have to speak. He is more comfortable not speaking.

……

So the language barrier has been an issue as far as an oral presentation sometimes is for Ken … [and I give him] extra time as much time as he needs. He wants to speak Japanese and have one of the boys translate; that is appropriate as well.

Regarding Ken's communication skills, I asked Ken whether he could ask his teacher for help when he did not understand what the teacher said in the classroom. He answers:

Interviewer: Do you sometimes have difficulty understanding what the teacher says?

Ken: Yes.

Interviewer: What do you do at such time?

Ken: I ask my classmate for help.

Interviewer: Who is that?

Ken: Tren. He sits in front of my desk.

Ken feels it easier to ask questions of his peers than his teacher and appreciates the help from them. Next, I will describe Ken's peer relationships in the mainstream classroom.

Peer Relationships

Ken perceives that his classmates see him as a funny guy, and he is happy about that.

Interviewer: What do your classmates see in you?

Ken: Well, I think they see me as funny guy. They say to me, "You're funny." (He smiles.)

His classmates help Ken during group activities. For example, they talk to him slowly or rephrase things with simple words for him. His relationship with peers seems to be good. I observed Ken establishing relationships with some of the other students in the classroom. I noted his interactions with one of his classmates in the field notes:

> Mr. Moll calls on Ken. Ken read the passage of the textbook well. A boy sitting next to Ken patted his shoulder after he read the paragraph.
>
> ……
>
> When a boy answers correctly, Ken puts out his hand to get a high five from him. [Ken seems to be friendly to his peers, and they seem to accept Ken.]

These excerpts indicate that Ken is accepted by his peers. Besides these relationships with peers, Ken has a strong bond with the two Japanese students, Ryo and Yuji. He always stays together with them although he mentioned that the best way to improve his English is to mingle with American peers instead of with Japanese students. I rarely saw his interactions with American peers in the cafeteria at lunchtime or on the playground at recess. Ken, Ryo, and Yuji always sit at a table together in the cafeteria. Ken seemed to rely on the two Japanese students for company. Ken might need such a relationship with Japanese friends who allow him to communicate freely in Japanese.

Regarding his place in the classroom, I observed Ken's relationship with peers during a group activity at Mr. Moll' social studies class. I noted in the field notes that,

> Ken takes a back seat in his group in front of the computer and looks at the computer screen over the shoulders of his group members. Even when one boy sitting in the front seat has left and the seat is vacant, Ken does

not move to the front seat. [Is his subordinate position in the group his own choice? Ken seems to be in a lower status than his group members who are more powerful. This situation for Ken is different at MIS than that at TJSS, where he stands out by talking too much while the teacher is teaching. (I also observed him in the classroom of TJSS.)

Clearly, Ken was not in a leadership position in the group activity. Mr. Moll explains Ken's position in the classroom:

> Ken, in a group situation as we had at this point, I would say he doesn't have a strong position. I think he really would want to have a strong position. In the [group's] presentation, most of those are oral we're doing in the class. I think that hinders him somewhat in presenting orally. Very willing to participate though, whatever that might be. We had Civil War projects, specifically around this year. In his group, when they presented the Civil War project, Ken did say [give] part of the oral presentation. He was the one who displayed the project if you remember. He didn't have a strong part … [since] most [of that] is verbal. Just goes back to the language barrier, he has a trouble with that part.

Mr. Moll finds Ken as a follower in group activities. Partly because Ken feels that he cannot express himself in English at MIS, he may be more comfortable at TJSS where he can speak freely in Japanese and become more conspicuous. He contrasts his feeling of being at TJSS with that of being at MIS.

> Interviewer: You are different at TJSS than at MIS. You're very loud at TJSS. Why so?

Ken: I can't express myself in English at MIS, but I can say whatever I want in Japanese [at TJSS].

Interviewer: Which school are you comfortable with, TJSS or MIS?

Ken: TJSS because I have no difficulty with things at TJSS.

His statement above is understandable. Without a good command of the language in the community, he does not stand out. It can be said that Ken's perspective on his own situation as an English learner in the mainstream classroom is shared with other English learners. Next, I will describe the parental support Ken was provided with.

Parental Support

Regarding parental support for Ken, his mother communicated with the teacher via letters when needed. However, she has decided that she would not participate in the volunteer activities at school because of the language barrier she felt. She mentioned that she was willing to donate snacks and money to the school for her participation in school activities rather than attending school events. She explains this situation:

> I participated in the volunteer activities as a helper of a school field trip once. But I didn't understand what the teacher said. I didn't think I was helpful to them. I have never volunteered since then. But I donated snacks and money to the school. That's what I can contribute to the school.

In addition, Ken's mother utilized her drop-off and pick-up time at the school when she could meet other Japanese parents in order to get information on school events and to understand what was going on at school.

In terms of support for academic development of Ken, his mother bought him a set of picture books with cassette tapes of the entire stories in the books. He has been practicing reading aloud with the tapes every day. Ken was also given a series of adventure books written in Japanese. He has already read the books three times because he likes reading them. In addition, Ken has a private home tutor who is a bilingual college student who gives him help with his homework; this gives him great relief. Therefore, he has abundant resources at home. Regarding his development in the Japanese language, his mother commented that she wanted Ken to maintain his Japanese language skills and Japanese traditional manners.

Interviewer:	What do you do for support of Ken's Japanese?
Ken's mother:	I told Ken to study Japanese through correspondence courses from Japan. I also bought him the Japanese books he wanted.
Interviewer:	What does TJSS help him with in addition to academics?
Ken's mother:	They teach Japanese traditional customs and manners. They provide our children with the experience of traditional events specific to Japanese people.

In addition, Ken studies the Japanese school curriculum through correspondence courses from Japan Overseas Educational Services as a supplement to the Japanese Saturday school, TJSS. However, Ken's mother currently puts an emphasis on Ken's improvement of his English skills although she expressed the importance of maintaining his Japanese. The mother feels that Ken has a strong foundation in Japanese because he

came to the U.S. when he was in the 4th grade. She is optimistic that her son may become bilingual.

However, the mother expressed anxiety over Ken's upcoming readjustment upon reentering the Japanese school system. She explained about school sports clubs that engage in rigorous training year round and are group-oriented and hierarchical in their structure. It is well known that first-year students are subject to discipline by senior members and must learn the importance of hierarchical relationships. That is the senior-junior relationship in which older students play the role of mentor to younger students, who in turn, pay due respect to the older students (Kanno, 2000).

In this section dealing with individual case analyses, I described the five Japanese students in mainstream classrooms. In the next section, I will discuss a cross-case analysis of the students.

Cross-Case Analysis

This study set out to answer the following research questions:

1. What are Japanese ELL students' perspectives on attending school in mainstream classrooms?
2. What are the Japanese parents' perspectives on their children's school lives and language development?

These questions will be tied into five underlying themes identified through a cross-case analysis in this section. I will discuss the research findings derived from the cross-case analysis I conducted as the next level of case analysis described in the preceding section. In view of the data presented in this study, I will present a discussion of (1) differences of school cultural tendencies, (2) emotional support of friends and teachers, (3) identity and

self-confidence, (4) parental support and access to resources, and (5) anxiety over the children's development in Japanese.

Differences of School Cultural Tendencies

I was interested in knowing whether the five students who were culturally different experienced difficulties at their schools. Data analysis showed that the children experienced cultural differences between American schools and Japanese schools. Sana perceived that school in the U.S. was not as strict as that in Japan because the students in the U.S. were allowed to eat snacks outside of lunchtime, wear earrings, necklaces, and nail polish at school. This never happens at school in Japan. The fact that the students express themselves by wearing accessories at school may resonate with Alexander's (2003) argument that individualism in the U.S. emphasizes unconstrained freedom (see also Niehoff, Turnley, Yen, & Sheu, 2001).

However, the difference of classroom atmospheres seemed to be felt less by the old time sojourner, Kimi, who has resided in the U.S. over 5 years. In contrast, Ken, who came to the U.S. 1 year ago, was discovering the differences in school between the two countries and seemed to be enjoying his new school life.

Regarding the teachers' attitudes, Kimi received individual attention from her teacher. The teacher recognized that Kimi had an advanced reading ability and facilitated Kimi's learning by providing supplemental challenging reading assignments. This fact is consistent with Okano and Tsuchiya's (1999) argument that U.S. teachers want to facilitate individual learning. It contrasts with teachers' attitude in Japan that keeps the students as a group at the same level and has them advance as a whole.

Emotional Support of Friends and Teachers

I wanted to examine the Japanese students' relationships with their friends and teachers, focusing on the following question: How do they affect the quality of their participation and opportunities for learning? Emotional support of friends and teachers can be crucial for ELL students to be able to adjust to different sociocultural environments (Iddings, Haught, & Devlin, 2005, p.51). The cases of five Japanese students showed the importance of having friends at school. Bonds with friends strongly support Japanese students at school. For example, Kimi's rapport with Sharon supported Kimi emotionally. Kimi was always with Sharon, who was as bright as Kimi, and they shared extra reading assignments given by Ms. Forest, the language arts teacher. Kimi built up her self-confidence by completing challenging reading materials from the teacher. Moreover, Ms. Forest played an important role in supporting Kimi's performance through classroom procedures, in which she called on Kimi whenever she raised her hand because she had rarely volunteered. This encouraged Kimi's participation in class activities. Such support resulted in Kimi's high self-esteem. According to Cheng (1994), American teachers prefer students who speak out more often and exhibit competitiveness in the classroom than those who do not. However, Ms. Forest's supportive attitude toward Kimi enabled Kimi to build up her self-confidence in the classroom while remaining a reserved student, instead of being labeled an incompetent student.

In Ken's case, his relationships with the two Japanese students, Ryo and Yuji, also supported him emotionally. Regarding this kind of rapport, Day (2002) states, "sharing a common first language with some of the other children seems to have provided … with a ready source of affiliation as he maneuvered the new environment of the

classroom in the early months" (p. 52). Furthermore, Heller (1987) explains that shared experience, knowledge, and language use reflect a common view of the world. Thus, the three students felt comfortable in speaking Japanese and talking about shared topics such as their favorite animation movies. Ken, especially, who still has difficulty communicating with peers, might not have to feel isolation both in and out the classroom, having support from his peers. The three students always stayed together. They felt relaxed with each other. Their relationship seemed to be helpful in easing the challenges of their school life; none of the three students might have to feel the anxiety of isolation at school. Also, another aspect of their strong bond may come from their Japanese ethnicity. As Rotheram and Phinney (1987b) state, Japanese collectivism values affiliation. Ken, Yuji, and Ryo might have been comfortable with such a bond because their value system as Japanese would resonate with their behavioral styles.

In addition to the three students' friendship with each other, their relationship with Mr. Moll, the social studies teacher, supported them academically and emotionally. For example, Mr. Moll modified quizzes for Ken, and communicated with Ken by having Ryo and Yuji translate for him. Mr. Moll also described Ryo's leadership with his high expectations for him. As Day (2002) states, social relationships with peers and the teacher are centered in a learning environment, and the quality of the relationships affects or enhances the ELL students' possibilities for learning.

Identity and Self-Confidence

The five students had a strong identity as Japanese and self- confidence supported by their belief that diligent work would always lead to success. However, without language, it is difficult to obtain social membership and a desired social identity. Miller

(1999) states, “The language itself constitutes in many senses a gateway and/or a barrier to success in school, to social and cultural integration (membership) and to a new sense of identity” (p.152). Kimi had such a gateway. She had been in the U.S. for more than 5 years, and acquired a desirable identity in the classroom. She felt more like herself at MIS than at TJSS because her command of English became as good as her Japanese. She was more comfortable at MIS than at TJSS. In addition, her relationship with Sharon and the extra high-level assignments built up her self-confidence. She had competence academically, linguistically and socially. Therefore, Kimi’s social identity as a full member of the classroom contrasts with that of Ken. Ken had been in an ELL program for 1 year, had a relationship only with the Japanese students, and assumed the identity of a follower in group activities. The case of Ken reminds us that “the equation of English communication skills with social confidence [comes] to the fore” (Miller, 1999, p. 160). Ken did not have confidence to contribute to the group activities as a leader due to his language barrier. He took a subordinate role in his group activities. He had not “become audible to” (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 163) his peers, whereas he showed his leadership at TJSS, in which he spoke freely in Japanese and was able to be as conspicuous as he desired in the classroom. “Audibility in a second language” (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 163) is a key for Ken to change the quality of his participation in classroom activities. Thus, it can be said that Ken needed more participation as a legitimate peripheral participant (Lave & Wenger, 1991) in order to learn how to talk in his school community.

Turning to the lives of the five Japanese students outside of school, they had few opportunities to use English in social interactions. They maintained a strong Japanese ethnic identity and degree of self-confidence in terms of the belief that their diligent work

would always lead to success (Gibson, 1988, 1991; Ogubu, 1999; Olneck, 2001). Also, the TJSS and the students' home culture might have played an important role in helping to maintain their ethnic identity.

Parental Support and Access to Resources

All five students whom I interviewed had strong parental support and access to a variety of academic resources. Without such parental support, the students might have experienced a more difficult transition into new environments that were difficult for them.

Regarding the term, parental support, as described in the section of individual case analyses, this support actually came from the children's mothers. In typical Japanese families, the mother is the primary caregiver and nurturer of her children. Therefore, the children's mothers always made time for their children. For example, Ryo's mother helped him read his textbooks by translating them into Japanese for the beginning 4 months of school. Sana's mother also translated her textbooks into Japanese. Yuji's mother read the textbooks together with him, using a dictionary. Among all mothers, the effort that Kimi's and Ryo's mothers made was the greatest of all in their support of their children. In order to help Kimi with her homework, for example, Kimi's mother took an English course for English learners at Masonville College as well as hiring a private tutor. Ryo's mother learned English from her private tutor to communicate better with the teachers. As a whole, the mothers' devotion to the education of their children was enormous. In addition, they did not hesitate to hire home tutors to help their children catch up with schoolwork. It can be said that the successful academic performance of the Japanese ELL students can be attributed to their parents' enthusiastic interest in their children's schoolwork. Consistent with Gibson's (1991)

emphasis on the importance of strong family support for education helping immigrant students succeed in school, the five Japanese students in this study were academically successful, supported by their families who spared neither time nor effort and provided abundant resources for their children.

Concerning migration to the U.S., Ryo's mother spoke of the bitter feeling the family had when they had to come to the U.S. due to the father's job assignment. This feeling is understandable. It is extremely stressful to be uprooted from a familiar environment and adjust to a new value system (Trueba, 1989). However, Ryo's mother commented that her children could restart school after going back to Japan and she wanted them to have valuable experiences during their stay in the U.S. She suggested to her children that they strive to find good things at the place where they currently live. Her view was optimistic and might have had a good influence on Ryo. Most of the Japanese families enjoy living in the U.S. They want to go on as many trips as possible during their several years of the stay in the U.S. before going back to Japan. This may be a good opportunity for them to enjoy family trips to world-famous resort places such as Disney World. A noteworthy fact is the comment of Ryo's mother that the family trips might be a part of the family's compensation for the bitterness they first experienced: uprooting the children from the home country due to the father's work assignments in the U.S., which was an involuntary relocation of the children.

Turning to the communication between the parents and classroom teachers, it was regrettable that some of the mothers had trouble communicating with the teachers because of their language barrier. Their insufficient language proficiency in English inhibited their communication (Brice, 1994). Sana's mother wanted to discuss Sana's

academic progress in depth with her teacher. Yuji's mother regretted that she could not effectively communicate with his teacher; otherwise, it might have been possible to cure Yuji's mental pain much earlier. On the other hand, the mothers of Ryo and Kimi made an extra effort to overcome their language barrier, as noted above. Kimi's mother mentioned that she did her best to take care of her children. It can be said that their enthusiasm about education may constitute part of their strong *community forces* (Gibson, 1988, 1991) (*Community forces* here refer to family support of the students to acculturate to their academic environments.)

Anxiety Over the Children's Development in Japanese

The five Japanese students had anxiety over their development in the Japanese language. Their parents also experienced anxiety over the children's Japanese language development. There was a marked consistency in the students' comments, especially regarding Kanji characters. They were concerned about their writing ability of Kanji characters and getting behind their peers in Japan. The national curriculum in Japan mandates that schoolchildren learn 1,006 Kanji characters by the 6th grade (Mitsumuratosho, 2004). This number intimidated the five Japanese children in this study, who have resided in the U.S. and have gone through the American school system. For example, Sana was concerned about Japanese classes upon reentering the Japanese education system. She has little confidence to compete with Japanese peers upon her return to Japan, who might have already exceeded her in their level of proficiency in Japanese.

Most of the Japanese students sometimes spoke in English at home and were not proficient speakers of Japanese, compared with their peers in Japan. The mothers of

Kimi and Sana paid attention to correct their children's incorrect Japanese because the mothers had already started to prepare them to reenter school in Japan. In contrast, Ken's mother emphasized improving Ken's English skills. Ken is the most newly arrived ELL student among the five students described in this study. Asked whether their children should use Japanese at home, the mothers were not sure about it. This point about language use is consonant with Brice's (1994) argument that most parents of ELL students may not be aware of what is best for their children in terms of language and cognition development.

In summary, both the children and their parents have anxiety over readjustment to the Japanese school system upon re-entering to Japan. Their anxiety mainly comes from the delay of the children's development in Japanese and the difference of the two cultures between the U.S. and Japan they perceive. As Kanno (2000) states, adjustment to the host country and readjustment to Japanese school systems pose challenging tasks for sojourners such as the Japanese children in the present study. However, the students seemed to believe that diligent work would help them overcome it.

Chapter Summary

This chapter analyzed the data gathered in the study of the five Japanese students and their activities in American mainstream classrooms in order to answer the research questions: (1) What are Japanese ELL students' perspectives on attending school in mainstream classrooms? (2) What are the Japanese parents' perspectives on their children's school lives and language development? Interviews with the participants and observations of the participant students' engagement in regular classroom activities were a valuable means of data collection to study this phenomenon. At first, I discussed

individual case analyses of the five Japanese students: Kimi, Sana, Yuji, Ryo, and Ken. I presented data showing the five students' perspectives on attending school in mainstream classrooms and their parents' perspectives on their children's school lives and language development. By providing descriptive detail, I discussed each student, and I explored how their school environments served as a means to aid in the Japanese students' adjustment to a new life in the U.S., in which they had been immersed. Then, I presented results from a cross-case analysis. I discussed five themes: (1) the differences between school cultures; (2) emotional support of friends and teachers; (3) identity and self-confidence; (4) parental support and access to resources; and (5) anxiety over the children's development in the Japanese language. Chapter V will present a summary of the study, conclusions, implications, and recommendations for further research based on the findings of the study.

CHAPTER V: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter concludes the study and is divided into three sections: summary, conclusions and implications, and recommendations. The first section is the summary which reviews the purpose of this study, the review of the literature, the research design, and the findings. The second section presents the conclusions and implications of this study. The third section provides recommendations for the field of education and for further research into the experiences of Japanese ELL students.

Summary

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the current socialization practices experienced by selected Japanese ELL intermediate schoolchildren in Masonville, East Tennessee. The focus of this study was on providing insights into the unique experiences of a particular population of Japanese ELL students, mothers, and mainstream classroom teachers. I presented the cases with sufficient details to provide the reader with a vicarious experience. The research questions that guided this study were: (1) What are Japanese ELL students' perspectives on attending school in mainstream classrooms? (2) What are the Japanese parents' perspectives on their children's school lives and language development? In order to answer these questions, I conducted a naturalistic qualitative inquiry.

Review of the Literature

I reviewed the sociocultural and critical work concerning ELL students and discussed how social contexts and situations influence the development of language-minority children. The social development theory by Vygotsky (1978) and the language socialization theory by Shieffelin and Ochs (1986) built the base of my perspective on the learning environments of ELL students. These theories emphasize the importance of social interactions in the development of children. The perspectives of the sociocultural and critical researchers resonate well in this study. In order to discuss learning circumstances of specific ELL children that I focused on, I included literature on the following topics: (1) social contexts and situations in language learning; (2) identity formation; (3) language competence and social identity; (4) ethnic and cultural identity; (5) Asian students and community forces; (6) teachers' treatment of language-minority students; (7) status treatments by teachers; (8) the hidden curriculum; (9) differences between U.S. and Japanese classrooms; and (10) anxiety of ELLs' parents. From a sociocultural point of view, I presented a review of the literature exploring these phenomena.

Research Design

I conducted a naturalistic qualitative inquiry consisting of interviews and classroom observations. The interviews took place with five Japanese ELL students, their mothers, and two mainstream classroom teachers of these children. Classroom observations generated the field notes. Data collection and data analysis were conducted in a recursive cycle, which was conducive to productivity in that I was able to know what I was finding and not finding for the study (Hatch, 2002). The recursive process and

flexibility in these stages enriched the information collected. Based on constructivist assumptions, my research participants and I become interlocked through the research process, which was important and interesting to me as a constructivist researcher. In order to present clear pictures of my assertions, I provided narrative descriptions with direct quotes from interview transcripts and field notes (Erickson, 1986). Conducting a qualitative study opened the way toward pursuing the goal of this study. Therefore, a naturalistic qualitative inquiry was a powerful and effective methodology for the study.

Findings

I presented in detail the experiences of the five Japanese students: Kimi, Sana, Yuji, Ryo, and Ken through individual case analyses. Then, through cross-case analysis, I identified five themes: (1) the differences between school cultures; (2) emotional support of friends and teachers; (3) identity and self-confidence; (4) parental support and access to resources; and (5) anxiety over the children's development in the Japanese language. I described what school experiences they had, how the environments supported each of the children, what the teachers' perspectives were, and what kinds of difficulties they encountered. Overall, I illustrated each participant's perspective.

Conclusions and Implications

I explored the experiences and perspectives of the five Japanese students, their mothers, and the two classroom teachers in this study, guided by sociocultural perspectives on learning that have become of great interest in educational research. I drew the theoretical perspectives for this study from the social development theory by Vygotsky (1978) and the language socialization theory by Shieffelin and Ochs (1986).

Data indicated that the students' success in learning was partially determined, in addition to the support from their parents, by practices in the classroom and social relationships with peers and the teacher (Norton & Toohey, 2001). In addition, Lave and Wenger's (1991) theory on the importance of learning as legitimate peripheral participation in a community of practice enriched my understanding of the situations in which the participant students were situated.

Guided by these theories, I was interested both in the internal characteristics of the participant students and in the characteristics of their relationships with the learning environments in which they were located. Data showed that the five Japanese students were successful in their academic performance in the mainstream classroom, supported by their mothers at home, and by the classroom teachers at school. Indeed, the students demonstrated their full commitment to learning in the mainstream classroom. In terms of psychological environments, I described the students' relationships with their particular friends, which played an important role in easing their school life. Kimi's relationship with Sharon supported her emotionally. The bonds between Ken, Yuji, and Ryo were necessary for them to make their daily school life more comfortable.

A common thread among all five student participants was their anxiety for reentering the Japanese school system upon their return to Japan. All students had little confidence in catching up with their peers in Japan in their ability to write Kanji, which is the most important writing system of the Japanese language. However, their attitudes towards dealing head-on with all circumstances they encountered showed them that diligent work would bring them success.

I examined the experiences and perspectives of the Japanese ELL students, their mothers, and the classroom teachers. Through the data analysis, I identified five themes: (1) differences of the school cultural tendencies; (2) emotional support of friends and teachers; (3) identity and self-confidence; (4) parental support and access to resources; and (5) anxiety over the children's development in Japanese. Each of these themes has important implications for the field of education. To a certain degree, I found that access to resources for enhancing academic success, affiliation with friends, and support from the teachers at school provided the students with a positive school life. Norton and Toohey (2001) contend, "The proficiencies of the good language learners in our studies were bound up not only in what they did individually but also in the possibilities their various communities offered them" (p. 318). The positioning of students is partly determined by conditions or circumstances available to them. Indeed, the support from the classroom teachers helped the students participate in the classroom. The relationships between the students and their peers were supportive for them. In the following subsections, I will present the implications of each of the five themes identified in the findings.

Conclusions and Implications From "Differences of School Cultural Tendencies"

The participant students and their mothers perceived differences between school cultures in the U.S. and Japan. To some extent, the differences may come from broader cultural tendencies in Japan and the U.S. The concept of collectivism may not be the only element for characterizing the Japanese school culture, but it would give us sense of how Japanese people perceive American culture. The Japanese students may comprehend that the freedom of self-expression would come from individualism.

"*Individualism* puts self above others and personal rights …. It emphasizes unconstrained freedom of action and thought"(Alexander, 2003, p. 25). This concept of individual freedom may be different from that of students who have grown up in Japanese cultural environments. A newcomer from Japan may find it wonderful to be able to express him/herself by wearing accessories that have been prohibited at school in his/her home country. On the other hand, the student may find it uncomfortable to express his/her own thoughts in the classroom. In order to be able to be express oneself freely, one may have to be in the American school system for a while and understand how individual freedom is expressed, as well as how classroom teachers expect students to express themselves.

Regarding the differences between attitudes of teachers in the U. S. and Japan, individualistic instruction in American schools may put a student who has an advanced academic level in an advantageous position. Teachers in the U.S. want to facilitate that student's potential. A Japanese student who possesses an advanced academic level, as Kimi does, can take advantage of individual instruction with the teacher's blessings in the U. S. In contrast, because Japanese teachers want to keep their students as a group at the same level and have them advance as a whole, the academically-advanced student has to wait for the other classmates to rise to his/ her level. If students with advanced academic potentials want to study above and beyond the general curriculum, they generally attend special classes outside school, which are called *Juku* in Japanese. Kimi is a good example of a student who had the advantage of individual instruction in the U.S.

Conclusions and Implications From "Emotional Support of Friends and Teachers"

In order for ELL students to learn as newcomers in the mainstream classroom, environmental support and acceptance are crucial. In terms of psychological environments, relationships with friends and teachers strongly affect them as learners. The data I presented in this study showed that the students' relationships with friends supported them and was necessary for their success. Emotional support from friends can stabilize their psychological environment. Ken was a case in point. His peers showed acceptance of him, and he had a good relationship with them, despite his difficulty in communicating with them in English. Most importantly, he was able to enjoy his school life, in which he was exclusively associated with Yuji and Ryo. The three students were united by their shared identity as Japanese ELL students. Ken's affiliation with the two students made his psychological environment comfortable, and he did not feel isolation, which many second-language learners experience.

In addition, caring support and understanding from teachers can enhance students' learning in the classroom (Lave & Wenger, 1991). The two classroom teachers facilitated their ELL students' learning potential. They showed the important role of the teacher with ELL students. When I heard from Ms. Forest that she liked Kimi, spoke of her highly, and wanted to facilitate her classroom participation, I was interested in knowing how, in return, Kimi felt about this. Kimi rose to the high expectations of Ms. Forest by meeting the challenging high level of reading assignments provided by the teacher, as well as sharing the assignments with her equally gifted friend, Sara. Kimi's high self-esteem and confidence were subsequently enhanced. Thus, according to Mahn and John-Steiner (2002), who stress "human connection and caring support—that foster

the development of competence" (p. 48), it is clear that the good relationship between Kimi and the teacher facilitated Kimi's academic advancement. Additionally, Day's (2002) notion that "teachers need to put human relationships at the center of learning and consider both affective and political dimensions of classroom life as central and not peripheral"(p. 113) is helpful in understanding the importance of human connection at school. Therefore, these cases support the statement that it will be useful to explore more internal human characteristics of learning that facilitate a learners' potential.

Conclusions and Implications From "Identity and Self-Confidence"

The five Japanese students exhibited a strong ethnic identity as Japanese and self-confidence in terms of the belief that their diligent work will always lead to success (Gibson, 1988, 1991; Ogubu, 1999; Olneck, 2001). Their strong ethnic Japanese identity may come from a strong network with the Japanese community through the Japanese Saturday School. The five students attended the Japanese school every Saturday to stay caught up with their peers in Japan. This schooling supports the students in maintaining a strong ethnic Japanese identity. Even if the students had a bad day at MIS, the Japanese Saturday School might have given them an opportunity to recover from that. That is, they were able to have a positive feeling about their ethnic identity as Japanese. In other words, they had strong supportive ties with the Japanese community, which validates their strong community forces.

Another point to be made is that the longer the ELL students stayed in the U.S., the more bicultural they became. Kimi is a case in point. Kimi had been in the U.S. for more than 5 years. She could switch her cultural values between MIS and TJSS. She enjoyed her school life at MIS and even felt better about herself at MIS than at TJSS. On

the other hand, she spoke Japanese to her family and was educated as a Japanese girl at TJSS as well as at home. The term, bicultural identity, "can mean bicultural competence, that is, the ability to function in two different cultures by switching between two sets of values and attitudes" (Rotheram & Phinney, 1987a, p.24). The home culture of the five students maintained their ethnicity as Japanese on one hand, and on the other hand, daily schooling instilled American culture in them. Kimi's bicultural ability showed that she was able to make a good friend among her American peers instead of seeking one from her Japanese peers; and she became acculturated in an American classroom-environment. I also observed such bicultural ability to a lesser extent in Sana, who had been in the U.S. for about 3 years.

Conclusions and Implications From "Parental Support and Access to Resources"

All the mothers of the five Japanese students were enthusiastic about the education for their children. The mothers made an enormous effort to establish their children's well-being at school. They provided them with whatever they thought was needed for supporting their academic progress in both English and Japanese. Their economic resources were strong enough to access academic resources such as books, extra reading classes, and private home tutoring for their children. Combined with the ethic that hard work brings its own reward, the economic resources provided by their mothers supported the students' academic achievement. Therefore, having economic resources can be considered as part of "community forces" (Gibson, 1991, p. 375).

Among all, it can be said that parental support facilitated their children's adjustment to the new environment. The five students I described in this study are among most ELL students who are in a situation that has the triple tasks of learning English as a

second language, performing in that language, and developing social skills at school (Carrasquillo & Rodriquez, 2002). Adjustment in the host country poses a challenge to these students. With respect to the students' ability to strive for success in a new environment, parental support that facilitates positive attitudes plays a crucial role in generating such ability. Ryo's mother commented that her children should find good things and have valuable experiences during their stay in the U.S. Her comment indicated that despite the family's feeling of being uprooted from their home country, due to the fathers' work assignments, the children did have some control over changing their circumstances that seemed to make them full of anxiety. For example, by developing their bicultural abilities, they were able to become flexible to new circumstances and enrich their life experience. This may be necessary for the children's well-being in a new environment. Thus, it is crucial for ELL students to have strong support in order to succeed in adjusting to a new learning environment.

Conclusions and Implications From "Anxiety Over the Children's Development in Japanese"

The five Japanese students in this study have been directing their efforts toward both improving their English skills and maintaining their Japanese language. Kanno (2000) stresses that it is necessary for Japanese ELL students who are eventually going back to their home country to maintain a good command of Japanese in order to be a full member of the Japanese school community upon reentry. The five students were supposed to go back to Japan at the completion of their fathers' overseas assignments. Upon reentering the Japanese school system, they will have to demonstrate their competence in the Japanese language. A good command of Japanese is one of the basics

of being Japanese. Students want to show that they are no different from their peers in Japan. They do not want to stand out in the classroom because of a poor command of Japanese. Yet, the bicultural identity they acquired in the U.S. may be hidden when they attend Japanese school in order for them to better fit in. Readjustment to Japanese school may not be an easy process. The five students were non-Americans while they were in the U.S., and when they return to Japan, they will be outsiders again if they are not able to adjust themselves to the new school system. Yamada-Yamamoto (1998) states that "their cultural and linguistic problems become much more conspicuous once they return to Japan" (p. 3).

Part of their anxiety of reentering the Japanese education system may come from the characteristic tendency of Japanese to be a collective, homogeneous people. That is, they feel that they need to be similar to each other, including in their Japanese language proficiency. Therefore, one of their biggest readjustment challenges is their Japanese language ability, which may be behind that of their Japanese peers.

Recommendations

Based on the themes identified from findings of this study, there are two sets of recommendations in the following subsections: recommendations for education and recommendations for further research.

Recommendations for Educational Arena

I recommend that classroom teachers be aware of students' potential cultural barriers in the classroom. As children become aware of their ethnic differences, they consciously build boundaries between different ethnic groups. The participant Japanese students, who were 10 to 11 years old, had already been cognizant of the cultural

differences between their American peers and themselves. For example, Kimi was aware of such differences. She perceived that her American peers were more independent than her Japanese peers, who tended to be less individualistic and more a part of their peer group. Kimi resided in the U. S. for the longest period among the participants students, and had to maintain her Japanese ethnicity as described in the previous chapter. However, Ms. Forest, Kimi's classroom teacher, mentioned that she did not recognize a Japanese ethnicity in Kimi. Therefore, I recommend that mainstream classroom teachers be aware of such cultural differences that children perceive.

According to Phinney and Rotheram (1987), even though such cultural boundaries may become an obstacle to students' friendships as they become adolescents, some teachers may want to avoid mentioning a student's ethnicity in the classroom and pretend to assume that the differences do not exist. Such an attitude among teachers does not help students deal with that potential barrier. Thus, it is important to be aware that some of those children who have a specific ethnic identity are uprooted from their cultures and are being transplanted into another culture. Being aware of such a situation can have a powerful effect on a teacher's ability to work more effectively with those students. Teachers' cultural awareness is crucial if teachers are to facilitate efficient learning for all. Additionally, schools should provide teachers with opportunities for professional development concerning cultural awareness. It will increase the teachers' confidence to deal with children from different cultural and ethnic backgrounds.

Turning to the relationships between teachers and students, Day (2002) states, "Teachers need to put human relationships at the center of learning and consider both affective and political dimensions of classroom life as central and not peripheral"(p. 113).

Her stance resonates well with the findings in this study. For example, Mr. Moll, the social studies' teacher, prepared for dealing with the Japanese ELL students by asking for advice from Mr. Reid, who was his predecessor and who had previously taught some Japanese ELL students in his social studies classes. In order to work with the Japanese ELL students, Mr. Moll took into account their situation and made an effort to establish a good relationship with them. His effort was noteworthy. Mahn and John-Steiner (2002) state, "a teacher's awareness of students' ways of perceiving, processing and reacting to classroom interactions … contributes significantly to the teacher's ability to engage the students in meaningful, engaging education" (p. 53). Therefore, I recommend that teachers facilitate such social relationships in their classrooms and emphasize the importance of human interaction in learning. I hope that the study discussed here will contribute to teachers' awareness of such needs of learners, if individual students are indeed the focus of this educational effort.

Recommendations for Further Research

Studies dealing with Japanese ELL students by Japanese researchers have been scarce. Phinney and Rotheram (1987) state, "in order for ethnic groups to be understood on their own terms, there is a need for more ethnic minority researchers and more multiethnic research teams, and wider recognition of work by minority researchers" (p. 288). As one of these minority researchers, I recommend that further research into groups of language learners be conducted. Research studies that situate ELL students in their sociocultural contexts are valuable and may lead to a heightened awareness of their needs. Another issue is the need for more longitudinal research studies involving

children. Longitudinal studies of individual ELL students may also provide insight into the impact of sociocultural environments of the young language learners.

In addition, I recommend research into the responses of mainstream students to minority students. The majority group establishes the environment for minority groups through interaction with them. For example, peers can provide a newcomer student with a step toward full membership into the classroom through emotional support such as friendship. Finally, I also recommend research into the preparation of mainstream classroom teachers and their needs to be able to deal with minority students. Such research studies may lead to an integration of all members in the learning community. I hope that the information I have presented here on the Japanese ELL students will be used as a knowledge base for further studies asking questions that are more specific concerning minority students in naturalistic and real-world classroom settings.

Chapter Summary

This chapter presented a summary of the study, conclusions, implications, and recommendations. The theoretical perspectives that I drew from include Vygotskian sociocultural theories on learning. In this framework, learning is viewed as a social practice, and participation in the school community is critical. Conclusions were made that the five Japanese student participants were successful in academic performance, supported by their mothers at home, and by their classroom teachers at school. The students also demonstrated their full commitment to learning in the mainstream classroom, and were emotionally supported by their relationships with particular friends who played an important role to make them feel comfortable in their new school life. Then, I discussed recommendations for further research concerning minority children

among majority children in hope that it will be beneficial to both groups in the society and bring understanding and awareness of the differences and similarities between them. Finally, as an educator, I hope that newcomer ELL students will build up their self-confidence and self-esteem through the experience of successful interactions with their peers and teachers creating supportive learning environments.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Guiding interview questions for the student participants

Guiding questions for the first interviews with the students

(I interviewed the students in Japanese.)

Changes

1. What have you changed in your classroom compared with the beginning time when you came to the U.S.?
2. What has been changed in your home life since you came to the U.S.?
3. What has been changed in your school life since you came to the U.S.?
4. What problems do you think you will face when you go back to Japan?

Classroom environments

5. What kinds of differences did you find between your ESL classroom and the mainstream classroom? In which classroom do you feel relaxed?
6. What kinds of things surprised you when you started in the mainstream classroom?
7. What differences did you find between U.S. and Japan, in terms of teachers, classroom, activities after school, lunchtime, recess time, and classmates?
8. What kinds of rules do you think are different from Japanese school?
9. Which school do you prefer? Why?
10. Which part of Japanese school do you like best?
11. Which part of American school do you like best?
12. What do you think your teacher expects for you to do in the mainstream classroom?
13. When do you feel happy in the classroom?

Academics

14. What kinds of problem do you have in learning in the mainstream classroom?
15. Have you ever felt isolated during a class period?
16. What do you do when you do not understand your teacher's instruction?
17. What do you do when you do not understand what is going on in the classroom?
18. Do you think you are getting busier than before you came to the U.S.?
19. Do you have difficulty completing your homework?
20. When you have difficulty completing your homework, what do you usually do?
21. Do your teachers reduce your assignments?
22. When you feel you are getting behind, what do you want to do?
23. Which subject do you think is the easiest? Why?
24. Which subject do you think is the most difficult? Why?

Participation

25. When you are not interested in some classroom activities, do you feel you want to keep your head down on the desk or do anything else?
26. Have you ever kept your head down on the desk during an entire class period?
27. Do you think you are quiet in the classroom?
28. How often do you raise your hand to volunteer to answer in the classroom?
29. What school activities do you take part in outside classroom?

Relationship with teacher

30. What kinds of problems do you talk to your teacher?

31. Who do you want to consult with about problems in learning in the classroom?
32. What differences do you find between U.S. teachers and Japanese teachers?
33. Do you think your teacher understand your characteristics?
34. What does your teacher say or do when you are too quiet in the classroom?
35. What kinds of support does your teacher give you?
36. What does your teacher do in order to put you in a group of American peers?
37. What does your teacher say when she wants to praise you in person?

Relationship with peers

38. What kinds of problems do you have in playing with American peers at school?
39. When do you feel lonely? What do you want to do in such a case?
40. What is the most difficult when you try to change in order to act in the same way as the American peers?
41. How many friends at school do you have now?
42. What do you think of strange behaviors of American peers? What makes you happy or angry?
43. Do you feel happy to find any Japanese students in your classroom?

Consultation with parents

44. Who do you consult with when you have problems with American peers?
45. What do your parents say when you tell them about problems of school?
46. Do your parents tell you how to behave in the classroom?
47. What do your parents say about your academic performance?

Self-image or Self-esteem

48. What do you want to do in order to improve your English?
49. As what kind of student do your classmates see you?
50. What do you feel yourself when you do not volunteer to answer in the classroom?
51. Do you feel yourself as a full member of the classroom?
52. What advantages or disadvantages do you think have as a bilingual?

Guiding questions for the second interview with Kimi

Confirmation of the content of the first interview

1. What does your mother say to you when you speak English at home?

(Her mother said that Kimi sometimes speaks English at home.)

2. Do you want to have some opportunities to visit your friend's house?

(After school Kimi does not go out to play with friends in her neighborhood now. Last year she had some opportunities to play at her friend's home.)

3. How do you want to learn or overcome Kanji?
4. Sharon and Kimi exceed the peers so Mrs. Forest gives extra and advanced assignments to you, paring with Sharon. How does Sharon support you academically and emotionally?
5. How often do you study by correspondence courses from Shinken Semi (the correspondence company)?
6. Do you attend the KUMON reading tutoring class?
7. What private lessons or extra activities do you take besides your current gym club? (e.g., Piano lesson, swimming)
8. What kinds of materials do you want to have at home to study Japanese?

9. Why do you not want to be heard by peers when you ask questions to the teacher? (Kimi said that when she has questions in classes, she asks the teachers while a break time because she does not want the classmates to listen to her questions.)
10. Could you tell me some examples of the following? : Kimi said that the Math teacher does not seem to understand her feeling of shyness.
11. Could you tell me some examples of the following? Kimi said that American peers do what they want to. They are independent compare to Japanese peers.

Relationships with peers and Ms. Forest (Emotional support of friends and the teacher)

12. What part of Ms. Forest's class do you like best?
13. Could you explain to me what makes Ms. Forest a good teacher?
14. In the class of the Language Arts, do you feel that you have to volunteer to answer because you know the classroom expectation that volunteering is part of participation?
15. Could you describe Sharon as your good friend?
16. Do you want to make more American friends than now?

Social identity and self-esteem and confidence

17. If there was any school-aged children around here, do you think you would speak to them to be good friends or you wanted to be spoken to by them at first?
18. What kinds of challenges do you want to rise to?

Japanese Saturday School as one of supporters

19. Which has more weight in your mind, MIS or Japanese Saturday School?
20. How does Japanese Saturday School support you, besides academically?
21. Which do feel relaxed, at MIS or at Japanese Saturday School? Why?
22. Kimi seems to enjoy this Language Arts class more than the Japanese class. I saw her legs swing in the class, which shows that she relaxes and enjoys the class. Is this correct?

How close to Japanese culture?

23. What is your favorite recent Japanese video, books, magazines or movies?
24. Do you want get thorough knowledge of Japanese popular culture before going back to Japan? Why?
25. Do you think that you have missed out on the best part of student life in Japan by coming to the U.S.? (An ESL student mentioned that she missed the school excursion of Japan in the first interview.)
26. What do you think about the following statement? "Some Japanese students think that learning American History is not useful because it is not relevant to Japanese school curricular.

Anxiety of development of Japanese language

27. How long have you taken the correspondence courses from Japan?
28. Do you think you are progressing through the courses?
29. Which language is more convenient for you to take notes?

Differences of the classroom between MIS and Japanese Saturday School

30. What do you notice the difference of classrooms between MIS and Japanese Saturday School?

Additional

31. Do you think that the more you get involved in the Japanese group, the less your motivation to socialize with English speakers?
32. What do you wish now?

Guiding questions for the second interview with Sana

Confirmation of the content of the first interview

1. At the beginning time when you came to the U.S., the teacher gave you take-home-tests. How long did you do that?

Relationships with peers and Mr. Moll (Emotional support of friends and the teacher)

2. Could you please explain about what makes Mr. Moll a good teacher?
3. Why do you think that it is easy for you to talk to Mr. Moll?
4. I saw Sana share her drawing with a girl after the class. Her drawing is an illustration of a cute girl's face. [11/17/05 FNM-2] Do they know that you are good at drawing? How many students did you share your drawing with?
5. Who is your best friend in MIS? Could you please tell me the name?
6. Sana said that she wishes if she had a Japanese friend in the social studies class. Why?
7. Do you want to make more American friends than now? Why?

Social identity and self-esteem and confidence

8. At the social studies' group presentation of the Civil War (Thursday, 11/3/05 4th period Sana), your role was gesture instead of speaking. Do you think that the group members took consideration for you that you are not good at or does not like speaking in front of the class?
9. Do you feel that it is easier to participate in a group activity when the girl or a leader asks you what to do?
10. I saw you smiling during the presentations. Did you enjoy it?
11. May I ask you about the result of the quiz of the Civil War? What percentage did you get?
12. If there was any school-aged children around here, do you think you would speak to them to be good friends or you wanted to be spoken to by them at first?

Differences of the classroom between MIS and Japanese Saturday School

13. Do you think that MIS is quieter than classrooms in Japan?
14. Do you like the school culture here? Sana perceives that school here is not strict because the students are allowed to eat snack and drink beside of lunch time. In addition, the students are allowed to wear ear rings, necklaces and nail enamel. These never happen at school in Japan.
15. What part of the American school do you like best?

Japanese Saturday School

16. Which has more weight in your mind, MIS or Japanese Saturday School?
17. How does Japanese Saturday support you, besides academically?
18. Which do feel relaxed, at MIS or at Japanese Saturday School? Why?
19. Do you think that your feeling is different in MIS from in Japanese Saturday School?

How close to Japanese culture?

20. What is your favorite recent Japanese video, books, magazines or movies?
21. Do you want get thorough knowledge of Japanese popular culture before going back to Japan? Why?
22. Do you think that you have missed out on the best part of student life in Japan by coming to the U.S.? (Sana mentioned that she wishes if she could go on a school excursion with her classmates in Japan at the first interview.) What would you have experienced if you had stayed in Japan?
23. What do you think about the following statement? "Some Japanese students think that learning American History is not useful because it is not relevant to Japanese school curricular."

Anxiety of development of Japanese language

24. Your mother said that you read books written in Japanese. Tell me why you think that it is good for you to read them.
25. How long have you taken the correspondence courses from Japan (Japan Overseas Educational Services)? Is it helpful for you to continue that?

Additional

26. Did your parents tell you to make new American friends or interact with American peers instead of sticking together with Japanese students?
27. Do you think that the more you get involved in the Japanese group, the less your motivation to socialize with English speakers?
28. Could you tell me what you wish now?

Guiding questions for the second interview with Yuji

Confirmation of the content of the first interview

1. In which month did you come to the U.S.?
2. What kind of correspondence courses are you in? How long? Currently are you using it?
5. Which team are you in at MIS?
6. Who is your Language Arts' teacher?
7. How long did you study English once a week in Japan, and what is the name of the English school?
8. During the difficult time, did you want to go back to Japan?
9. How long have you had a home tutor? Is it a Japanese tutor?

Relationships with peers and Mr. Moll

10. Could you explain to me what makes Mr. Moll a good teacher?
11. I saw you with Ken and Ryo at the playground often. If you are not with them, are you interested in playing with American peers?
12. I saw Ken, Ryo and you always stay together. Are you more comfortable when staying with them? Why so?
13. Do you think that the more you get involved in the Japanese group, the less your motivation to socialize with English speakers?
14. Do you want to make more American friends than now? Why?

Self-confidence

15. If there was any school-aged children around here, do you think you would speak to them to be good friends or you wanted to be spoken to by them at first?

Anxiety of development of Japanese language

16. Do you take correspondence courses from Japan?
17. If any, how long have you taken the correspondence courses from Japan?
18. Do you think that correspondence courses are useful?

Japanese Saturday School

19. Which has more weight in your mind, MIS or Japanese Saturday School?
20. How does Japanese Saturday School support you, besides academically?
21. Which do feel relaxed, at MIS or at Japanese Saturday School? Why?
22. Do you think that your feeling is different in MIS from in Japanese Saturday School?

How close to Japanese culture?

23. What is your favorite recent Japanese video, books, magazines or movies?
24. Do you want get thorough knowledge of Japanese popular culture before going back to Japan? Why?
25. What do you think about the following statement? "Some Japanese students think that learning American History is not useful because it is not relevant to Japanese school curricular.:
26. Do you think that you have missed out on the best part of student life in Japan by coming to the U.S.? (A Japanese ESL student mentioned that she missed the school excursion of Japan in the first interview.)

Additional

27. Have you ever been bullied by someone at MIS?
28. Did you worry about bullying at school here before you came to the U.S.? Did you see bullying at your school in Japan?
29. What do you wish now?

Guiding questions for the second interview with Ryo

Relationships with peers and Mr. Moll

1. Could you explain to me what makes Mr. Moll a good teacher?
2. I saw Ken, Yuji, and you always stay together. Are you more comfortable when staying with them? Why so?
3. Where are you with Ken and Yuji at recess unless you are not on the play ground? What do you do there during recess?
4. Do you want to make more American friends than now? Why?
5. Do you think that the more you get involved in the Japanese group, the less your motivation to socialize with English speakers?

Self-confidence

6. If there was any school-aged children around here, do you think you would speak to them to be good friends or you wanted to be spoken to by them at first?

Extra lessons

7. KUMON Reading lesson? Piano lesson? Private music lesson in MIS? Swimming lesson? Gymnastic lesson?

8. How many hours per day and per week do you take such lessons?

Extra materials

9. What kinds of books and how many have your parents bought for you?
10. Do you think those are useful? Did you read them all?
11. Besides those books, what kinds of materials did your parents buy for you?

Japanese Saturday School

12. What are the differences of the classroom between MIS and Japanese Saturday School?
13. Which has more weight in your mind, MIS or Japanese Saturday School?
14. Which do feel relaxed, at MIS or at Japanese Saturday School? Why?
15. How does Japanese Saturday School support you, besides academically?

How close to Japanese culture?

16. What is your favorite recent Japanese video, books, magazines or movies?
17. Do you want get thorough knowledge of Japanese popular culture before going back to Japan? Why?
18. Could you tell me more about your statement that learning American History is not useful because it is not relevant to Japanese school curricular?
19. Do you think that you have missed out on the best part of student life in Japan by coming to the U.S.? (A Japanese ESL student mentioned that she missed the school excursion of Japan in the first interview.)

Anxiety of development of Japanese language

20. How long have you taken the correspondence courses from Japan?
21. Do you still study it? Do you think it useful? How many hours per day or per week do you study it?
22. I saw you lean over your desk at Japanese Saturday School on January, 28th when Mrs. Sanae (pseudonym) gave individual instructions to the students. The task was writing an imaginative story. Do you not like writing?

Guiding questions for the second interview with Ken

Confirmation of the content of the first interview

1. When you knew that your family would go to the U.S., you thought that "Great!." Do you still have the same feeling as at that time now?
2. Do you feel that you missed best part of school life in Japan?
3. How long have you take the correspondence courses from Japan?
4. Do you still study it? How many hours do you work on it per day or per week?
5. Do you think it useful?

Extra Activities

6. Do you take private music lesson at MIS?
7. Do you take piano lesson? Gymnastic lesson? Swimming?
8. Do you attend KUMON reading class?

Extra materials

9. How many books have your parents bought for you? Did you read them all?
10. What kinds of studying materials have your parents got for you?

Japanese Saturday School

11. In the performance show at the Japanese School, you played your role very good and your performance was conspicuous. You look more subdued at MIS than at Japanese Saturday School. Do you think you have different faces between at MIS and at the Japanese School? Which is your true face? Why so?
12. Which has more weight in your mind, MIS or Japanese Saturday School?
13. Which do feel relaxed, at MIS or at Japanese Saturday School? Why?
14. How does Japanese Saturday School support you, besides academically?
15. What are the differences of the classroom between MIS and Japanese Saturday School?

Relationships with peers and Mr. Moll

16. Could you explain to me what makes Mr. Moll a good teacher?
17. When you are with Yuji and Ryo, are you more comfortable than with American peers? Why so?
18. I saw you in the class put out your hand to a boy to get a high five with him after his successful turn of the quiz. Do you do it often?
19. Do you want to make more American friends than now? Why?
20. Where are you with Ryo and Yuji at recess unless you are not on the play ground? What do you do there during recess?
21. Do you think that the more you get involved in the Japanese group, the less your motivation to socialize with English speakers?

Self-confidence

22. Do you have any strategies to negotiate his participation? (In a group activity, does Ken have a strong position?)
23. I saw Ryo, Yuji and you always stay together. Are you more comfortable when staying with them? Why so?
24. if any, when you mingle with American students, do you feel that you are a subordinate? If so, why?
25. If there was any school-aged children around here, do you think you would speak to them to be good friends or you wanted to be spoken to by them at first?
26. Mr. Moll said, “Ken doesn’t want to speak in front of the class?” Is that true? Why so?
27. Why did you not want use Japanese and not want the Japanese students to translate for you in a presentation of the Social Studies class?

How close to Japanese culture?

28. What is your favorite recent Japanese video, books, magazines or movies?
29. Do you want get thorough knowledge of Japanese popular culture before going back to Japan? Why?
30. What do you think about the following statement? “Some students think that learning American History is not useful because it is not relevant to Japanese school curricular.”
31. Do you think that you have missed out on the best part of student life in Japan by coming to the U.S.? (A Japanese ESL student mentioned that she missed the school excursion of Japan in the first interview.)

Appendix B: Guiding interview questions for the parents

Guiding questions for the first interviews with the parents

(I interviewed the parents in Japanese.)

Culture

1. What were your concerns at the time immediately after you arrived in the U. S.?
2. What kind of support did you give your child for cultural transition when you came to the U.S.?
3. What differences did you notice between U.S. school and Japanese school?
4. How did you help your child fit in school? Did you teach you child about the differences between Japan and U.S. classrooms?
5. Have you ever noticed that your child is experiencing the cultural conflict in school? How did you solve the problems, if any?
6. What kind of support do you want?

Concerns

7. Have your child ever consulted any problems of school with you?
8. What strategies do you use for helping your child in academic progress?

Relationship with Teachers or School

9. How often do you contact teachers when you have any questions?
10. How often do you volunteer to help school events?
11. How often do you participate in school activities as a parent?
12. What kind of support from school do you want?

Perception of the child's relationship with peers

13. Do you think that your child have enough interaction with American peers at school?
14. Do you think that your child have enough interaction with American peers outside school?

Changes found by parents

15. What kinds of changes have you found in your child since you came to the U.S.?

Being a bilingual

16. What advantages do you think your child has as a bilingual?
17. What disadvantages do you think your child as a bilingual?
18. What is your concern for the English language development of your child?
19. What is your concern for the Japanese language development of your child?
20. What kind of support do you want?

Future Concerns

21. What possible problems do you think your child may face when your family goes back to Japan?
22. What kind of support do you want?

Guiding questions for the second interviews with the parents

(I interviewed the parents in Japanese.)

As an immigrant or as a visitor?

1. How often has your family traveled for vacations since you came to the U.S.?
2. Is it correct that the families enjoy staying in the U.S. as if they are on family trip to the U.S.?
3. What do you think about the following statement? He thinks that learning American History is not useful because it is not relevant to Japanese school curricular.

Parental supports and access to resources

4. What kinds of materials did you buy or prepare for your child in order to support academic development at MIS (Masonville Intermediate School) (pseudonym)?
5. What kinds of materials did you buy or prepare for your child in order to support academic development at the Japanese Saturday School?
6. How do you think Japanese Saturday School supports the Japanese ESL students, besides academically?
7. Has your child ever taken any private lesson of music instrument at MIS?
8. Has your child ever taken any music lesson such as piano lesson at home?

Anxiety of child's language development of Japanese

9. Do you think mother should tell her children to speak Japanese at home in order to help their development of the Japanese language?
10. How do you want to assist your child's development of Japanese?

Any complaints?

11. What do you want to talk with the teacher, besides of your child's academic development?
12. If you could have enough communication with the teacher, would it be possible to prevent some troubles? What else could you do?

Appendix C: Guiding interview questions for the participant teacher, Ms. Forest

Guiding questions for the first interview with Ms. Forest

Teacher's background

1. How long have you been teaching?
2. Did you teach any ESL students before this school year? If any, how many years did you teach ESL students?
3. Did you teach any Japanese students before this school year?
4. Have you ever been provided any specific training or knowledge for teaching international students or ESL students?

Culture

1. Regarding Kimi (pseudonym), what cultural aspects did you find in Kimi?
2. Have you ever explained Kimi about classroom expectations?
3. What dilemmas have you ever faced in teaching Japanese students? ("cultural values affect students' ability to engage successfully in English literacy activities" (*Cultural Conflict and Adaptation*, Trueba, Jacobs, & Kirton, 1990, p. 104)
4. What cultural conflict have you ever had?
5. How do you identify any students who function with a different set of cultural assumptions and experiences? For, example?
6. What do you think about children who do not want to attract attentions from American peers for such as Japanese-style lunch?
7. Have you ever seen that a new ESL student shows any signs of emotional turmoil in the classroom? How do you deal with that?
8. When you find an ESL student who does not seem to share your values and who do not respond in expected ways, how do you deal with that? (*Cultural Conflict and adaptation*, Trueba, Jacobs, & Kirton, 1990, p. 134)
9. How do you facilitate the Japanese students' understanding and integration of American cultural values?
10. In order to help children make the transition to the new culture and language with less pain, what can you offer?
11. "Functioning in new and diverse cultural environments without losing one's personal identity" (*Cultural Conflict and Adaptation*, Trueba, Jacobs, & Kirton, 1990, p. 135) is important. In order to achieve it, what can you offer?

Academic problems

12. Have you ever seen any ESL students who just sat quietly the entire class period, daydreaming as if they had entirely given up any attempts to make sense of the world around them?
13. How do you deal with an ESL student who keeps his head down on the desk during your instruction?
14. Under what circumstances do the ELL students participate actively in classroom activities?
15. Do you try to reduce assignments for ESL students?
16. One mainstream teacher said that some ESL students get out of the ESL program too early to start Language Arts in the mainstream classroom. How about Kimi?
17. How do you work side-by-side with the students? For, example?

18. Tell me your successful strategies for teaching the ELL students.

Beyond academics

19. Beyond the problem of knowing the English language and the school culture, what seems to prevent the ELL students from communicating effectively with teachers, English-speaking peers, and other school personnel? (Trueba, Jacobs, & Kirton, 1990, p.87)
20. What kind of relationships do you want to build up with your ESL students?
21. What do you think of school socialization of children for academic success? "linguistic and social skills develop within some microsociological unit in which children grow (family, community, school and the peer groups)" (*Cultural Conflict and adaptation*, Trueba, Jacobs, & Kirton, 1990, p. 126)
22. What kind of support do you need?
23. What kind of uncertainty do you have now?

Guiding questions for the second interview with Ms. Forest

- Social relationships with peers and the teacher are centered in a learning environment. Such relationships affect students' learning. I want to know the relationships that the ESL student has in the classroom, such as her position, status, and social identity she has.
- Focusing on Kimi, I want to understand what and how Kimi deals with in her learning environment and what and how she is learning.

1. Could you please describe Kimi in your classroom from your perspective? And please give me the examples to support your description.
2. What social identity does Kimi have in your classroom?
3. Could you please give me a few examples telling that Kimi has high self-esteem?
4. In order to facilitate Kimi's participation in the whole-class activities, what do you offer besides small group activities and selection of books?
5. Could you give me one area where Kimi needs work?
6. Your extra assignments for Kimi raise her self-esteem. The relationship between a teacher and a student plays an important role in cognitive development of the student. Could you please give me your reaction to this statement?
7. May I ask for your reaction to the following? Kimi said that it is difficult for her to catch up a quick temp in Ms. Forest's Language Arts class. While she is thinking how to answer, Ms. Forest goes to the next student. It should be within one minute to answer to the teacher. In addition, while she is thinking, other students raise hands, so she missed the chance to volunteer it.
8. What kind of structures do you want to offer in order to facilitate social relationships in the classroom?
9. How do you group the students?
10. Kimi's desk is close to your usual standing point in the classroom. Did you place her there intentionally? If so, why?
11. Could you tell me about your computer programs that gear ESL students, which you talked in the first interview?

12. You gave Kimi extra or advanced assignments. From that, what do you expect in her?
13. I saw you introduce multicultural literature such as Native-Americans' perspective on Columbus in your class. What is the percentage of use of multicultural materials in your class?
14. How many books do your students read in one school year?
15. Through teaching multicultural literature, what kind of result do you expect in your students?
16. How do you give high value to the Japanese students' home cultures?

Appendix D: Guiding interview questions for the participant teacher, Mr. Moll

Guiding questions for the first interview with Mr. Moll

Teacher's background

1. How long have you been teaching?
2. Did you teach any ESL students before this school year? If any, how many years did you teach ESL students?
3. Did you teach any Japanese students before this school year?
4. Have you ever been provided any specific training or knowledge for teaching international students or ESL students?

Culture

1. Regarding Sana, Yuji, Ryo, and Ken (pseudonyms), what cultural aspects did you find in them?
2. Have you ever explained the ESL students about classroom expectations?
3. What dilemmas have you ever faced in teaching Japanese students?
4. What cultural conflict have you ever had?
5. How do you identify any students who function with a different set of cultural assumptions and experiences? For, example?
6. What do you think about children who do not want to attract attentions from American peers for such as Japanese-style lunch?
7. Have you ever seen that a new ESL student shows any signs of emotional turmoil in the classroom? How do you deal with that?
8. When you find an ESL student who does not seem to share your values and who do not respond in expected ways, how do you deal with that? (*Cultural Conflict*, Trueba, Jacobs, & Kirton, 1990, p. 134)
9. How do you facilitate the Japanese students' understanding and integration of American cultural values?
10. In order to help children make the transition to the new culture and language with less pain, what can you offer?

Academic problems

11. Have you ever seen any ESL students who just sat quietly the entire class period, daydreaming as if they had entirely given up any attempts to make sense of the world around them?
12. How do you deal with an ESL student who keeps his head down on the desk during your instruction?
13. Under what circumstances do the ELL students participate actively in classroom activities?
14. Do you try to reduce assignments for ESL students?
15. How do you work side-by-side with the students? For, example?
16. Tell me your successful strategies for teaching the ELL students.

Beyond academics

17. Beyond the problem of knowing the English language and the school culture, what seems to prevent the ELL students from communicating effectively with teachers, English-speaking peers, and other school personnel? (*Cultural Conflict and Adaptation*, Trueba, Jacobs, & Kirton, 1990, p. 87)

18. What kind of relationships do you want to build up with your ESL students?
19. What do you think of school socialization of children for academic success?
20. "Children develop a sense of self-esteem and competence as a result of their experience of success. … This experience is first gained through *assisted performance* with the help of the teacher and peers, then gradually practiced independently through self-regulated psychological process" (*Cultural Conflict and Adaptation*, Trueba, Jacobs, & Kirton, 1990, p. 135). In order to achieving it, what can you offer?
21. What kind of support do you need?
22. What kind of uncertainty do you have now?

Guiding questions for the second interview with Mr. Moll

- Social relationships with peers and the teacher are centered in a learning environment. Such relationships affect students' learning. I want to know the relationships that the ESL students have in the classroom, such as positions, statuses, and social identities they have.
- Focusing on Sana, Yuji, Ryo, and Ken (pseudonyms), I want to understand what and how the ESL students deal with in their learning environment and what and how they are learning.

1. Could you please describe Sana, Yuji, Ryo, and Ken in your classroom from your perspectives? And please give me the examples to support your descriptions.
2. What social identities do Sana, Yuji, Ryo, and Ken have in your classroom respectively?
3. Regarding individual assistance, may I ask you some information on Sana?
4. In a group activity, does Ken have a strong postion? Does he have any strategies to negotiate his participation? (Ken behaves differently in the Japanese Saturday School.)
5. In order to contribute to Ken's confidence and willingness to participate in whole-class activities, what situation do you think is possible?
6. What do you expect in Sana, Yuji, Ryo, and Ken respectively and specifically?
7. At the first interview, you spoke about the importance of confidence when the ESL students communicate themselves. How do you support them to build their confidence?
8. Could you please explain your statement in the first interview of matching up the ESL students or grouping them?
9. Under what conditions do the ESL students feel that they are not threaten and not constrained in your class?
10. What kind of structures of the classroom do you want to offer in order to facilitate social relationships in the classroom?
11. Regarding the attendance topics, why do you have the students say something when you take a roll?
12. I interviewed Sana, Yuji, Ryo, and Ken as well as their mothers. Both the children and the mothers said that they try not to congregate and talk with each other in Japanese among Americans. They want to be nice to them and interact

with them. However, the affiliation with some Japanese people can be comfortable to some Japanese students. Could you tell me your reaction to this situation?

13. How do you want to create a climate of respect, care and trust for one another in your classroom?
14. Could you please tell me why you often change grouping and desk arrangement?
15. During the game, 'Heads Down,' some students do not participate in it. What is the rule of their choice of participation? Why so?
16. Why do you use games in your class?
17. How do you give high value to the Japanese students' home cultures?
18. What do you think about the following statement?—"An ESL student thinks that learning American History is not useful because it is not relevant to Japanese school curricular."

Appendix E: IRB Form B

FORM B

IRB # _____

Date Received in Office of Research _____

THE UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE

Application for Review of Research Involving Human Subjects

I. IDENTIFICATION OF PROJECT

1. **Principal Investigator:** Kazue Fujiwara
   College of Education, Health and Human Sciences
   Theory and Practice in Teacher Education
   2521 Kingston Pike Apt. 903
   Knoxville, TN 37919
   Phone: 865-946-5280
   Email: kfujiwa2@utk.edu
2. **Faculty Advisor:** Dr. Patricia Davis-Wiley
   College of Education, Health and Human Sciences
   Theory and Practice in Teacher Education
   CA 106
   Knoxville, TN 37996-3442
   Phone: 865-974-4212
   Email: pdwiley@utk.edu
3. **Department:** Theory and Practice in Teacher Education
   in the College of Education, Health and Human Sciences
4. **Project Classification:** Research Project
5. **Project Title:** A study of Japanese ELL (English Language Learners) students in mainstream classrooms
6. **Starting Date:** September 29, 2005
7. **Estimated Completion Date:** June 30, 2006
8. **External Funding:** N/A

II. PROJECT OBJECTIVES:

The purpose of this study is to investigate the current socialization practices experienced by particular Japanese ELL intermediate schoolchildren in Masonville, East Tennessee.

III. DESCRIPTION AND SOURCE OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

The participants in this project will be two classroom teachers, four Japanese ESL students, and one parent of each child. Two classroom teachers and four Japanese students will be selected from Masonville Intermediate School of Masonville City Schools. The ages of these students range from 10 to 11years old.

IV. METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Direct classroom observations and individual interviews with the two classroom teachers, the four Japanese students and their parents will be conducted as a form of data collection. Data collection will occur during the fall semester, 2005. The principal investigator will observe the two classrooms as an unobtrusive observer. She will interview each teacher twice at the beginning and then the end of the semester. The interviews, about 40 minutes long, will be semi-structured interviews and will be audio-taped. The interviews will take place after school at the classroom of each of the teachers. The researcher will ask for information on how the teachers deal with concerns arising from teaching the Japanese ELL children in the mainstream classroom. She will provide guide questions for the interviews. Two individual interviews with the students will last approximately 30 minutes each; two individual interviews with the parents will last approximately 40 minutes each. They will take place during the semester at a time and place arranged for their convenience and they will be audio-taped. The researcher will ask the parents for information on their concerns about their children's school lives and development of the languages of both Japanese and English. The researcher will interview the four students regarding their feelings and concerns about their school lives. She will also provide guide questions and audio-tape these interviews. Additional informal interviews with the four Japanese students will occur weekly at a place arranged for their convenience on Saturdays during the fall semester. These informal interviews will not be audio-taped, and notes will be taken by the principal investigator. Each informal interview will not exceed 15 minutes. During the period of the one semester, the principal investigator will generate field notes for recording classroom interactions of the participant students and the teachers. (Classroom interactions will not be audio-taped.) There will be 10 planned visits to each of the two teachers' classrooms for unobtrusive observations. Each classroom observation will consist of a class period of 50 minutes. The classroom teachers will be informed of the observational visits well in advance. In the event that the principal investigator might need to ask follow-up questions of the participants, they will be contacted by her. All the participants in this study will participate on a voluntary basis, and they will not be at any risk. Participants' identities will remain confidential to all but the principal investigator and fellow participants, to the best of her ability. No references will be made in oral or written reports that could link the participants to the study. All references to the participants in the research notes, in the transcribed text form from the audiotapes, and in the study will be replaced with pseudonyms. All data included in this study will be stored in a secure place. The principal investigator will be the only person with access to all the data.

V. SPECIFIC RISKS AND PROTECTION MEASURES

In this study, several measures will be taken to minimize risk. They are as follows:

Identity

Participants' identities will remain confidential to all but the principal investigator and fellow participants, to the best of the principal investigator's ability. No reference will be made in oral or written reports that could link participants to the study. All references to participants in collected data and in the study will be replaced with pseudonyms.

Principal Investigator/Participant Relationships

Participants are in no way required by the principal investigator to participate in the study. Furthermore, the principal investigator will not share any information regarding the participants' identities from any collected data with any supervisory professors.

Data Storage

All data included in this study will be stored in a secure place at the principal investigator's home. Once the research study is completed, all the data will be destroyed. Signed consent forms of student participants' parents and of the classroom teachers will be stored securely for three years; after this time, they will also be destroyed.

VI. BENEFITS

Participation in this study will augment the current research in the field of ESL education. The student participants' parents and the classroom teachers will receive a summary of the study's findings regarding their participation and contribution to the project.

VII. METHODS FOR OBTAINING "PARENT'S INFORMED CONSENT" FROM STUDENT PARTICIPANTS' PARENT AND "INFORMED CONSENT" FROM THE CLASSROOM TEACHERS

Participants will take part in this study voluntarily. The student participants' parents and the classroom teachers will be given an informed consent form. The parent's informed consent form and the informed consent form for the teachers will be based on the university's Office of Research/Research Compliance Services sample. The language used in the parents' informed consent procedure is understandable to the parents of the student participants. The student participants' parents and the classroom teachers will meet with the principal investigator to discuss the study and to sign the informed consent form. The signed informed consent forms will be stored at CA 106 in the College of Education, Health and Human Sciences.

VIII. QUALIFICATIONS OF THE INVESTIGATOR

The principal investigator for this research project is a fifth-year Ph. D. student in the College of Education, Health and Human Sciences. The principal investigator has successfully completed courses in qualitative research. She has previously conducted in-depth interviews and classroom observations, and has analyzed and formally presented findings of her previous research studies at the school district of Masonville City Schools.

IX. FACILITY AND EQUIPMENT TO BE USED IN THE RESEARCH

The principal investigator will use an audiotape recorder for recording the interviews as indicated above. The audiotapes will be destroyed after they are transcribed. The data will be stored in a secure place at the principal investigator's home. Once the research study is completed, all the data will be destroyed. Signed consent forms will be stored securely for three years; after this time, they will also be destroyed.

X. RESPONSIBILITY OF THE PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR

By compliance with the policies established by the Institutional Review Board of The University of Tennessee, the principal investigator subscribes to the principles stated in "The Belmont Report" and standards of professional ethics in all research, development, and related activities involving human participants under the auspices of The University of Tennessee. The principal investigator further agrees that:

1. **Approval will be obtained from the Institutional Review Board prior to instituting any change in this research project.**
2. **Development of any unexpected risks will be immediately reported to the Research Compliance Services section.**
3. **An annual review and progress report (Form R) will be completed and submitted when requested by the Institutional Review Board.**
4. **Signed informed consent documents will be kept for the duration of the project and for at least three years thereafter at a location approved by the Institutional Review Board.**

XI. SIGNATURES

Principal Investigator Kazue Fujiwara__

Signature _____ **Date** _____

Student Advisor Dr. Patricia Davis-Wiley_____

Signature _____ **Date** _____

XII. DEPARTMENT REVIEW AND APPROVAL

The IRB departmental review committee has reviewed and approved the application described above. The DRC recommendation that this application be reviewed as:

[√] Expedited Review – Category(s): ___7_____

OR

[ ] Full IRB Review

Chair, DRC ____Dr. J. Amos Hatch_____

Signature _____ **Date** _____

Department Head ___Dr. Susan Benner_____

Signature _____ **Date** _____

Protocol sent to Research Compliance Services for final approval on (Date)
_____

Approved:
Research Compliance Services
Office of Research
404 Andy Holt Tower

Signature _____ **Date** _____

Appendix F: Informed Consent Forms and Assent Forms

INFORMED CONSENT FORM (for the teachers)

A study of Japanese ELL (English Language Learner) students in mainstream classrooms

You are invited to participate in this research study. The purpose of this study is to investigate the current socialization practices experienced by particular Japanese ELL intermediate schoolchildren in mainstream classrooms.

INFORMATION

Procedures:
Direct classroom observations and individual interviews with the two classroom teachers at Masonville Intermediate School, the five Japanese students and their parents will be conducted as a form of data collection. Data collection will occur during the fall semester, 2005. The principal investigator will observe the two classrooms as an unobtrusive observer. She will interview each teacher twice at the beginning and then the end of the semester. The interviews, about 40 minutes long, will be semi-structured interviews and will be audiotaped. The interviews will take place after school at the classroom of each of the teachers. She will ask for information on how the teachers deal with concerns arising from teaching the Japanese ELL children in the mainstream classroom. She will provide guide questions for the interviews. Two individual interviews with the students will last approximately 30 minutes each; two individual interviews with the parents will last approximately 40 minutes each. They will take place during the semester at a time and place arranged for their convenience. She will ask the parents for information on their concerns about their children's school lives and development of the languages of both Japanese and English. The primary investigator will interview the four students regarding their feelings and concerns about their school lives. She will also provide guide questions and audiotape these interviews.
Additional informal interviews with the four Japanese students will occur at a place arranged for their convenience on Saturdays during the fall semester. These informal interviews will not be audiotaped; field notes will also be taken. Each informal interview will not exceed 15 minutes. During the period of the one semester, I will generate field notes for recording classroom interactions of the participant students and the teachers. The primary investigator plans 10 visits to each of the two teachers' classrooms for unobtrusive observations. Each classroom observation will consist of a class period of 50 minutes. The classroom teachers will be informed of the observational visits well in advance. In the event that the principal investigator might ask follow-up questions of the participants, she will contact them. All the participants will participate on a voluntary basis, and they will not be at any risk.

RISKS

In this study, several measures will be taken to mediate risk. They are as follows:
<u>Identity</u>
Your identity will remain confidential to all but the primary investigator (Kazue Fujiwara), to the best of her ability. No reference will be made in oral or written reports that could link you to the study. All references to you on transcripts and in the study will be replaced with a pseudonym.

Primary Investigator/Participant Relationships

You are in no way required by the primary investigator to participate in the study. Furthermore, the researcher will not share any information regarding your identity from the data provided by you with any supervisory professors.

Data Storage

All data included in this study will be stored in a secured place. The primary investigator will be the only person with access to the interview tapes, transcripts, and notes. Once the audiotapes are transcribed, they will be destroyed. Your signed consent form will be stored securely for three years; after this time, it will also be destroyed.

Participant's signature _____

BENEFITS

Your participation in this study will augment the current research in the field of ESL education. As a study participant, you will benefit from the classroom reflections, which this study may provide you. You will also receive a summary of the study's findings in order to examine your personal participation and contribution to the project.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Your participation in this study will be kept confidential, to the best of the primary investigator's ability. Data will be stored securely and will be made available only to the primary investigator unless you specifically give permission in writing to do otherwise. No references will be made in oral or written reports that could link you to the study.

CONTACT

If you have questions at any time about the study or the procedures, you may contact the primary investigator, Kazue Fujiwara at College of Education, Health and Human Sciences Theory and Practice in Teacher Education CA 106, Knoxville, TN 37996-3442. Phone: 865-974-8194. If you have questions about your rights as a participant, contact the Research Compliance Services section of the Office of Research at 865-974-3466.

PARTICIPATION

Your participation in this study is voluntary; you may decline to participate without penalty. If you decide to participate, you may withdraw from the study at anytime without penalty and without loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you withdraw from the study before data collection is completed, your data will be returned to you or destroyed.

CONSENT

I have read the above information and agree to participate in this study. I have received a copy of this form.

Participant's name (print) _____

Participant's signature _____ **Date** _____

INFORMED CONSENT FORM (for the parents)

A study of Japanese ELL (English Language Learner) students in mainstream classrooms

You and your child are invited to participate in this research study. The purpose of this study is to investigate the current socialization practices experienced by particular Japanese ELL intermediate schoolchildren in mainstream classrooms.

INFORMATION

Procedures:

Direct classroom observations and individual interviews with the two classroom teachers of the Masonville Intermediate School, the four Japanese students and their parents will be conducted as a form of data collection. Data collection will occur during the fall semester, 2005. The principal investigator will observe the two classrooms as an unobtrusive observer. She will interview each teacher twice at the beginning and then the end of the semester. The interviews, about 40 minutes long, will be semi-structured interviews and will be audio-taped. The interviews will take place after school at the classroom of each of the teachers. She will ask for information on how the teachers deal with concerns arising from teaching the Japanese ELL children in the mainstream classroom. She will provide guide questions for the interviews. Two individual interviews with the students will last approximately 30 minutes each; two individual interviews with the parents will last approximately 40 minutes each. They will take place during the semester at a time and place arranged for their convenience. She will ask the parents for information on their concerns about their children's school lives and development of the languages of both Japanese and English. The primary investigator will interview the four students regarding their feelings and concerns about their school lives. She will also provide guide questions and audio-tape these interviews. Additional informal interviews with the four Japanese students will occur at a place arranged for their convenience on Saturdays during the fall semester. These informal interviews will not be audio-taped, but field notes will be taken. Each informal interview will not exceed 15 minutes. During the period of the one semester, I will generate field notes for recording classroom interactions of the participant students and the teachers. The primary investigator plans 10 visits to each of the two teachers' classrooms for unobtrusive observations. One classroom observation will consist of a class period of 50 minutes. The classroom teachers will be informed of the observational visits well in advance. In the event that the principal investigator might ask follow-up questions of the participants, she will contact them. All the participants will participate on a voluntary basis, and they will not be at any risk.

RISKS

In this study several measures will be taken to mediate risk. They are as follows:

Identity

Your and your child's identities will remain confidential to all but the primary investigator (Kazue Fujiwara), to the best of her ability. No reference will be made in oral or written reports that could link you and your child to the study. All references to you and your child on transcripts, observation records, and in the study will be replaced with a pseudonym.

Primary Investigator/Participant Relationships

You and your child are in no way required by the primary investigator to participate in the study. Further, the primary investigator will not share any information regarding your and your child's identities from data provided by you and your child with any supervisory professors.

Data Storage

All data included in this study will be stored in a secured place. The primary investigator will be the only person with access to the interview tapes, transcripts, and notes. Once the audiotapes are transcribed, they will be destroyed. Your signed consent form will be stored securely for three years; after this time, it will also be destroyed.

Parent of participant's signature _____

BENEFITS

Your and your child's participation in this study will augment the current research in the field of ESL education. As a study participant, you will benefit from the classroom reflections which this study may provide you. You will also receive a summary of the study's findings in order to examine your child's personal participation and contribution to the project.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Your and your child's participation in this study will be kept confidential, to the best of the primary investigator's ability. Data will be stored securely and will be made available only to the primary investigator unless you specifically give permission in writing to do otherwise. No reference will be made in oral or written reports that could link you and your child to the study.

CONTACT

If you have questions at any time about the study or the procedures, you may contact the primary investigator, Kazue Fujiwara at College of Education, Health and Human Sciences Theory and Practice in Teacher Education CA 106, Knoxville, TN 37996-3442. Phone: 865-974-8194. If you have questions about your rights as a participant, contact the Research Compliance Services section of the Office of Research at 865-974-3466.

PARTICIPATION

Your and your child's participation in this study is voluntary; you and your child may decline to participate without penalty. If you and your child decide to participate, you and your child may withdraw from the study at anytime without penalty and without loss of benefits to which you and your child are otherwise entitled. If you and your child withdraw from the study before data collection is completed, your and your child's data will be returned to you or destroyed.

CONSENT

I have read the above information and agree to participate in this study. I have received a copy of this form.

Name of participant's parent (print) _____

Participant parent's signature _____

Date _____

保護者の同意書 (INFORMED CONSENT FORM for the parents translated into Japanese)

リサーチ名：日本人生徒の現地校クラスでの現状

このリサーチの目的は、日本人生徒の現地校クラスでの生活・学習の様子を研究することです。日本人生徒の現地校教育向上のため、ご理解とご参加協力をお願いいたします。

リサーチの過程

私（藤原一枝）が、今年の二学期中に現地校・the Masonville Intermediate School での授業を合計 10 回参観し、記録いたします。そして、２クラスの教師・４名の日本人生徒・保護者の方にインタビューを予定しています。インタビューの時間は生徒には約３０分、教師・保護者には約４０分を今年の二学期中に２回予定しています。インタビューの内容は、普段の現地校での日本人生徒の学習・学校生活などを中心にお尋ねいたします。インタビューの場所・時につきましては、それぞれの日本人生徒・保護者の方の便宜を図り、ご相談いたします。インタビューは、テープレコーダーに録音し、後日、文章化した後、テープはすべて破棄いたします。文章化したデータは、それぞれの方に正確性を確認していただくためにお送りいたします。又、土曜日に、補習校でお子様に会ったとき、現地校での最近の感想などについての会話があると思いますが、これは１５分を超えることなく、録音もありません。

このリサーチへのご参加は、決して強制されるものではなく、教育分野への貢献・ご理解のもと、皆様のお志に頼るものです。皆様の実名はすべて伏せ、仮名で、記録していきます。皆様にご理解・ご協力いただき、このリサーチを進めていきたいと思います。どうか、宜しくご協力の程お願い申し上げます。

リサーチに際して、配慮できること

このリサーチに際して、配慮していきたいことは、下記の通りです。

実名を伏せること
すべての実名は伏せ、仮名で資料を記録していきます。第三者にリサーチの参加者の実在が知れることを防ぎます。

私とリサーチ参加者
リサーチへのご協力は、明らかに、すべて皆様の自由参加で、一切、強制されるものではありません。また、第三者に資料が渡ることはありません。

資料の保管について
私（藤原一枝）が、責任を持って資料を保管し、リサーチが終了した時点で、全て、破棄することといたします。この同意書は、三年間保管し、その後破棄いたします。

保護者のご署名 _____

リサーチに関する利点

このリサーチへのご協力は、ＥＳＬ教育分野における今後の研究及び向上のための貴重な貢献として、感謝いたします。ご要望があり次第、リサーチ結果をご参考又は、有用な資料として、
お送りいたします。

情報の秘密厳守

第三者からの問い合わせに対して、リサーチ資料を提供することは、全くありません。私（藤原一枝）がすべてのリサーチ資料を管理保管いたします。参加者本人の署名なしでは、それらの資料が第三者に渡ることはなく、秘密厳守いたします。

CONTACT

このリサーチに関してのお問い合わせは、下記の連絡先で承りますので、いつでもご遠慮なくお電話ください。
藤原一枝　College of Education, Health and Human Sciences Theory and Practice in Teacher Education CA 106, Knoxville, TN 37996-3442. 電話: 865-974-4212
又、リサーチ上の人権に関するご質問がありましたら、下記までご遠慮なくご連絡願います。
The Research Compliance Services section of the Office of Research 電話：865-974-3466.

リサーチへのご協力に関して

皆様のご協力への自由意志を尊重し、リサーチに関して万一不都合がありましたら、いつでもご自由に中断できます。そのときは、その時点までに、収集された資料はお返しするか、又は、破棄し、秘密性を厳守いたします。

同意書

以上の記載事項を読み、このリサーチに参加協力します。この同意書のコピーを受け取りました。

ご氏名　（楷書） _____

ご署名 _____

日付 _____

Assent Form

1. Hello, my name is Kazue Fujiwara. Your parent says that you are willing to help with my study. I will be in your classroom, watching your regular classroom activities. I will visit your classroom 10 times during the fall semester. You do not have to do anything special, just act as you normally do. I will also ask you to tell me about your school life at your home and when I see you after Saturday School. Are you willing to help with this project? (Child's response).
   Thank you. If you decide that you don't want to do this anymore, all you have to do is tell me. You can just say, "I don't want to do this anymore." Okay? (Child's response).

2. **The investigator will use the following procedure during the classroom observations.**

   - Enter the classroom quietly.
   - Observe the participants.

3. **The investigator will use the following procedure after the classroom observations.**

   - Leave the classroom quietly.

4. **The investigator will use the following procedure during the interview.**

   - Ask the participant about his/her school life in a relaxed conversation.

本人の理解のために(Assent Form translated into Japanese)

I. こんにちは、私の名前は藤原一枝です。　あなたのお母さんから、あなたが、現地校での授業参観に協力してくれるときいています。ふだんの授業のようすを見たいと思います。今年の秋の間に１０回、あなたの教室の後ろの方で、静かに授業の様子を見ている予定です。特別なことは、なにもなく、いつもの現地校でのようすを知りたいと思います。そして、あなたの都合の良い時に、学校生活の感想をインタビューしたいと思います。私のプロジェクトに協力してくれますか？　（返事）ありがとう。もし、このプロジェクトに協力するのをやめたいと思ったときは、えんりょなく、いつでも、私に言ってください。　（返事）

II. 私は、授業参観するとき、次のようにします。

- 静かに教室へはいっていきます。
- 静かに授業の様子を見学しています。

III. 私は、授業参観がおわったら、次のようにします。

- 静かに教室から出ていきます。

IV. 私は、インタビューのとき、次のようにします。

- リラックスした会話で、学校生活の感想を聞きます。

VITA

Kazue Fujiwara is a Ph.D. candidate in Literacy, Language, and ESL (English as a Second Language) Education at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville. She will receive her degree in December 2006. In 2001, she earned a M.A. in TESL (Teaching English as Second Language) from Carson-Newman College in Tennessee, and in 1977, a Bachelor of Arts degree in Foreign Studies from Aichi Prefectural University in Japan. She taught high school English as a certified teacher in Japan from 1980 to 1999. She also taught Japanese language and mathematics at the Tennessee Japanese Saturday School in Tennessee from 2001 to 2006. At the same time, she was a graduate assistant in the Student Services office in The College of Education, Human and Health Sciences at The University of Tennessee.