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by

Nancy A. Romig

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ABSTRACT

ACCULTURATION OF FOUR CHINESE TEACHERS TEACHING IN THE UNITED STATES: AN ETHNOGRAPHIC STUDY

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This ethnographic study examined the acculturation and induction process of four Chinese teachers who participated in the Education for Global Citizenship (EGC) project. The purpose was to study the teachers' acculturation process as these novice teachers began teaching in U.S. educational settings that were different from their own in terms of language, teaching practices, and educational expectations. The study employed methods that fostered teacher reflections of their experiences by methods of video analysis, observations, unstructured interviews, email communications, artifact reviews, electronic journal blogs, and extended conversations with teachers and administrators, the practices of the teachers were analyzed in context of culture embedded into the teaching practices employed by the teachers.

The findings were encompassed the two areas of behavior management and teaching pedagogy. Within both areas, these teachers demonstrated novice teacher characteristics with a cultural approach. Aspects of culture such as actions, thoughts, communications, customs, beliefs, and values were examined as they were portrayed within the teaching practices that Chinese teachers employed. Results were multifaceted. First, in relation to behavior management issues, Chinese teachers initially embedded aspects of Chinese culture when implementing disciplinary measures, but over time they shifted towards embedding it within classroom management practices. Second, the

teachers taught utilizing a pedagogical approach that included Chinese cultural aspects; an area where many practices remained constant over time. Third, the school cultural knowledge on behalf of the teachers was modified and adjusted over time to assimilate and adjust for teaching in U.S. classrooms so that both the teachers and students were able to build mutual understanding.

This study has implications on recruiting and preparing foreign teachers to teach in the U.S. Understanding the underlying moral or practical aspects behind the embedded culture within the teachers' practices and how they interact with students is important to help prepare teachers for their classroom teaching. Preservice and inservice education in areas such as behavior management and cultural differences may alleviate aspects of miscommunication that arise. As school sites prepare for foreign teachers, educating the U.S. teachers and students to the factors and issues that these teachers will encounter may help create a network for teachers adjusting to the new environment.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my husband, Kurt Romig, whose unconditional love and support made this endeavor possible.

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This dissertation would not be possible without the help and support of many individuals. Due to encouragement, inspiration, and advice, I have grown, both professionally and academically, over the past few years of my graduate studies. I would like to take this opportunity to express my appreciation to those whom have helped me personally and professionally.

First of all, my deepest appreciation goes to my family. I am very grateful to my husband, Kurt, and two sons, Charles and Samuel, who have unconditionally loved and supported me through this process. The sacrifices they made in order to support me in my dream is truly appreciated. I sincerely hope that my love of learning has been modeled and will serve as a foundation for my sons' educational futures.

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I am indebted to the teachers who participated in this study. Despite their overwhelming teaching loads and their struggles to adapt to living and working in the United States, their willingness to take risks and become professional teachers in a foreign country to provide language and cultural knowledge to students is truly amazing. Each of my participants' inspired me. Without these outstanding participants, I could not possibly have finished my dissertation.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Lack of qualified and certified teachers has been one of the biggest obstacles facing American schools in the quest to expand foreign language education programs. This is particularly the case in traditionally less commonly taught languages, such as Arabic and Chinese (Committee for Economic Development, 2006). There are neither sufficient numbers of U.S. teachers certified to teach these critical languages, nor sufficient university teacher certification programs to address the demand for such teachers (U.S. Department of Education, 2008). Since this demand outweighs the availability of credentialed teachers, alternative methods are needed for recruiting and retaining critical language teachers to work within the U.S. educational institutions. One source of such teachers is native speakers of the critical languages: teachers who come from their native countries to teach in American schools (Hutchinson & Jazzar, 2007).

The recruitment of foreign teachers is a new and growing response to the foreign language teacher shortage. These teachers are credentialed individuals (e.g. Chinese as a second language, English as a second language), but have not had experience teaching abroad in countries where the languages and cultures are radically different from their own. This recruitment to teach in U.S. schools may remedy the shortage of teachers. However, the central problem in supplying teachers in this manner is the disparity between environments in which these teachers were trained and for which they were

prepared to work, and the new school environment where these teachers now are practicing.

Foreign teachers who come from fundamentally different cultural backgrounds and teaching practices are likely to encounter problems with acculturation, induction, and developing competency within the new educational system and to the expectations inherent in that setting. Compounding the issue is that individuals interested in teaching abroad are often just beginning their teaching careers. Their novice teacher actions and own cultural backgrounds and knowledge play a role in how they react and respond within the new environment. They also affect the success these teachers experience in the new environment.

The process of acculturation has been studied in a variety of contexts. There have been a number of studies that have examined U.S. expatriates working abroad (Gonzalez, 1993, Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985), acculturation of prison teachers (Wright, 2005), acculturation of immigrants within the United States (Dumka, Roosa, & Jackson, 1997; Rosen 1970; Silvers, 1965), and acculturation of teachers within their native countries (Morey, Nakazawa, & Colvin, 1997). But despite an increased interest in foreign teachers working within the United States, little empirical research has been conducted on the topic. Currently only one study (Hutchinson & Jazzar, 2007) was found to focus on the acculturation of foreign teachers within U.S. educational settings. The small amount of external research is partly due to the limited number of teachers previously entering the U.S. to teach in American schools. As the number of foreign teachers increases, the issue becomes more pressing.

This study aimed to increase our understanding by exploring the factors influencing acculturation, the development of cultural competency and the teaching practices of foreign teachers in a western educational setting. The purpose of this study was specifically to explore the acculturation and induction processes of novice Chinese teachers as they learned to teach in U.S. educational settings that were different from their own in terms of language, practices, and cultural expectations. The research examined aspects of tensions between being novice teachers and the influence of cultures as teachers adapted to western culture and teaching practices, and how these clashes lead to or hindered the acculturation process.

The educational program model in which these teachers were employed adds to the complexity of these research questions. Chinese pedagogy has some pronounced differences from teaching as typically practiced in American schools. However, as part of the program model in the Michigan school, teachers were initially expected and encouraged to preserve their own Chinese teaching style, even as they taught in the American classrooms with American children. Thus, there were many opportunities for conflict and difficulties. Many such conflicts emerged directly from teachers' attempts to maintain their cultural teaching pedagogies and their identities as Chinese teachers, which in turn only compounded the issues of induction and acculturation.

Statement of Problem and Rationale

Foreign teachers working in the United States get a crash course in the U.S. education system and encounter a very different culture from the one they left. As products of a different culture and educational system, foreign teachers often find

themselves adrift within a system in which they are professionally and culturally isolated. Without being able to rely on structures and support systems that would ideally be built within the educational system, adaptation and acculturation may be problematic for the foreign teacher, as well as for the students and teachers who interact with the foreign teacher. Therefore, new insight is needed of the factors that link the teachers' home culture with the new culture, in efforts to make the adaptation process more fluid.

Research Questions

This study addressed several questions related to cultural expectations, educational systems, and pedagogical knowledge and beliefs.

1. How do novice Chinese teachers acculturate and develop cultural competency within the U.S. school environment?
    a. How does culture manifest and influence the practices of the novice teachers?
    b. As teachers acculturate to the new school environment, how do practices change over time?
2. What are the novice Chinese teachers' knowledge and beliefs?
    a. How do Chinese teachers reflect on what they know and believe?
    b. How may their knowledge and beliefs change over time?

Significance of the Study

The significance of this study has multiple implications. First, from the practical side, the call for language teachers required the recruitment of teachers from foreign

countries, including those countries that have educational and cultural systems radically different from our own. This study identified the issues that teachers have to adjust to when becoming acculturated in a new country. Knowing the factors that influence teachers' adjustment will allow for U.S. schools to be proactive in devising a support system to ease the process of adaptation. As a result of the identification of acculturation issues that may be encountered, future teachers can be educated and be provided with strategies that may help in anticipating and addressing such issues prior to leaving their home country as well as upon arrival. The study may also inform western educators of the issues so they will have the cultural knowledge necessary to be compassionate and understanding when mentoring with new teachers.

This study adds to the accumulating analyses of acculturation in a variety of settings. The study's findings are significant because they examined the influences of teachers' own culture as they interacted in a new and distinctly different educational environment that was organized in terms of different cultural norms and expectations. Investigating the aspects that linked teachers' home culture with the new culture provided insight into ways newcomers adapted, and thus refines their own cultural growth.

In a world of rapidly increasing intercultural contact, it is these skills that may be important to successful communication. Communication is built on the basis of cultural understanding, and it is contact and communication that is the potential site of cultural understanding (Cheng, 1993; Cheng, 1998; Coats, 2005).

Limitations

This study was confined to studying Chinese teachers new to teaching Simplified Mandarin Chinese in Michigan Chinese language programs in one elementary school.

The purpose of focusing on teachers from one country was that individuals brought their own cultural understandings with them when they taught abroad. While there was, of course, individual variation among Chinese teachers, it was expected that all teachers from China would have some similar cultural values and understandings, particularly as they related to their own teaching and learning experiences. Therefore, different cultural backgrounds of teachers from different countries would have complicated the study. Instead, this was a case study limited to the study of one language/culture group. Furthermore, this delimitation also opens the study up for future replication and repetition with teachers from other countries with different languages. With baseline results representing teachers from one country, further studies can examine the similarities and differences that may be found with teachers from different countries.

The teachers were further selected using purposive sampling procedures. This sampling included Chinese teachers in the United States brought to the U.S through the Education for Global Citizenship (EGC) program. With Chinese and U.S. visa regulations, it is challenging to bring international teachers to the US. The EGC program solved this problem by using established procedures and institutions to bring over a larger quantity of teachers on visiting scholar (teacher/researcher) visas. The primary purpose of such visas is to provide short-term solutions for filling open Chinese language teaching positions.

The three-semester time period (fall 2007; spring 2008; fall 2008) encompassed by this study allowed for investigation of acculturation issues such as initial contact culture shock and induction when teachers are most aware of conflicts and their problem resolution efforts. Because acculturation happens at different rates for different

individuals, 18 months would not have enabled us to be sure all subjects had achieved even initial resolution of the encounter. The study leaves them with much accommodation and adjustment remaining. However, it spoke to the general problem of cultural adjustment when teachers first crossed national, societal, and linguistic borders in order to teach their native language as second language to students whose backgrounds are foreign to them. Though there were other programs that placed teachers within U.S. classrooms for up to one year, the visa issuance provided via the EGC program allowed the teacher to remain in the U.S. for up to three years.

Definitions of Terms

Critical languages. For the purpose of this study, critical languages were defined as languages in which there is a critical need for proficient speakers, but the demand exceeds the supply of trained speakers. The need for proficient speakers is usually derived from political, cultural, or economic factors (U.S. Department of Education, 2008).

Acculturation. Acculturation is defined as the change in the cultural behavior and thinking of an individual or group through contact with another culture (Cox & Beale, 1997). In this study, the cultural environment that promoted change was the Michigan school environment where the teachers were employed.

Culture. There are many different definitions and interpretations of culture. For this study, culture is defined as the ideas, behaviors, artifact interpretations, knowledge systems, and customs that are shared by interacting members of a group (Cole, 1996). Language is included with the knowledge systems making up "culture" here.

Culture Shock. An ailment with its own symptoms and cures, culture shock is the anxiety brought on by sudden immersion into a foreign culture. The term anxiety reflected which was brought on due to the sudden loss of familiar cues, communication difficulties, and personal identity crisis within the new culture (Weaver, 1993).

Cultural Competency. Cultural competency is characterized by the ability to work effectively across cultures in ways that accept and respect differences (Hanley, 1999) while it lending itself also to the understandings of the difference between cultures (Edgar, Patton, & Day-Vines, 2002).

Cultural Adaptation. Cultural adaptation involves the process of individuals changing over time in response to the new culture. These individuals had completed their primary socialization process in one culture and then entered into continuous and extended contact with a new and unfamiliar culture (Kim & Gudykunst, 1987; Zhong, 1996).

Cultural Scripts. In this study, cultural scripts were localized knowledge about a happening or event that enabled participants to know what to expect and how to behave. In general, scripts act as guides for participants to know what to expect and to how to behave in the situation (Stigler & Hiebert, 1999).

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Culture permeates all aspects of life, including school life. A school is an environment for promoting intellectual growth, but also inherent in its system is the promotion of cultural capital through a methodical flow of cultural values to the members of the school culture. As one enters a new culture system, adapting to new sets of rules and expectations initially produces anxiety and awkwardness but eventually leads to cultural competency.

This literature review focuses on the acculturation processes of individuals in a new environment and thus development of cultural competency. But also, in order to reach the point of being culturally competent, it requires knowing and understanding the cultural norms and values of the new environment and understanding the degrees in which these may vary or the subtleness of the differences between one's home culture and the new culture. Therefore, this review of literature transitions into some of the cultural differences between American and Chinese cultures as they may affect the acculturation process and the ability of teachers to develop competency within the new school culture.

Cultural and Language Competency in New Environments

Cultural competency has been reviewed as a needed skill across several domains including the medical field Crandall, George, Marion, & Davis, 2003; Tanabe, 2007), psychology and social work (Gordon, Nelson-Becker, Chapin, & Landry, 2007; Hays,

2008; Lassiter & Chang, 2006) education (Hasslen & Bacharach, 2007; Kitsantas & Talleyrand, 2005), and government/professional organizations (Goldsmith, 1979). Much of the literature focuses on measurement and instrumentation (Dunn, Smith, & Montoya, 2006, Hays, 2008, what needs to be taught (Kitsantas & Talleyrand, 2005), or traits of cultural competency (Suzuki, McRae, & Short, 2001).

Few articles have addressed the issues teachers from outside the U.S. face when they enter the elementary and secondary education field. Hutchinson and Jazzar (2007) focused on the need for mentorship while Coats (2005) and de Oyarzabal (1982) addressed the problems that foreign teachers encountered while teaching in the U.S. When teaching in the U.S., foreign teachers may have many of the needed teaching skills, as well as command of the language and cultural knowledge. Yet they may lack teaching skills needed at a particular site, including the local knowledge to be able to create mutual understanding when using the language (de Oyarzabal, 1982), or the cultural knowledge and skills necessary to handle issues such as discipline (Coats, 2005).

A parallel line of research is in the area of higher education. It is common practice for college and universities to employ teaching assistants of whom many are foreign graduate students. This practice is not without its challenges and is fraught with complaints against the foreign teaching assistants (Davis, 1984; Smyrniou, 1994). Many native English speaking students and faculty struggle with discourse, as differences in language lead to miscommunication (Chang, 1993; Davis, 1984; Jenkins, 1997). Preconceived notions and the initial reactions of students to heavy accents further affect the relationships between teaching assistants and their students (Rao, 1995).

There is limited American research focusing on teachers teaching overseas or outside of the United States (Fast, 2000; Garson, 2005; Howe, 2005; McAlpine & Crago, 1995). Instead, much of the focus has been on aspects of enculturation and induction processes for U.S. born novice teachers (Johnson & Kardos, 2002; Kleifgen, 1988; Pardini, 2002), including U.S. teachers working in culturally different settings, typically white, middle-class teachers working outside of their economic or racial backgrounds. It includes research in areas such as urban (Rushton, 1999) or rural areas (Barnhardt, 1999), or prison settings (Wright, 2005) within one's own country or higher education programs (Gorsuch, 2003).

There are various definitions of cultural competency. Ford and Whiting (2007) define cultural competency as having the knowledge, dispositions, and skills to effectively interact with individuals from diverse backgrounds. This definition stresses the need for teachers to learn and develop cross-cultural understanding, because what is right for one culture is not necessarily correct for others (Elkturk, 2003). Developing cultural competency involves gaining knowledge and consideration for other cultures.

Barrera and Corso (2002) provided a somewhat different definition that emphasized not the breadth of one's knowledge of other cultures, but rather the ability to shape considerate and responsive interactions (both verbal and nonverbal), which are reciprocal in nature across diverse cultures. This definition further expands upon Whiting and Ford's (2007) definition by adding more concrete information as to what it means to function effectively across cultures.

Bremer (2006) posited that universities need to prepare students with deeper understanding of the global community, drawing upon the inclusion of knowledge of

both different languages and cultures. The competency and the skills necessary to work in a global society are thought to be best learned through cross-cultural experiences, but that doesn't necessarily mean leaving the country. Cross-cultural experiences can be experienced by stepping outside of one's own cultural comfort zone, Educational programs such as language (e.g. immersion or Foreign language) learning, hosting exchange students and working with immigrants have the potential to provide cross-cultural experiences. Through intercultural experiences, competencies such as the ability to listen, communicate, observe, evaluate, analyze, interpret, and relate will develop, leading to intercultural competency.

Research on learning intercultural competence has been conducted in specific areas, such as in the field of counseling. The awareness of multiple variables, such as one's own race, ethnicity, culture, language, and power status, plays a part in multicultural counseling competencies (Sodowsky, Taffe, Gutkin, & Wise, 1994) and contributes to one's own cultural identity. Sodowsky et al. (1994) argued that these competencies encompass three areas. First, the skills area includes the behavioral domain that incorporates general counseling skills such as listening and communication. Second, the affective domain encompasses an individual's cultural self-awareness and awareness of others, and last, the cognitive domain includes the knowledge, theory, research, and cross-paradigmatic approaches of multicultural counseling.

Several articles identified features that need to be acquired in order to build cultural competency. One element that many American students lack is knowledge of other world regions, languages, and cultures (Committee for Economic Development, 2006). The knowledge and acceptance that individuals don't know enough about different

cultures (Elturk, 2003; Hertzog & Adams, 2001) and the desire to seek out this knowledge from authentic sources (Elturk, 2003; Hertzog & Adams, 2001) is paramount in order for individuals to develop cultural competency.

As admirable as it is to have cultural awareness, there must also be an acknowledgement that biases and power issues are at play when culture is discussed. As individuals develop cultural awareness, there is also a need to confront biases that may exist about cultures, which can lead to stereotyping and prejudices (Hertzog & Adams, 2001). Such awareness can lead to flexibility of approach and thinking (Elturk, 2003).

An individual's ability to respond to the challenges and frustrations of being immersed within a new culture also influences his or her ability to develop competency within that new culture (Paige, 1993). Foreign teachers who are immersed in an unfamiliar and new culture have the possibility of experiencing culture shock as they seek to acculturate to the new and overlapping environments. For example, Chinese teachers entering the U.S. may experience culture shock and adaptation as they attempt to participate in the general American culture. But they also experience these as they acculturate into a specific school culture as members and participants of a new and unfamiliar working environment. Therefore, as foreign teachers enter into both the general American culture and the subculture of the school, culture shock may occur as a reaction to both the general culture and the school culture and one's ability to respond and cope with the frustrations impact the ability to cope with the culture shock.

Culture shock was first defined as an ailment with its own symptoms and cures, brought on by anxiety due to sudden immersion into a foreign culture. The sudden loss of familiar cues, communication difficulties, and subsequent personal identity crisis within

the new culture all contribute to this anxiety (Weaver, 1993). Five factors have been identified as contributing to culture shock: (a) individuals are confronted by a new environment that present new expectations and patterns for social interactions and behavior; (b) individuals are ineffective in intercultural or interpersonal communication; (c) there is a threat to the emotional well-being of the individual; (d) the individual needs to modify his/her behavior to regain positive reinforcement in the new environment; and (e) the individual is participating in a growth experience (Juffer, 1993). All of these factors involved in culture shock must be addressed for the individual to become culturally competent in the new environment.

Wright (2005) suggested that there are five stages associated with culture shock. As individuals progress through the stages, the rate is not necessarily constant nor does everyone reach the final stage. In studies of U.S. expatriates going overseas, 30% of the individuals do not perform adequately and 25% return to the U.S. earlier than expected (Garson, 2005; Lubin, 1992), thus indicating the inability of many individuals to adjust and reach cultural acclimation, which is the final stage of cultural adaptation.

In Wright's (2005) model, the first phase in culture shock is known as the tourist stage, wherein the individual is overwhelmed with impressions from the host environment. The novelty experienced by the individual results in feelings of excitement and fascination due to exposure to exotic surroundings and new experiences (Wright, 2005). The next phase of culture shock is the disintegration/difference phase, which is characterized by anxiety, anger, withdrawal, and a dislike of the cultural and social differences that are experienced in the new environment. This is accompanied by an aversion to events and situations that are unpredictable and uncertain. In this stage, the

individual realizes that the familiar cues of his or her own culture do not apply directly to the new culture, leading to disequilibrium. The third stage, reintegration, involves an increased ability to function within the new culture as the individual resides partly inside and outside of the new cultural group. In this stage, the individual develops the ability to meld old and new stimuli and experiences in order to more successfully interact in the new culture (Wright, 2005). In the fourth stage, gradual adjustment occurs. This stage is characterized by increased comfort, predictable actions and expectations, with fewer feelings of isolation. The individual gains a sense of cultural equilibrium within the new environment, allowing the individual to become more finely attuned and responsive. He or she is then able to predict and react to the cultural cues within the new environment (Wright, 2005). The fifth stage is called reciprocal interdependence, and results in biculturalism. The individual has acclimated to the new culture and expectations within that culture. He or she is capable of fluidly moving between the two cultures, adopting the cultural cues and propriety of both cultures (Wright, 2005). But in order to explore the issues of acculturation and developing cultural competency, it is important to examine the potential cultural differences between the United States and China that may affect teachers' ability to acculturate to the school environment.

Culture and Chinese and American Educational Systems

Schools are cultural units where culture is implicitly acquired and understood, and is embedded within classroom activities. Children use their culture, their acquired beliefs, values and attitudes, to make clear and explain their world (Stevenson & Stigler, 1992), or in this case, their educational experience. According to Stigler & Heibert (1999),

"Cultural activities are represented in cultural scripts, generalized knowledge about an event that resides within the heads of the participants. These scripts guide behavior and also tell participants what to expect" (p. 85). When students and teachers within the same classroom share common cultural scripts, cultural knowledge is collectively distributed so that all participants know what to expect, are familiar with interaction protocols and properly act and/or react to encounters within the classroom.

However, when participants function with different cultural expectations, the potential for problems arise as participants apply social and cognitive routines that are based on their cultural knowledge, but are not collectively shared or aligned with the cultural expectations and cues that are present in the new environment. This results in situations where the participants are uncomfortable because they do not know what to expect or don't know how to act/react to social cues and encounters. In school contexts, teachers and students then must negotiate to develop a common set of expectations where both teachers and students can function. These common cultural expectations convey the expected behaviors, actions, and interactions for a given situation. In essence, they must develop joint cultural competency in the school environment.

Because there are differences between the cultures of the United States and China, there are also differences in the cultures of Chinese and American educational systems and these differences may be subtle or drastic. These differences span across the physical environment, teaching pedagogies, expectations of students language structures, functions, norms for appropriate behaviors, educational goals and values, as well as the envisioned characteristics of workers produced from the different systems. As teachers transition from one teaching environment to another, they must develop competency that

shapes what Barrera and Corso (2002) term as considerate and responsive interactions (both verbal and nonverbal) that are reciprocal in nature across diverse cultures. Therefore, to examine acculturation one must consider the differences between the educational cultures and remember how culture influences the participants' actions. Thus, when examining the implications of culture on the classroom events, one must take into account how culture may influences activities and represent or reflect the overarching cultural theme (Stevenson & Stigler, 1992; Stigler & Hiebert, 1999). Several of these overarching themes are discussed further: collectivism, authority and autonomy, success and failure, pedagogy, discipline, student outcomes, curriculum, and classroom discourse (Table 1).

Collectivism

Within Chinese culture there is an emphasis on the value of the collective, in which the individual is defined through his or her participation in groups (Stevenson & Stigler, 1992). Chinese culture places value on the degree to which the smaller self (individual) can submit to the larger self. The larger self may be the family or country, and the smaller self must become accustomed to the expectations of that larger self (Stigler, Smith & Maol, 1985). This is different from American culture inasmuch as the broader society places greater value on the concept of the "self" or individuality, which allows the participants to have the right to choose whether or not to place their needs and desires first. These cultural beliefs play an intricate role in each country's educational system because they give a different emphasis to the centrality of the individual relative

Table 1

Summary of Chinese and American Educational Systems

	Chinese Educational System Collective Society	American Educational System "Individuality" of "Self"
Authority vs. Autonomy	Authority Ranking – both of teachers and students Extreme value and respect of the teacher Instructions on what and how to teach	Autonomy Provided required curriculum but teachers have the ability to decide when and how to teach
Student Success and Failure	Effort applied regardless of cognitive ability of performance level High test scores	Self or individuality Multiple (academic and nonacademic) ways to be successful
Pedagogies	Teacher directed Strong content knowledge Memorization and rote learning Whole class instruction Expectation that all students meet the same educational criteria and perform at the same level Discourse controlled by teacher (I-R-E) Student passiveness/receptors of knowledge	Child centered Creativity Whole class, small group and independent work Discourse controlled by teacher (I-R-E) with open ended questions
Discipline	Student behaviors and actions reflect on family honor Students themselves maintain appropriate discipline	Varied and diverse management techniques in both classroom management and disciplinary action
Student Outcomes	Strong content knowledge High test scores	Creativity Multiple ways to demonstrate knowledge
Curriculum	Standardized, Centralized Common textbooks Same pacing	State standards but local control of how to teach standards

to the social collective. In Chinese schools, for example, individuals might be expected to subjugate their individual goals to ensure the accomplishment of the collective or societal goals, whereas, American schools might also value the group as a whole, but to a certain degree the individual has rights to pursue individual outcomes and goals. These differences in the perceptions of the standing of individuals in the social group might lead to differences in teachers' and students' emphases on conformity and individualism.

Collectivism, as reflected in education, includes the family reputation. Parallel to this is the Asian perspective that the success or failure of a child is reflected in family honor. The family defines the child's academic success as a significant source of pride for the entire family, and failure as disgrace to the family (Stigler et al., 1985). If a child is successful, honor is brought to the family. Likewise, a child who misbehaves or receives poor grades, may cause the family to "lose face" due to the family not meeting its responsibility to the child (Stevenson & Stigler, 1992). This is not to say that American parents do not regard their children's success or failures as reflecting on them, but rather that there may be different implications that occur at varying degrees. For Chinese families, the success/failures may be more public (e.g. all parents attend parent teacher conferences and the teacher talks about students' progress in front of the group of parents) or have different long-term educational implications (e.g. higher test scores provide students with access to the better schools and higher educational opportunities) than it may have on an American family. For example, college admissions in the U.S. use a variety of factors (academic achievement, recommendations, essay samples, volunteering, sports, etc.) to determine admissions, whereas in China, the primary determinant of admission decisions are test scores.

Authority versus Autonomy.

A large cultural incongruity between American and Chinese culture is embodied in the related concepts of authority and autonomy. These are so engrained that they reach all the way to the political systems of each country. Likewise, the cultural values of authority and autonomy reverberate from the design of the educational systems all the way down to the individual classrooms.

China has an authoritative structure in its political system, and this structure trickles down to other aspects of its culture, including the school systems. Teachers are ranked according to their status. Senior teachers oversee junior teachers or those of lower rank. Students are of the lowest rank, and in this position they are not expected to participate (Mehan, 1978) or interact with their teachers. Rather they are expected to be receivers of information imparted by the teacher.

In Chinese classroom culture, the importance of control (guan) by the authority figure (teacher) is acutely stressed (Tobin, Hu, & Davidson, 1989). A teacher's true power and value is measured by his or her ability to persuade others to listen. Through the domination of the discourse, the higher-status person often justifies his or her status. "Consistent with such values is a view of learning as the accumulation of the knowledge that can bring status, and a view of teaching as the "giving" of knowledge by the teacher to those who lack it" (Schoenhals, 1994, pp.409-410).

Teachers are also provided a standardized curriculum that contains the step-by-step instructions on what to teach and how to teach the particular content. There is little to no variation in the content of the subject matter or the pedagogical methods of

instruction employed by the teacher. This reflects the collective approach to teaching that has been reinforced by the Chinese educational system.

This is different than the educational system in the United States. Though each individual state may provide requirements as to the curriculum that must be taught at each grade and within each subject, the individual teachers have the autonomy to decide how to teach the content and how to meet the particular requirements. American teachers bring to the learning environment a variety of "tools of the trade," which include multiple pedagogical approaches to instruction. Teachers are allowed greater flexibility in choosing the appropriate methods to teach the curriculum. Such practices may include, but are not limited to, instructional approaches such as lectures, use of hands-on manipulatives, collaborative theme-based projects, and problem-based learning. This degree of creative flexibility within the American school system is customary, though it may vary between schools and/or school districts.

Student Success and Failure

Within the U.S. system, the success or failure of students is thought to be based on the multitude of abilities students may possess. These abilities aren't necessarily limited only to academics. Current educational theory suggests there are multiple ways to measure success by looking not only at academic achievement, but also including other ways of knowing as represented in multiple intelligences (Gardner, 1993) and similar ideas. Such theories mirror parental views that children are individuals (Zhao, 2007). In contrast, the Chinese education system views success and failure in terms of how much effort was applied (Cheng, 1998) regardless of one's cognitive ability or performance

level (Stevenson & Stigler, 1992). High values are placed upon test scores and admissions into prestigious universities (Zhao, 2007), and these achievements are rewarded through the strong efforts of the students to be successful.

An example of this perspective was Stevenson and Stigler's (1992), multi-year, cross-cultural, large-scale study of Chinese, Japanese and American educational systems. Initially it was thought that Asian students did not have students with reading disabilities. This study disproved the notion and demonstrated that severe reading problems in students were not different across the three countries. Rather what differed was the belief behind the difficulties. Asian families referred more to environmental factors and children's efforts, whereas, Americans attributed difficulties to innate abilities and disabilities.

Pedagogies

The teaching pedagogies of both systems also reflect collectivism and individualism. In U.S. schools, instruction may be perceived as more diversified through the implementation of whole group, small group and individual instruction with individual teachers having choices and opportunities to determine which instructional strategies and modes of teaching best fit the needs of individual students. In China, a more teacher-directed approach is taken in which instruction is tailored to the class as a whole and all students are expected to learn the same material, meet the same educational criteria, and perform at the same level. The teacher is the deliverer of the content, and all students are expected to employ the same methods of learning that are consistent across classrooms and across schools. These methods rely heavily on the memorization of

factual knowledge, with a emphasis on the ability of students to recite such information on school and state examinations (Cheng, 1998). This is not to say that fact-memorization is not a common criticism of U.S. education, rather the subtleties of this practice between and across classrooms and schools vary to a greater degree than in Chinese classrooms.

Teachers dominate Chinese classrooms. In U.S. classrooms, instructional time is divided between whole class, small group, and independent work. Chinese classrooms are different, as approximately 90% of the classroom time is dominated by the teacher's direct instruction of content, which is presented to the whole class at once (Stevenson & Stigler, 1992). However, it is important to note that the provision of instructional time in Chinese classrooms is not entirely dominated by teacher lectures. Instead, instruction is divided between content lectures, the provision of problems for student rehearsal, posing questions, and eliciting answers from students in a whole-class setting.

Based on the hierarchy of authority in the Chinese classroom, student participation is largely limited to content memorization and recitation. In what was once referred to as the "stuff-the-duck method" (tian ya shi), the role of students has been constructed to emphasize passiveness, with the student being viewed as a silent receptacle for the teacher's knowledge (Schoenhals, 1994) where the participation structures, ways of arranging verbal interactions between teachers and students (Phillips, 1972), are tightly regulated and controlled by the teacher; as a result the interactions are teacher dominated. A typical teacher controlled question-answer session follows an Initiate-Reply-Evaluation pattern where a teacher initiates usually with a question, a student responds, and the teacher evaluates the response (Mehan, 1979; Polman, 1998). This pattern tends to be repeated throughout the lesson. It is also a practice that is

employed within both Chinese and American classrooms. It is easily enacted and participants can quickly understand the "rules" of such interactions and how to succeed within such participation structures (Polman, 1998; Wittgenstien, 1967).

As I-R-E structures are a common question-answer method of teaching in both China and the United States, it is important to identify the subtle differences that motivate the practice. Though in China, the classroom discourse is controlled, it is argued that in this method of whole class instruction the interactions that occur between the teacher and students are interactive and effective. Such methods allow each student to maximize opportunities; all are afforded the learning benefits provided by the teacher (Ference & Tsui, 2004). Slightly different is the motivation within American education where teachers query students' comprehension in order to bring them to understanding a set of clearly defined concepts (Polman, 1998). Rather than utilizing such sequences to be the giver or controller of knowledge, American education uses it as a method to guide understanding.

Discipline

Discipline approaches in the two countries differ. In China, discipline is explicitly taught to reflect the norms of the country. There are virtually no behavior problems within the Chinese classrooms because problems of the student reflect adversely on the family (Coats, 2005) and therefore, Chinese teachers rely on the students themselves to maintain appropriate discipline (Stevenson & Stigler, 1992). While these research studies present a stark comparison, the idea that there are not any misbehaving students in Chinese schools is perplexing. Perhaps there may not be the obtrusive behavior problems

that can occur within American schools, but less confrontive misbehavior such as secretive reading, crying, and pouting may indeed be present but without the confrontational aspects. These may be unacknowledged in previous research.

Within the ideal of individuality, U.S. schools and classrooms allow teachers to have choice and apply diverse management techniques. In the history of U.S. schools, teachers have applied various techniques varying from punishments or penalties, to awarding prizes, to implementing routines and procedures (Butcher, 1998). Many American parents support the teachers' perspectives in classroom management. While they may think that their children's actions in school reflect upon them, they also tend to think--within limits--that a child should learn to get along on his or her own at school, and that the child's behavior at school is the teacher's business. In contrast, they may feel that the child's behavior at home is the parents' business. Thus, parents may remain uninvolved, but do engage as the need arises.

Student Outcomes

American schools show a strong tendency to value efforts to produce students who have the ability to think creatively and solve problems. Creativity is valued as the ability to be unique, constructive, and original in the expression of ideas. Students who can creatively represent curricular ideas in new formats and media are rewarded. Creativity is a general trait that is valued and respected in the larger U.S. culture (Zhao, 2007), and American schools mirror this appreciation for this quality. Within Chinese schools, in contrast, the ability of students to develop mastery of the curricular content and the reflection of their knowledge in the attainment of high standardized test scores is

valued. Hence, the replication and internalization of knowledge takes precedence over creativity, and there is a corresponding emphasis among Chinese families on the attainment of high marks that indicate the mastery of curriculum facts and problems (Zhao, 2007).

This is not to say that standardized test scores are not valued in the U.S. For example, Michigan Educational Assessment Program (MEAP) examinations are administrated yearly to students from third grade on. Where the difference comes into play is the value that the two cultures place on the scores. Both use scores to monitor the progress of students and schools. In China, the scores directly affect teacher ranking, performance perception and the pay of the teachers. For students, their test scores affect admissions into "better" performing schools and without high test scores, students will not be admitted into college programs. This is somewhat different in the U.S. as students may not have high test scores but have other performance avenues (e.g. extra-curricular activities, sports/art performance, volunteering, etc.) that represent a well-balanced individual with the potential to succeed in college.

Curriculum

Curriculum is standardized and is centralized in China. Teaching occurs at the same pace, utilizing the same standard textbooks within the same sequence (Zhao, 2007). In the U.S., there is a strong history and belief in local control with autonomy in how curricular content is delivered. In recent years, the U.S. has moved towards a slightly more centralized role for curriculum and standards. For example Michigan has Grade Level Content Expectations (GLCEs), which outline the concepts to be taught at each

grade level. However, teachers retain broad leeway to decide how to teach the standards, what materials to use, and how to sequence the instruction to reach the standards. According to Marsh (1999) almost all pedagogy and methodology choices are made by individual teachers acting on their own best judgment without reference to or reflection on input from other professionals or even professional literature.

Summary

Given these contrasts in educational systems and whether in the differences are obvious or subtle, the position here is that they vary by degree. Even slight variations have the potential to create culture shock and affect a teacher's ability to develop competency. The underlying assumptions, norms, and values of the Chinese culture that the teachers have internalized may or may not operate or serve in the expected manner in the new cross-cultural classroom environment. Not knowing, understanding, or expecting difficulties and the challenges associated with communication with individuals operating under different cultural expectations opens the teachers up to culture shock, communication difficulties, and the inability to control their situations. The teachers' individual abilities to adjust and navigate through the various stages of culture shock affect acculturation and successful interaction within the new teaching environment.

There are two problematic gaps within this research literature. The literature neither addresses novice teachers as they acculturate and develop cultural competency in foreign teaching environments, nor does it address how or in what ways culture influences novice teachers' teaching practices within a foreign educational environment. Because of this, the purpose of this study will examine the issues of acculturation/cultural

competency in the context of novice teachers teaching within U.S. educational environments and the dynamics of culture as he/she practices in American educational environments. This is important because it adds to the literature addressing cultural competency from a different perspective.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This study incorporated a microethnography approach with a multiple case study research methodology. "Case studies are preferred strategy when 'how' or 'why' questions are being posed . . . When the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context" (Yin, 1989, p. 13). It was important to apply a microethnographic approach (Erickson & Mohatt, 1982) as this study did not attempt to describe the whole way of life of a social group. Rather, it focused on particular cultural scenes within school settings. The goal was to gain in-depth understanding of the cultural adaptations and concerns of Chinese teachers newly working in the U.S. schools and what it meant for collaborating teachers and supervisors who were involved.

Though videotaped observations, informal interviews, email communications, artifact reviews, electronic journal blogs, and extended conversations with teachers and administrators, this study attempted to explore issues related to cultural learning that tended to remain hidden or at the periphery of the educational field when foreign teachers entered the U.S. educational system. While the research questions could have been viewed against a wider social, historical, and practical landscape, this study focused more narrowly on the teachers' knowledge and experiences as they made this transition.

Site and Instructional Models

This study took place at a public elementary (Pre-K through 5th grade) school in a Midwest urban school district. The school has a Chinese immersion program, in which children receive 50% of their instruction in Chinese, and 50% in English, as well as a

Chinese "Language and Culture" enrichment program. This site had elected to employ the services of Chinese language teachers for both programs. Initially one teacher was needed to teach kindergarten children in the Immersion Program, which provided an immersion like learning environments, but in mid-year a second teacher was needed to replace the first. The other two teachers were recruited to teach in the Language and Culture Program.

The Immersion Programs incorporated a 50/50 immersion model in which students spent half their educational time learning in English and the other half learning in (Simplified) Mandarin Chinese. Children were not taught Mandarin Chinese using a traditional foreign language instructional model; rather students acquired the language through being immersed in content area instruction in language arts, mathematics, science, social studies, global studies, and the arts. The Immersion Program valued the strengths of two distinct and different educational systems. It was designed to incorporate the best educational practices of both the East and the West in terms of language, culture, and pedagogy. This blending was expected to allow children to move fluidly between different cultures, languages, and educational philosophies as part of their school experience. In Western classrooms, students learned in the English language with a child-centered Western approach. In Eastern classrooms, students learned through the Mandarin Chinese language with the knowledge-centered instructional practices of the East. Because of this, the immersion Chinese teacher taught two classes of students daily with one group in the morning and the other in the afternoon. The content was split between the Chinese and English classrooms with both classes addressing language arts in the perspective language. The Chinese classroom provided the majority of instruction

in the area of mathematics; then science and social studies were split between classrooms according to mutual decisions of the two teachers.

As part of the Language and Culture Program, two teachers taught language and cultural enrichment courses to students in kindergarten through fifth grade. The objective/mission/vision of the Language and Culture program was to provide language instruction and cultural exposure to students in the building who were not in the immersion classrooms so all students in the school may benefit from the exposure to second language instruction. These courses emphasized cultural awareness more than a high level of language proficiency. These courses functioned similar to elementary physical or musical education in that they were viewed by the homeroom teacher as release time. Therefore, the homeroom teacher did not need to be present during the time the language and culture teachers were teaching their lessons. Each teacher had freedom to choose to the cultural aspects that she wanted to teach. For example, calligraphy and paper cutting were popular, yet geography and Chinese history were also included. As teachers incorporated language, they tried to tie in important cultural words along with traditional second language teaching categories (e.g. colors, numbers, foods, basic phrases, etc.)

Participants

The Education for Global Citizenship (EGC) program was designed to introduce a variety of Chinese language programs into public schools ranging in grades from preschool through high school. Part of the EGC program's mission was to recruit and place foreign teachers within U.S. schools, both in face-to-face teaching situations and online classrooms. Because of the difficulty of finding certified and qualified Chinese

speaking individuals with the approved visa status to work within the United States, many of the teachers who worked for the EGC program were recruited directly from China.

The participants in this study consisted of three newly recruited Chinese teachers ranging in age from 23 to 25. They had recently arrived within the United States to teach at an elementary school in a Midwestern urban school district. As the study progressed and one teacher exited from her teaching position, a fourth teacher, who replaced the former teacher, was added to the study.

The selection process for becoming foreign Chinese language teachers in Michigan was rigorous. All teachers recruited from China were enrolled in Beijing Normal University in Master's Degree language programs, and they also participated in a visiting scholar program. In order to be selected for this program, individuals were required to: (a) have a valid Chinese teaching degree, (b) demonstrate proficiency in both the English and Chinese languages, (c) pass rigorous panel interviews conducted by professors from both Beijing Normal University and Michigan State University, (d) participate in a school district interview process to be selected for individual sites, and (e) agree to a minimum of one year of teaching.

An incidental group of participants in this study consisted of district officials and western teachers who worked in close proximity with the participants in the program. Though these individuals were not treated as primary study participants, they were included because they provided valuable insights into the acclimation of the participants. However, this was not an evaluation study and the researcher carefully designed and explained the study to all participants so to emphasize the study being emergent and

discovery-oriented in character. As such, any problems teachers or supervisors identified were noted as part of the data on the processes experienced by the teachers as they learned to teach a familiar language (and to enact a familiar role) in a vastly new culture.

School district administrators wanted to be a part of the process of selecting teachers who would be teaching their students, and they utilized the school district's approach to teacher selection. The principal, the Director of Bilingual Education, and the Immersion Specialist requested and reviewed resumes provided by the applicants but found that the resumes lacked specific information that would valuable to the interviewers. For example, the applicants provided little to no information about their prior teaching, tutoring, or work experiences, yet they prominently displayed their academic test scores, which had no contextual value to the interviewers. They also provided personal information (age, gender, and pictures, marital status) that is not typically collected by potential employers within the selection process in the U.S. Furthermore, all resumes had been created using the same template, thus making it challenging to differentiate potential teaching qualifications between candidates.

Seven potential candidates were selected for interviews, which were conducted via Skype, a free internet-based video/audio conferencing software program. With the twelve-hour time difference, interviews were conducted late into the night. Upon conclusion of the interviews, the candidates all appeared quite similar to the interviewing panel, and none demonstrated knowledge of teaching practices in the U.S. Because of this, the decisive factor was more of gauging personality and potential fit with the school, rather than teaching experience.

The Chinese teacher participants, Xiao, Yuan, Fan, and JingJing, were four of 19 teachers brought to the U.S. to teach the Chinese language in American classrooms in late August of 2007. They were volunteer teachers who were granted a practicum teaching experience abroad as part of the Master's degree program (Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language) at a prestigious Chinese teaching university. They committed to teaching for one year knowing that it was possible to extend their experience for a second year. As volunteer teachers, they had been selected by a panel review consisting of university professors and assigned to a Confucius Institute in the Midwestern United States to supervise their teaching in a local school district.

The teachers selected all were female, and by U.S. standards, they were small; in fact, several elementary students were physically taller or larger. They were all relatively young, and had melodic, soft-spoken voices. This was the first full-time job for all teachers; none of the four had previous experience teaching elementary students. All four were extremely hard working, and often stayed at the school late into the evenings or took additional work home to be completed after hours.

Fan

Fan was 23 years old at the start of the study. She had a Bachelor's Degree in English focusing on linguistics, literature of English-speaking countries, translation, and interpretation. She had a very approachable and outgoing personality, and had a sense of humor that would show itself at unexpected times. She was placed at one of the K-5 schools as one of the Language and Culture teachers. She quickly made the acquaintance of the various homeroom teachers with whom she worked closely.

Fan taught the Language and Culture program. The first year, she taught Chinese to six groups of kindergarten through fifth grade students for a total of two hours per week per grade level. She thus taught a total of 104 different children in the course of a day. The second year, she became the designated upper elementary (third through fifth grade) Chinese Language and Culture Teacher. She taught 2 classes per grade level for 30 minutes per day. Thus, she taught 123 students/day/week. In both years, Like others in typical elementary school specialist positions, she brought her teaching materials to each classroom on a cart and also utilized materials that were within each classroom.

Yuan

Yuan was also a Language and Culture teacher at the same K-5 school as Fan. At the start of the study, Yuan was 22 years old and had a bachelor's degree in English. She had a quiet and reserved personality, yet had great perceptual skills in the way she would observe and learn from people and situations. Once she became comfortable with whom she associated, she was full of questions to further her knowledge. As remarked by an American colleague, "She's a natural example of an inquirer. She's always asking questions, wanting to observe, sharing her knowledge and reflecting to merge what she knows with what she's learning."

Yuan's situation was similar to Fan's the first year. She also taught students in grades Kindergarten through fifth grade. During the second year, she was the designated lower elementary teacher teaching students in kindergarten through second grade. She taught 2 classes per grade level for 30 minutes per day. Thus, she taught 135 students

every day. In both years, Yuan also traveled with a cart from classroom to classroom providing instruction in the students' homerooms.

Xiao

Assigned as a kindergarten immersion teacher, Xiao, a 23 year old woman with a bachelor's degree in English, was eager and outgoing. She had an energetic personality and typically wore a smile. Xiao remained in her position for only five months. She had many challenges adjusting to teaching kindergarten, and returned to China after she was asked to resign. Xiao was a participant in the study while she was in the U.S. and when she returned to China, she continued to communicate and participate through email through October, 2008.

As true to the immersion model of instruction, she was expected to teach almost exclusively in Chinese and was responsible for teaching half of the kindergarten content curriculum through. Data were collected from both groups of students that Xiao taught and from Xiao directly. Unlike the language and culture teachers, Xiao had her own classroom.

JingJing

JingJing was 27 years old when she became a participant of this study, and had a BA in English. She had been teaching online high school courses in the United States until mid-February of 2007 when she replaced Xiao as a kindergarten immersion teacher. JingJing had been a very successful as an online teacher, as she had demonstrated maturity and was given additional responsibilities such as overseeing other online

teachers and designing curriculum. She had been abruptly switched into the kindergarten immersion position without being consulted. This change was accepted without grievance and she successfully completed the school year in the kindergarten position. Thus, when the school year was complete she was granted permission to return to her former online teaching position. JingJing began participation in the study when she replaced Xiao in February, 2008 and continued through the remainder of the study.

School Environment and Support Systems

All four teachers had the support of the school administrators and staff. When the teachers first arrived, the school staff completely furnished an apartment nearby. Additionally, many American teachers came forward to assist with classroom set up, encouraged classroom observations during teacher release time, offered advice for behavior management and extended invitations for interactions outside of the school. There was a genuine desire on the part of the teachers' American colleagues to see each of the Chinese teachers succeed. Parents were also interested in being supportive, though they were less confident in their own ability to demonstrate support beyond basic conversations.

The teachers were scheduled to arrive in early July to allow for intensive inservice education prior to classroom teaching, but visa issues delayed the arrival and prevented the inservice resulting in the teachers arriving the last week in August. Over the Labor Day weekend, an emergency three day professional development session was held to address the initial needs and concerns of the teachers, discuss behavior management techniques, and lesson planning. This was designed to address to the immediate needs of

the teachers. To also provide support services, Education for Global Citizenship (EGC) provided "as needed" onsite support from an experienced Chinese teacher, two professors specializing in Second Language Acquisition, and site support administrators.

The school district also provided periodic professional development inservice sessions to all teachers. Because some of the topics, such as student achievement trends, were not considered as important to the Chinese teachers as they were for the local teachers, administrators allowed the teachers to forego the training so that they could be assisted at the building level in preparation for teaching. This course of action was thought to be more beneficial to the Chinese teachers than attending inservice sessions in which the teachers had no prior knowledge or understanding of the topics.

A very important source of support was the social network that the Chinese teachers created with each other. They lived and worked together, always in close proximity to each other and therefore, there was a strong camaraderie between them. The Language and Culture teachers had lighter teaching loads due to the nature of their program, and they would often help the immersion teachers with their weekly parental newsletters, prepare teaching materials, and even go into the immersion kindergarten room to help out on their own release time.

Data Collection Procedures

This study took place during the first three semesters of the Chinese teachers' experience--their first year and the initial months of the second year. Multiple methods of data collection were utilized as part of this study. Primary data sources included videotapes, video consultation data, blogs, field notes, and email communications.

Videotapes of Teaching

During the initial year of teaching, two thirty-minute video samples of each teacher were collected. Unfortunately, one teacher (Xiao) was removed from the classroom after five months and subsequently returned to China. Because Xiao and her replacement, JingJing, did not complete a second year of classroom teaching, video was only collected from them in the first year of the study.

The videos ranged from 31-49 minutes in length and were collected across various time periods (Table 2). Though it was attempted to have video footage shot during the same time period, it was not the always the case. With the teacher switches, the two immersion teachers had initial video during the first month of entering the classroom and their final video was taken within the last six weeks of classroom teaching. As Xiao exited and JingJing took over, these videotapes coincided within three weeks of the mid-year teaching video of Fan and Yuan.

As part of the teachers' certification courses during their second year of teaching, teachers were required to submit two videotapes of their teaching, and these tapes served in that capacity. The tapes were recorded during the fall semester of the second year with 3-4 weeks between the two tapings and collected according the directions on the course syllabus. These two tapes were included to trace change and adaptation over time.

Video Consultation Data

Teachers were interviewed upon conclusion of collecting the final videotapes in the fall semester of the second year. During this time, each teacher viewed her own

videotapes; her reflective comments and conversations with the researcher were audio recorded and notes were also taken. The closing interviews served the purpose of obtaining general perceptions from the teachers as to what was happening in the video, how teachers thought or felt about situations, and how their teaching had evolved over time.

To do this, teachers viewed sample video footage of their teaching from both the first year and second year. Prior to the schedule viewings, the researcher noted particular video segments for discussion with questions (e.g. What did you mean when you said this? What reaction did you expect from this student? Why did/didn't you get the response you wanted? What was your purpose here? How does this relate to your education/teaching training in China? Where does this viewpoint/belief come from?). This was done to clarify issues related to plausible interpretations. Likewise, additional questions (Appendix A) were asked to dig deeper into the teachers' thoughts in relationship to the research questions and for general perceptions as school, adjustments, and acculturation.

The protocol for the viewing first allowed teachers to view their videotape from start to finish. They were given guidance as to how to operate the technology and were instructed if they wanted to stop or review segments, to go ahead and do so. The general pattern for this portion was for teachers to talk over the viewing and commenting on what they saw of both themselves and their students. This led to general conversations with many impromptu questions in response to teacher comments. After a tape was viewed, the predetermined segments were individually viewed with the prompting questions posed to get further insights into specific data samples.

Later, when the researcher reviewed the videotapes, audiotapes and notes and new questions arose, the teachers were contacted via email and asked for clarification and confirmation of their thinking. Hence the interview was extended and the follow-up contacts offered a form of member checking to validate emerging hypotheses and theories. Some of these interactions took place after teachers left their teaching positions.

Indeed, one problem that arose with the videotape and interviews was that Xiao was removed from her teaching position prior to the conclusion of the school year. Thus, videotaping was only possible while she was teaching. Likewise, JingJing replaced Xiao and therefore her videotaping began after she started teaching midyear and concluded at the end of that first year because she chose to return to her prior teaching position that was outside of this research project. This complicated the accessibility to the data. In this case, arrangements were made to continue email communication for follow up data collection before and after the changes occurred.

Blogs

As part of teachers' visiting scholar program responsibilities, they wrote two reflective blog entries each month of their first year to reflect on their teaching experiences and the issues encountered as they taught. Within the blogs, each teacher was required to write and reflect on one aspect of her teaching or report and aspect of her experience in the classrooms. Likewise, they were encouraged to respond to other teachers' posts. This was not continued into the second year because it was determined that with the addition of academic coursework required for certification, this requirement would place undue stress and extra demands on the teachers.

Teachers were encouraged to write in English. Those who were more comfortable expressing themselves better in Chinese and choose to write in Chinese had their blogs which were translated into English by a translator. Teachers were provided an opportunity to verify the accuracy of their English translation to ensure that misinterpretations did not occur.

Field Notes

To supplement videotapes, field notes were collected. As the researcher was at the site on a full-time basis, these included one formal monthly scheduled observation plus additional time with the teachers in or out of the classroom. Field notes included the notes that were collected during the visitations. The protocol for collecting field notes consisted of noting date and time duration. During formal observations, a table was used to note time increments, teaching/learning activity, teacher statements/action and student responses. For informal, impromptu observations, notes consisted of similar documentation, though they were usually handwritten.

Artifacts

As a supplement to field notes, documents from teacher professional development, teaching observations, lesson plans, and informal participant conversations. During professional development times, field notes were also taken. Artifact documents came from online bi-weekly professional development sessions and mid-year on university campus sessions.

Email Communications

Regular email communications between the researcher, the participants, and various other district administrators occurred, and informed consent was granted by participants to use these communications as data. They included communications about a variety of topics such as weekly lesson plans, problems or issues that arose at the school or classroom levels, instructional methods, and successful endeavors. In addition, when specific questions arose that pertained to data analyses interpretation, emails including specific questions or probes were sent to follow up with the participants, this helped portray a more complete story. All email communications were used as additional documentation as to issues that have affected the acculturation of the Chinese teachers.

Research Timeline and Setting

Data were collected over a total of two years, starting in September of 2007 and concluding in November, 2008. Table 2 depicts the participation of each teacher over this research timeline. Data were not collected during school vacations, including summer months.

Table 2

Data Collection Timeline

Month				
	Fan	*Yuan*	*Xiao*	*JingJing*
September 2007	Blog Field notes	Blog Field notes	Blog Field notes **Video**	
October	Blog Field notes	Blog Field notes	Blog Field notes	
November	Blog Field notes **Video**	Blog Field notes	Blog Field notes	
December	Blog Field notes	Blog Field notes **Video**	Blog Field notes	
January 2008	Blog Field notes	Blog Field notes	Blog Field notes **Video**	
February	Blog Field notes **Video**	Blog Field notes **Video**	Blog Field notes	Blog Field notes
March	Blog Field notes	Blog Field notes	Xiao removed from classroom.	Blog Field notes **Video**
April	Blog Field notes	Blog Field notes		Blog Field notes **Video**
May	Blog Field notes	Blog Field notes	**Interview**	Blog Field notes
September	Field notes	Field notes	Email Communication	**Interview and** **Video Review** Email Communication
October	Field notes **Video**	Field notes **Video**	Email Communication	Email Communication
November	Field notes Video **Interview and** **Video Review**	Field notes Video **Interview and** **Video Review**		
December	Field notes	Field notes		

Data Analysis Procedures

Data analysis was conducted in conjunction with collection procedures. All interviews were transcribed and any reflections written in Chinese were translated. Teachers had the opportunity to verify translations for accuracy.

To begin data analysis, a qualitative software package called HyperResearch was employed to assist with the organization and manipulation of systematic data coding. This allowed a methodical look for the variations across the various data sources that supported various emerging themes.

One hypothesis under study was related to the possible challenges experienced by Chinese teachers in a new school setting; specifically, an incongruence with their personal knowledge of school. It was thought that teachers' experiences with the Chinese educational system might not match the educational environment in which they now found themselves teaching. Study of this incongruence, and how it affected teachers' acculturation and development of school cultural competency, included the examination of a variety of data. Interpretation focused on the routine actions as well as on the responses or reactions of the teachers. These could be interpreted as responses based on their teaching as novice educators, responses based on their particular thoughts, ideas of how schools operate, and/or how teachers might embed their personal cultural norms and values into their thoughts and actions. In addition, they were examined for evidence of how teachers may acculturate and develop cultural competency within American school environments.

An initial focus in data analysis involved looking at data in terms of aspects of time that may indicate acculturation. Utilizing aspects of time provided insights frames

the habits allowed for determining changes that occurred over time that were attributed to the acculturation. Additional examination to see if the changes over time were positive and/or negative also gave indication as to the participants' abilities to become culturally competent in their new teaching environment.

The focus was first on the interactions between the teacher, students, and curriculum. This provided early flexibility rather than premature commitment to any specific paths of interpretation. To do this, the data were first examined using the predetermined neutral code categories of teacher, class, students, curriculum, parents, and colleague relationships.

Applying the codes then allowed a deeper analysis, making the application of sub-codes possible, which in turn provided a more interpretive analysis of the data. These assertions were induced from the research data and were tested and retested based on the collected data (Erickson, 1986). From there, consideration to other possibilities such as mutual behavior accommodations, functions of the universal language of teachers and/or similarities or differences in expectations between student/teacher were given.

Following contrasted-groups analysis procedures, responses to interview questions and field notes were read to search for converging or diverging themes or common ideas (Miles & Huberman, 1994). This was examined in context of the research questions. The data were segmented and coded through a process of data reduction, by selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting, and transforming the data. As this was done, the coded segments were inputted into HyperResearch in order to better manipulate and organize the data. Then the coded data organized based upon the recurring patterns, classes of behaviors or themes that were emerging (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Within this process,

an "audit trail" was maintained by recording the research steps taken to identify themes, the decisions rules, and summaries related to the analytical process and decisions (Lincoln & Guba, 1981). Once the recurring patterns and text segments had been identified and labeled, HyperResearch was used to facilitate the analysis of qualitative and text-based data. Throughout the process, the researcher looked for verification of themes by noting regularities or patterns that confirmed or denied the plausibility and validity of the conclusions. Themes then described the practices and contextual features that characterized the teachers, such as those that might inform the literature on culture shock, acculturation, cultural competency, and how one's own culture may influence the teaching practices. Of interest in this process were specific instances and classes of behaviors that provided information on the themes. Together, these characterized the nature of the teachers' practices and how culture was embedded within their practices. In addition, specific indicators of teachers' acculturation and induction processes were duly noted.

Several data sources were compared during interpretation with the aim of estimating whether the pictures were consistent with each other. The variety of data sources allowed for the richness and complexity of the issues being studied to be approached from a variety of sources and perspectives. Such an approach provided a more comprehensive and objective picture of the condition.

Identification of Embedded Culture within the Data

Teachers and students enter the school environment with preconceived ideas and notions of school and how it functions. Within this study, teachers and students had been

educated within different school environments that built upon different cultural moral and values of the two different societies. Therefore, certain thoughts and actions that embedded cultural values may or may not have been shared across participants within the new school environment. This created the potential for conflict and discord. The analysis was challenging in itself because it not only required identification of conflicts between participants, but also identification of cultural components that may have been similar or conflicting across the teachers and students. Identification of the motivating factors and underlying expectations, morals, or values that were driving the participants' thoughts and actions was also required.

In order to identify examples of embedded culture, a step-by-step process was employed. The data were segmented and coded through a process of data reduction, by selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting, and transforming the data. From there, each individual segment was examined with the purpose of identifying potential any potential influence of culture (e.g. repetitive actions, conflicts, anomalies in expectations and patterns). This in itself was not enough to identify embedded culture as these factors could potentially be interpreted in a variety of other ways. For example, many actions on the part of the teachers could also be interpreted as actions on the part of novice teachers. As these participants were indeed novices, it would therefore be expected that they would also share actions typical of novice teachers. In order to corroborate examples of embedded culture, it was necessary to determine which factors were a part of the mental picture the teachers held and how these were representative of the morals and values of the Chinese culture. To do this, two actions were taken. First, the potential examples were examined across the various data sources and participants. This was to examine the

repetitiveness of such thoughts and actions and if such were shared and common across the teachers and whether or not it continued across time.

Second, video analysis, interviews, and email communications provided the opportunity for teachers to review their thoughts and reflect upon their actions within the classroom. This process was incorporated to see if the data indeed held embedded culture. They needed to be examined for whether or not these were indeed part of the teachers' mental pictures of teaching, and whether they reflected upon the moral and values of Chinese education. The analysis could then help determine how competency involved gaining knowledge and cultivating considerations for other cultures.

Once it was determined whether or not data contained aspects of culture, they were coded under the appropriate theme. This allowed for the calculations of frequencies and ratios between segments with and without embedded culture to examine possible patterns across time.

Ethical Issues

The researcher was involved in the Education for Global Citizenship (EGC) project in two capacities: (a) as the Senior Project Director, primarily responsible for overseeing all sites within the state and providing the necessary support, either directly or through assistance provided by other individuals; and (b) as one of the specialists at one of the sites employing the three Chinese teachers with the responsibility of overseeing the Chinese language program at the site and district level. This was a difficult position for the researcher, because the Senior Project Director was a supervisory role. Yet, as the site specialist, the position was a mentorship position with no evaluative or authoritative

power. These two positions were contradictory in nature. To negate any possible challenge to the interpretations, the researcher introduced some safeguards. First, supervisory actions were either implemented by another supervisor, or they were carried out at the district and administrative level and also implemented by others. The one failing in this was the when one teacher was removed from the classroom. Second, when necessary, the researcher's job role was clearly defined to the teachers so there was clarity as to whether or not she was functioning as mentor or supervisor. Thus, confidentiality between the two roles was kept. Finally, the Chinese teachers had other staff members, both at the school and at the Confucius Institute to talk to when they felt they were being misunderstood. Though these safeguards were not foolproof, they did allow for both confidence and a productive relationship, whereby teachers could safely explain their feelings and beliefs.

Participant observation experiences are typically fraught with a range of ethical issues ranging from participant/researcher relationship, to power and status issues (Newkirk, 1996). In this case, strategies were employed to ensure trustworthiness of the methodology. Participants had the opportunity to look at the data to confirm the researcher's interpretation of the data. Additionally, triangulation of the multiple data sources ensured that the findings were consistent across the data. These strategies served as check-and-balance system to ensure that judgment in the researcher role was not clouded by involvement in the project in the participant role.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This micro-ethnography was designed to explore the acculturation and induction process of four Chinese teachers who participated in the Education for Global Citizenship (EGC) project. The purpose of the research was to understand the how Chinese teachers adapted to the complex territory between their own teaching practices as compared with the norms and values that characterize effective teaching in Michigan Chinese language classrooms. It was clear through examination that some teachers' habits changed over time. It gave a glimpse into the cultural adaptation that occurred, and gave indications as to how teachers' culture influenced classroom interactions.

There were many dimensions at play in this research study. Rather than examining variables independently or in dichotomies, this study examined the interrelationships between the variables. First, these teachers were novice teachers and exhibited behaviors characteristic of individuals who are novices in the teaching field. Even if they had had prior teaching experience, upon entering this new environment, they exhibited novice teacher behaviors in context of the new teaching situation. Second, teachers functioned within their personal knowledge of school; they behaved and taught according to their own particular thoughts and ideas of how schools operate. Third, there was a strong cultural component that was embedded within their teaching scripts.

Within these contexts, there were three primary trends. First in relation to behavior management issues, these teachers demonstrated patterns and characteristics of novice teachers. But a strong cultural approach was integrated into this context. Initially, a Chinese cultural approach for implementing disciplinary measures was evident, but

over time, the teachers shifted towards integrating a cultural approach into their classroom management practices. Second, the teachers embedded Chinese culture in their pedagogical approaches; an area where many practices remained constant over time. Third, the school cultural knowledge on behalf of the teachers was modified and adjusted over time to assimilate to and adjust for teaching in U.S. classrooms. These primary trends were interrelated and often overlapping. As a whole, they were associated with both "culture shock" and acculturation as they directly influenced the teachers' ability to adapt, change, and work competently across the two distinct cultures.

Behavior Management

The most prominent issue surrounding the participants of this study was managing American students. Behavior management in the classroom is challenging at best, even for professionally prepared teachers who are already familiar with working with American children. For these Chinese teachers who were not familiar with the American educational system, the cultural values, and the actions of American youngsters, the problem was magnified and difficult to overcome.

Behavior management was examined in this study within the novice teacher practices and the context of cultural competency. Aspects of culture, including actions, thoughts, communications, customs, beliefs, and values were embedded within the teaching practices these teachers employed. They were observed in relationship to each teacher's ability to develop competency skills that would allow her to effectively function within and across the two cultures, a finding similar to what Ford and Whiting (2007)

suggested. In the practical situation, there were resulting implications across many different aspects of behavior management.

The data revealed several primary categories within the overall category of behavior management. These were (a) discipline, (b) classroom management, (c) other Chinese cultural factors, (d) novice teacher factors, (e) differing expectations of students and teachers, and (f) time spent on behavior management. These same categories might pertain to teachers in general; thus an examination of these trends was useful at that level. It was also useful to determine patterns that could relate back to either cultural adaptation, or to how novice teachers gain experience, or perhaps to a combination of both factors. This chapter presents the results in these categories as well as several subthemes revealed by the data.

Discipline

The category of Discipline is closely related to that of Classroom Management. These two categories were sub-coded within the category of Behavior Management in order to distinguish what appeared to be different situations and events. On the surface it might appear that these were the same category, but review of the video data in particular showed that they were different enough to warrant separate analyses. Discipline tended to be reactive or punitive (negative) to misbehavior happening in the classroom and was directly related behavior management, whereas, classroom management was proactive (positive) and could be identified in teachers' design of rules, routines, and procedures to prevent misbehavior.

Discipline in the Context of Novice Teachers

Several behavior management issues were related to novice teacher behavior. Certain characteristics, such as turning one's back to the class when writing on the chalkboard or talking over students, are actions that novice teachers learn to modify as they develop their management skills. Behavior management problems such as these were expected because these Chinese teachers were novice teachers. Thus, the results within behavior management were characteristic of novice teachers. In other words, demonstrated trends that were characteristic of novice teachers as they transitioned into their second year of teaching.

Behavior management problems were quite prevalent in Year 1. Though several types of behavior management challenges continued into the following year, the frequency of discipline occurrences decreased. Further analyses revealed the themes of macro-level discipline (disciplinary action aimed towards the class as a whole), direct micro-level discipline (disciplinary actions aimed at a specific student that interrupted instruction), indirect micro-level discipline (disciplinary actions aimed at a specific student that did not interrupted instruction), and specific patterns in how teachers addressed student misbehavior. During the first year, the frequency of implementing discipline strategies at both macro and micro (direct) levels were relatively equal.

Micro-level Discipline

Micro-level Discipline was defined and coded as disciplinary action aimed at a specific student and his or her infraction. At the micro level, teachers addressed specific student misbehaviors both *directly*, as when behavior was handled both publically and in

a manner that interrupted instruction, or *indirectly* through means that corrected the problem but did not interfere with instruction. Key to this concept was understanding that direct management was done in a manner that brought the infraction to the attention to other members of the class with negativity associated to the behavior and reaction. Indirect management was not kept subtle or private.

An example of both direct and indirect micro-level discipline occurred when Xiao was teaching a literacy lesson. She frequently stopped to tell a student to pay attention, for example, "[Student], be quiet." In such cases, she utilized micro-level discipline skills in a direct and public manner. The student's misbehavior was acknowledged in front of the whole class in a manner that interrupted instruction. An example of indirect micro-level discipline occurred when a student was playing with a small piece of paper. Xiao took the paper from the student and rose slightly off her chair to place it on a nearby table. Throughout this action, she continued to read and direct the class to the title of the story. In this case, she was able to remove the distracting factor while redirecting the student and maintaining the integrity of the instruction, making it an indirect micro-level discipline act.

Macro-level Discipline

Macro-level discipline was defined and coded to include ways of addressing problematic behaviors among a large number of students. In these cases both the behavior on the part of the students and disciplinary action on the part of the teacher always interrupted instruction. This form of discipline was always conducted publically in a direct manner. At the macro level, discipline took the form of verbally addressing the

whole classroom primarily about the noise level or not listening to the teacher during the lesson. Periodically, disciplinary remarks were supported with nonverbal cues such as a finger over the mouth indicating a quiet sign or tapping an item that the teacher requested students to direct their attention to.

Specific examples of direct macro-level discipline are found in the transcript of Fan's video segment (Table 3). In this example taken from Year 2, Fan was transitioning between learning activities. Preceding this segment, students had been playing a game with teams racing to identify the Chinese character displayed to win points for their teams. Fan transitioned into an activity using chopsticks with the learning goal of differentiating colors (e.g. yellow, huángsè) and the use of color identification in objects requiring additional measurement words (e.g. huángsè de), thus students would use color words in the correct contextual situation. Students became excited with the activity and began yelling out and cheering. It began as Fan pulled out a pair of chopsticks and a container. Segment 1 identifies Fan's first attempt to redirect students. She used the verbal cue "quiet" in conjunction with a nonverbal cue of raising her hand. Segment 3 shows how Fan unsuccessfully incorporated "shhh" as she continued to set up the activity. Both of these segments demonstrated a Macro-level behavior management strategy due to her direct interaction with the whole class. This strategy was relatively ineffective as it took repeated efforts to redirect students' attention. But rather than continuing with a form of macro-level discipline that was not producing the desired behaviors, Fan quickly got the new activity going and immediately asked a question to draw students back on task with appropriate participation.

Table 3

Macro-level Behavior Management

Number	Transcription	Student Actions
(1)	T: Quiet	T stands very erect. T raises hand at the elbow.
(2)	T: *[Student]*	
(3)	T: shhh	T moves a student's desk over to be directly in front of class as a demonstration table.
(4)	The teacher is saying something in Chinese, but cannot tell what it is due to students yelling out.	Class is yelling out
(5)	T: shén me?	Takes out chop sticks and shakes the container. T is looking into the container.
(6)	T: lǜsè *de*	T uses chops sticks and picks a green pompon from the container.
(7)	T: lǜsè *de*	
(8)	Class: huángsè	Pulls out a yellow
(9)	T: huángsè de	
(10)	Class: *bei*sè *de*	Pulls out another one
(11)	T: duì	
(12)	T: sè *de*	Points to the board while saying sè *de*

This example demonstrates Fan's ability to redirect students in a manner that shifts from a macro-level effort of trying to command attention to a technique that drew students' interest into the activity and therefore, they were motivated to participate. This eliminated the management issue. When Fan transitioned between activities, she initially stood very erect and stiff in front of the classroom and stated a single word (quiet). Her posture, stance, and placement at the front of the class were typical of all the Chinese teachers and indicative of a repetitive trend and a cultural approach. This also developed into a successful tactic she implemented at the start of each lesson. As she realized that her tactics were not effective during lesson transitions, she adjusted her behavior, relaxed her stance, and took a new approach. This example highlights not only an example of a

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novice teacher gaining experience, but also Fan's acculturation process of learning to adapt to the environment. She realized that transition cues that may have been effective in one environment were ineffective in the new environment. Therefore, Fan had to adjust her behavior to achieve the desired results.

Novice Teacher Trends

Not surprisingly, discipline patterns changed over time indicating a developing competency with the new teaching environment. Table 4 shows the issues related to the frequency in which management characteristics occurred within the video analysis and field notes. As previously described, each data segment was specifically coded according to prescribed categories. In the frequency count, each numerator constituted the count within the specific coded category. A total count of all acknowledged disciplinary actions (macro, micro/direct and micro/indirect) was used as the denominator to calculate the percentage of frequencies of occurrences within each discipline category (Table 4, Items 1-4). Classroom management (Table 4, Item 5) percentages divided the count of coded classroom management with cultural scripts by the total count of all coded classroom management segments.

Likewise, Table 4 addresses the ratios of behavior management issues. Coded categories of classroom management, discipline, behaviors addressed and behaviors ignored were applied to the data segments and cross-compared. When the teacher addressed misbehavior, whether at the macro, micro (direct/indirect), or classroom management levels, the data segments were coded as behaviors addressed. Any instance of misbehavior that was detrimental to learning and did not elicit a reaction from the

teacher were coded as ignored behaviors. The analysis process acknowledged that at times teachers will ignore certain behaviors with the knowledge that it will correct the misbehavior in a manner better than drawing attention to it. The review specifically monitored for such actions and did not code them as ignored behaviors when the teacher's specific purpose of ignoring the behavior was to correct the behavior. Any questionable instance was reviewed with the teacher for clarification.

Table 4

Frequency of Behavior Management Issues

Category of Behavior Management	Year 1 Percentage	Year 2 Percentage
1. Macro (whole class) Discipline (Students/Behavior Management)	45.5	38.5
2. Micro (Direct) Level Discipline--Directly addressing a student's behavior	45.5	23.0
3. Micro (Indirect) Level--Indirectly addressing a student's behavior (e.g. removing item student playing with)	9.0	38.5
4. Teachers' Discipline with Culturally Embedded Strategies	40.9	0.0
5. Culturally Embedded Classroom Management Procedures	25.0	50.0

As expected, there were decreases in both Macro and Micro (Direct) levels of discipline (Table 4). Simultaneously, there was an increase in Micro (Indirect) levels of discipline (Table 4). Especially problematic in Year 1 was behavior management in relationship with classroom management strategies for discipline (Table 5). As evident on video observations during Year 1, for each classroom management technique utilized, there were 18 disciplinary actions on the part of the teachers that indicated teachers were being reactive to problems that had arisen. As time went on, some of the teachers adapted and learned new techniques that provided them with more success in this area. During Year 2, disciplinary actions still outnumbered evident classroom management techniques,

but there was a substantial decrease in the ratio between preventative actions to reactive disciplining. This indicated that teachers were taking a preventative approach to maintaining classroom order.

These two trends indicated that the teachers were developing competency in implementing management strategies that made discipline less intrusive on instruction. This finding was typical of what could be expected of any novice teacher as he or she becomes acclimated with being a classroom teacher.

Table 5

Ratios of Behavior Management Issues

	Year 1 Ratio	Year 2 Ratio
1. Classroom Management Strategies to Discipline	1:18	1:1.6
2. Behaviors Addressed to Behaviors Ignored	1:1.5	3.25:1

Passive Behavior Management

The degree of which behavior management was problematic was distinctive between the Immersion Program and the Language and Culture Program. With the latter, teachers interacted with multiple classes for limited amounts of time and were not viewed as the classroom teacher. When problems arose, the problems could be temporarily overlooked or ignored. Teachers also deferred to the classroom teacher, if necessary. This lead to a passiveness and reliance on the classroom teacher for follow through. Whereas in the Immersion Program, teachers interacted with each of their two classes on a full time basis, were the instructors of record, and were thus viewed as being authority figures in their own classrooms.

During the first year the amount of inappropriate behavior that was ignored on the part of the teachers was high. For every misbehavior addressed, 1.5 were ignored (Table 5), which magnified the management problems, because students quickly learned that their Chinese teachers would not address certain behaviors. For Fan and Yuan, behaviors that they did not address during their lessons were conveyed to the classroom teacher for disciplinary follow up. This sort of handing over of behavior management duties was termed passive behavior management. Xiao and JingJing, as the classroom teachers, did not have the ability to hand over regular classroom misbehavior to another individual. Xiao ultimately did not overcome these management challenges. In mid-February, she was removed from her classroom. In her final interview prior to her return to China, she reflected on her choice of ignoring behavior problems.

Interviewer:	What was your biggest mistake in managing your class?
Xiao:	I was teaching to the students who wanted to learn and ignoring the behaviors. I didn't realize that not taking care of bad behavior would have me lose my job.
Interviewer:	Why was that?
Xiao:	In China students have to learn to please their family and naughty kids are not in the class. I teached the kids who wanted to learn, who respected the teacher.

Data from Xiao's provide evidence of her use of Macro-level and direct Micro level techniques, which were not effective for her. The other teachers were able to shed these two management techniques in favor of Micro-level techniques, and subsequently enjoyed more success in the classroom. These types of techniques are discussed more fully in the next section.

Culturally Embedded Disciplinary Actions

The patterns of addressing misbehavior appeared to integrate a cultural approach on the part of the teachers. In order to visual the difference in disciplinary actions with and without a cultural approach, it is important to identify the underlying moral or practical action that drives disciplinary action. For example, a typical disciplinary action without an indication of culture was a situation where Yuan took a toy away from a student and placed it on a nearby table. She handled the issue effectively, but there was no indication as to how Yuan's thoughts or actions within this data segment could tie into any cultural norms that influenced her actions. A disciplinary data segment containing a cultural approach was when Fan acknowledged a student's talking and stated, "[Student] please stand up in the back there with hands behind back and listen to what I am saying." Moving a problematic student is a typical teacher behavior management strategy. But within the command, Fan directed the student to stand with his hands behind the back, an action that could be viewed as atypical. This in itself did not constitute classification as a culturally embedded teaching script, but in Fan's follow up review she indicated students in China are taught to stand to show respect (e.g. answering a teacher's question or when being asked to do something or perform a task) and teachers teach students to keep their hands behind their backs to keep from misbehaving. Therefore, this example demonstrated Fan's attempt to incorporate her cultural values into her management practice through a cultural approach.

But this finding could be taken a step further by looking at it in terms of culturally embedded teaching scripts. During Year 1, culturally embedded teaching scripts, similar to the previously mentioned example, were evident in 40% of all disciplinary actions on

the part of the teachers. To obtain this percentage, a total of all disciplinary actions had been counted and compared against those disciplinary actions and included those that embedded Chinese culture. These tended to be present, but were not exclusive within the first half of the lessons indicating that as compared to the latter half of the lesson. Thus, teachers dropped a strategy if they found it ineffective. Additionally, evidence of Chinese cultural scripts were more prevalent in the beginning of the school year than at the end. By the second year, there was no evidence of Chinese cultural scripts within teachers' disciplinary actions.

When teachers incorporated their Chinese viewpoints into discipline, students did not react per the teachers' expectations. For example, during one of Xiao's lessons, a student moved away from the group and another other student grabbed her pant leg. Xiao's response was "[Student] I don't think you show me good behavior." This statement highlighted inconsistency in expectations: in a follow up interview, Xiao further explained. "In China, when you misbehave in class, you are being disrespectful to the teacher. I thought [Student] was disrespectful to me."

This statement did not address the inappropriateness of physically touching another child that could have resulted in injury. A typical American teacher's response may have been to remind the student that hands, feet, and objects were to be kept to oneself to keep one's friends safe. Yet, Xiao did two things differently here. First, she took a moral perspective by framing the behavior as being disrespectful to her. This statement reflected upon her Chinese values that respect for the teacher is paramount, and any disrespect to the teacher disgraces the student's family, a finding similar to Coats (2005). Second, the difference in language discourse and what students expected to hear,

and what Xiao actually said, were two distinctly different things. This ultimately led to miscommunication between the Xiao and the student. As the other teachers realized students were not responding to their culturally embedded disciplinary responses to clue students to change their behavior, they shifted to using other disciplinary measures to which students were more accustomed. This trend continued into the second year, as then no apparent embedded culture was observed within disciplinary actions (Table 4) from the data collected. This finding was rather extreme, and leads one to question whether the finding was realistic. There are two possible rationales: First, the two teachers who completed the study into the second year were both in Language and Culture positions. Throughout the study, they had the help and mentorship of American teachers who also modeled classroom disciplinary actions and encouraged the teachers to implement classroom management routines of the teacher to allow for consistency between the classroom teacher and the Chinese teacher. This allowed these two Chinese teachers to adopt the practices of their western mentors. Second, although the Language and Culture teachers practiced passive discipline referral, it actually served to buy them time in a supportive way, allowing them to bring in appropriate practices at a slower and more culturally comfortable pace under better supervision and support.

Discipline Summary

Disciplinary management at both the macro and micro levels decreased from the first year to the second year. This decrease, in relationship to the increase in classroom management procedures in conjunction with instructional routines, showed that the Chinese teachers increased skills that allowed them to be proactive in the approach to

behavior management. Similarly, there was a 22.5% decrease in directly addressing individual student behavior in relationship to 29.5% increase in indirect disciplinary strategies. This made behavior management less intrusive on classroom instructional time. This trend is also one that follows patterns demonstrated by novice teachers.

An important shift was noted from an overt integration of culturally embedded disciplinary strategies in the first year, to embedded culture being undetectable the second year. The teachers incorporated fewer Chinese cultural scripts in their discipline techniques and shifted towards adopting discipline strategies modeled by their American teaching peers, a process of adapting and developing cultural competency in the new school environment. As time progressed, the Chinese teachers indicated that they observed other disciplinary management approaches, and discussed with American teachers how to best implement them in the various classrooms. As Yuan noted, "Teachers at the school were so nice to let us watch them and tell us what they do to make students behave. They have good control so I try to do what they do." The other three teachers also expressed similar sentiments. In taking this approach, the teachers attempted to adopt the behavior management strategies of their American counterpart teachers in lieu of their previous approach. Acculturation, defined here as change in cultural behavior and thinking, occurred as the Chinese teachers interacted with their American counterparts within this new cultural environment.

Classroom Management

Though the terms are often used homogenously, there is a distinction between classroom management practices and discipline (Weinstein, 2003). Teachers' disciplinary

actions focused specifically on responses to inappropriate behavior that was happening in the classroom by one or many of the students. Their classroom management, on the other hand, focused on ways in which the teacher created a caring, respectful environment that supported learning. There were trends in classroom management actions that were indicative of both novice teachers and culturally embedded classroom management.

Classroom Management in the Context of Novice Teachers

In the area of behavior management, novice teachers typically shift from implementing disciplinary procedures to classroom management procedures. As expected, comparisons in this study between classroom management and disciplinary measures (Table 4) indicated a major shift from Year 1 to Year 2. Though disciplinary actions still outnumbered classroom management techniques in Year 2, there was a substantial decrease in the ratio between preventative actions to reactive discipline. This indicated that teachers were taking a preventative approach to maintaining classroom order.

Reflecting upon the changes in management from Year 1 to Year 2, Yuan stated, "I made my expectations clear to the students from the first day. I followed through and was consistent. Things are much better when students know the routines and procedures. I wait until all students are ready." Not knowing how to establish routines and procedures that allowed students to identify the classroom expectations made them difficult to manage during the first year. During the second year, when management procedures were taught and implemented with clear and consistent expectations, there was a decrease in behavior problems.

One primary proactive measure utilized by the Chinese teachers during the first year, and that continued into the second year, was to arrange student seating into rows, both when the students were at their desks and when they sat on the floor. When asked about the structure of the rows they created, all four teachers indicated that it was usually assigned seating and students were given a designated spot to sit so that they could break up problematic students.

The second year, more management procedures were integrated. To gain students' attention and to also signal the start of a lesson, a chant "pántuǐ pántuǐ zuò zuò hǎo" (cross legs and sit nicely), was initiated after Fan and Yuan had observed an experienced Chinese immersion teacher using the strategy within her classroom. When hearing this, students were cued into joining the chant, orienting themselves appropriately and focusing attention on the teacher. Likewise, rather than passively addressing or not addressing misbehaviors, the expectation was that all students would cue in before the lesson continued.

Several routines provided evidence that the new strategies worked. For example, when Fan would stand straight at the front of the class and raise her hand at the start of the lesson, students would become attentive to what she had to say. Similarly, when Yuan wanted to signal to students to raise their hands to answer questions, she would also raise her hand providing a visual cue to her students on what is expected. Most evident was the consistency in expectations. For example, both Yuan and Fan would stop and wait for all students to come back on task. This was a major change from the previous year when they would stop and request students' attention, but then continue despite not all students being on task.

Implementation of successful classroom management strategies indicated a change as novice teachers became more experienced in their second year of teaching. They learned that establishing and implementing consistent classroom management procedures made the classroom run more smoothly and decreased behavior problems. Incorporating a few Chinese cultural actions and expectations into their management strategies extended classroom management in the second year, yet did not impede classroom management as they did the first year. This is because they were taught in a manner that allowed students to adapt to practices that were new and different.

Culturally embedded Classroom Management Actions

Though teachers struggled with the ineffectiveness of culturally embedded disciplinary action, they achieved relative success in embedding aspects of Chinese culture into their classroom management approaches. Over the course of the study, teachers were able to double the percentage of culturally embedded classroom management actions (Table 4). Reflecting back at the previous classroom management examples, cultural factors were found within those examples. Fan's procedure to indicate the start of the lesson, for example, extended beyond what may have been expected to be seen in a U.S. classroom. Though raising a hand may be an action taken by a U.S. teacher, other associated actions were different. To begin, she would stand very straight and stiff at the front of the room. Then she would bend her right arm at the elbow to raise her hand. This was also done in an abrupt and stiff motion. Through repetition, teaching the students her expectations, they acculturated to this practice.

Classroom Management Summary

During the second year, the teachers developed competency to suitably function within the realm of behavior management. Their shift in embedding cultural scripts changed from being disciplinary centered to classroom management centered. As noted above, there were several examples where cultural values were embedded within classroom management practices, for example arranging students in assigned seating rows both in desks and on the floor. Special duties were designated by the teacher and given only to students who were behaving appropriately or to students who raised their hands or chose to actively participate. Teachers also used a special Chinese chant to cue students into the start of the lesson or to remind the class to refocus.

Other Culturally Embedded Teaching Practices

Influencing Behavior Management

Individuals, whether teachers or students, enter a school with certain expectations of what school is and how it should function. Within this framework of ideas, they use their working knowledge of school and education to interact within the school environments. In this case, the Chinese teachers and American students had different expectations of how the school environment should function. Thus, what would be culturally appropriate in one environment did not necessarily function well in the new environment. There were additional cultural aspects that influenced teachers' actions and students' engagement and behavior.

Praising or Rewarding Students

Teachers also took on the practice of praising students who demonstrated respectful behavior. For example, an American teacher may purposefully call on students during whole class instruction, asking them questions about the subject matter being discussed, or to spot check on understanding. American teachers use such classroom management strategies to draw students back on task, and ensure that individual needs are being met in the classroom instruction, both of which are practical matters. This was not the case with any of the four Chinese teachers. During the first year, all data indicated that all four teachers' practice was to call only on students who were raising their hands and actively participating. There is no documented data to indicate otherwise, and teachers agreed that it was indeed purposeful on their part to call only on students who were participating. JingJing's final interview provides an example:

Interviewer: Why did you call only on students who were raising their hands?
JingJing: Those were the students wanting to learn and show what they know.
Interviewer: Why didn't you call on students who were not paying attention? Maybe you could have drawn them back into your lesson.
JingJing: I want to reward and give praise to students who are being respectful and trying to learn. If students are not paying attention, they should not get praise for correct answers if they can answer properly. It just teaches them that they don't have to pay attention.

This exchange suggested that JingJing saw calling on students more as a moral matter (rewarding virtue) than a practical matter (moving a class along). While both Chinese and American teachers (and students) vary on this moral-practical dimension, Chinese teachers are somewhat more likely than American teachers to see calling on students as a moral matter rather than a practical matter.

All teachers indicated that it was important to praise students, which is yet another moral matter. Yuan noted, "Like when a good student gives a correct answer in the class, a positive feedback (word or smile) from the teacher will satisfy him." It was important to the teachers not to acknowledge or call attention to any disrespectful behavior in any manner that might have ultimately resulted in positive feedback or could be misconstrued by the students as rewarding inappropriate behavior. However, this practice had adverse effects when the Chinese teachers used it the classroom. American students, being accustomed to teachers calling on them when they are not paying attention, quickly learned that there would be no attempt to draw them into the lessons. Therefore they were not required to pay to attention. These students also give no indication that they were concerned that their Chinese teachers interpreted this as a lack of respect.

Teacher/Student Attention

Teachers also rewarded students with teacher attention, which is related to their actions of rewarding virtue by calling on students who raised their hands. In China, teachers are highly regarded and respected. In their collective society, an emphasis is placed on what is best for the whole, in this case, the classroom. Working in conjunction to this is a social ranking system, wherein the teacher maintains the highest rank and students are of lower rank. Chinese teachers initially brought a cultural mentality to the classroom that expected students to be subordinate and respond implicitly to the expectations of the teachers. When this occurred, students were rewarded with the teacher's attention. When students did not respond, they were ignored. For example, Xiao focused her attention on students in the class who were eager to learn and attentive to

learning, and ignored the students who did not meet her expectations of listening and paying attention. She even acknowledged that this teaching practice was driven by her culture. But the result was that students who were not motivated to learn were quickly alienated from lessons and ignored. Those who were eager to learn and were respectful met Xiao's cultural expectations for social rank in the classroom.

Xiao had the most difficult time of the four teachers, and things progressively got worse for her. As students learned that they would not be held accountable for inappropriate behavior, such behaviors intensified. Xiao documented multiple occurrences of major behavior problems such as:

1. Students walking out of the classroom unnoticed or without permission,
2. Students refusing to line up and come in from recess,
3. Students fighting in the classroom,
4. Students wandering around the classroom despite teaching instruction in progress,
5. Excessive noise and yelling in the classroom, and
6. Outright insubordination in refusal to do what Xiao requested.

These were also behavior problems that Xiao realized did not occur while students were in attendance with their American teacher, all making the situation even more perplexing for her. One such example was when she compared a student's misbehavior in her room to his behavior in another teacher's classroom. Xiao wrote, "...I have asked Christine [the other teacher] about [the student's] behavior in her classroom. She said he seems okay, and he listens to her words when she said 'time out or stand by the wall etc.' I don't know why he just ignore my words."

Physical Positions of Teachers in the Classroom

One recurring issue was that of how each teacher positioned herself in the classroom. During both years of teaching, teachers routinely positioned themselves in the front of the class, an action that indicated authority or dominance. Within the video segments, teachers were not seen moving from these positions of dominance. They did not actively circulate around the room, but rather stood or sat at the front of the room at all times. Examination of field notes indicated that even though students may have been working at their seats, teachers still routinely positioned themselves at the front with students coming to them for questions or assistance. This positioning was typical in Chinese education, as students are expected to watch and listen to the teacher as the lesson is delivered. However, this practice is also often seen with novice teachers in U.S. classrooms. As any teacher becomes more comfortable with classroom management, it is easier for him or her to relinquish that position of control. In this study however, the Chinese teachers, with one exception, never relinquished that control even when they were no longer considered novices.

The teachers' movements were also interesting to review, in that they typically maximized the space between the teachers and the students. In review of the first year of field notes and video, it appeared that teachers were creating an invisible physical barrier between themselves and their students. There was little to no physical contact between teachers and students, suggesting that teachers were actually scared to touch students. Little actions were apparent such as leaning or stepping back when students encroached on the teacher's personal space. When teachers handed materials to students, they did so taking care that hands did not touch.

During a video review with the teacher and researcher, such actions of the teachers were pointed out by the researcher. As summarized by Yuan, "Before we came, we were told that [in America] teachers cannot touch students. American parents will get mad at us and they are mean when they are mad and we do not want parents mad at us." This comment indicated that the teachers were intimidated by the perception of American parents. This intimidation was not rooted in any actions by parents, rather it was a result of cultural misperceptions. The effect was that it directly influenced the relationship between the teachers and students.

Language Use in Behavior Management

Videotape data showed that English was exclusively used for behavior management across both programs during the first year. This was not surprising in the Language and Culture Program, as it did not expect exclusive use of Chinese. Yet, the Immersion Program by definition maximizes the use of the target language for both academics and classroom procedures. This was not the case however when teachers attempted to manage students' behavior.

> When asked about the use of English to manage her class, Xiao responded: Before, I tried using Chinese to make the kids behave. I make my voice sound mean. I don't think they understand the Chinese words so I need to use English to make them behave. In China, kids come to school and they know how to behave in school. All a teacher has to do is tell them they be disrespectful to the teacher and they behave.

In trying to understand Xiao's explanation of making her voice "sound mean," tapes and field notes were revisited. Chinese is a tonal language and for non-speakers of Chinese, it may have a melodic sound to it. Through video review, there was virtually no

discernable change in the tone or volume of voice or strong visual actions to show disappointment in the behavior when addressing behavior through the Chinese language. The rise and fall of the natural tones in the language were apparent when listening to the tapes. Typically, when a teacher reprimands in English, there is a change in voice, where the voice is usually dropped and given a sterner sound. This brings in a oral cue for the student that goes beyond the mere words spoken.

Yet, in review of the data, attempts to be vocally strict in Chinese terms, together with the use of cultural expectations (e.g. respect for the teacher), were not effective in classroom management. Students did not provide any visible reaction to teacher warnings, especially as there were no discernable changes in teachers' voices. This indicated that both teachers and students did not have the language and/or cultural understandings to produce a desired change in student actions. The second year, the use of English for behavior management dropped to 54%. English was still used exclusively for disciplinary measures, but the teachers more successfully embedded Chinese into classroom management procedures.

Teaching Resources

Access to written text was one element in which there were different expectations between what the students expected and the teachers provided. All teachers had access to video projectors, chalk, dry erase boards, chart paper, easels, and a variety of other tools that allowed for text to be made visible. They were eager to use virtually all the tools except the video projector. The difference came in the use of physical books, as they had access to limited Chinese books. In the classroom, there were approximately 100

storybooks for the teachers to use to read to the children. In addition, there were approximately 50 electronic file books that could be printed and stapled together as additional reading materials. Teachers did use many of these materials, but also tended to make and produce their own mini-books related to their specific lesson for students to use.

One such example from an immersion program class was Xiao's language arts block where she used a book she created for teaching story comprehension. It was a single photocopied paper folded in half so the book had four pages. She had enough copies for each student to have his or her own book, but while she was using it as a teaching point, she did not distribute them to the students. Rather, she held up a single copy for all the students seated in rows on the carpet to watch. There were pictures on the first three pages and on the fourth, students would be eventually drawing their own picture to match the ending of the story. There was also text, both characters on pinyin, on all four pages, but in a small font. This made the access to text very difficult for students. Within Xiao's first video segment that featured this 14-minute literacy lesson, she had 19 unacknowledged behavior problems and 11 attempts at addressing inappropriate behavior. Xiao also made management statements to the effect of "eyes on the book," yet with the limited accessibility to the book and visibility poor, this may have contributed to her behavior management struggles.

Similarly, in mid-January, an American teaching colleague raised a concern regarding the use of technology for teaching. She was extremely impressed with the presentations and supporting media that was being incorporated into the lessons, but was uneasy with lack of visibility and sound. She was concerned that this was promoting

behavior management problems. What the teacher observed was that Yuan was bringing in her laptop, with a 15" monitor to class. Students would sit on the carpet around her and view the media presentation from the laptop screen. After the issue was investigated, it emerged that this practice was happening in all the rooms where Yuan taught. This was despite the fact that half of the classrooms had computer projectors in them, and the rest had portable projectors available. Yuan had ready access to these, but Yuan chose to use her own laptop because, "I thought students could see it fine."

The differences in visual representations may have also contributed to problems with materials. The Chinese books within the school tended to have a lot of small font sized text with minimal pictures, unlike the English materials. American students were used to resources that promote visual access (e.g. big books, projection screens, individual textbooks, etc.), but these were not available to them in their Chinese lessons

Summary of Behavior Management

Developing Cultural Competency within the Context of Behavior Management.

Foreign teachers' ability to develop cultural competency to interact within and between two distinct cultures directly affected the classroom behavior management. Throughout the study, teachers maintained their positions of authority by remaining at the front of the classroom rather than routinely circulating throughout the student body. This in itself was not problematic. The misconception of needing to maximize the physical space so not to physically touch students directly affected teachers' abilities to build relationship with their students. This misguided attempt to please American parents was actually detrimental to teachers' management practices because it created invisible

barriers that affected their personal connections with students. After this misconception was addressed, teaching scripts still had them routinely position themselves at the front of the class. But the self-imposed barrier was no longer visible as teachers had purposefully modified it. This reflected teachers' diminished fear of touching their students, and provided a clear example of where teachers addressed their own cultural misconceptions and modified their actions to build competency.

Throughout the first year, it was clear that there were cultural mismatches. When students and teachers share the same cultural knowledge, classrooms run smoothly (Stigler & Hiebert, 1999), but within this context, teachers and students did not have mutual cultural understanding. Teachers managed their classes within their own personal cultural context and students reacted within their own personal cultural context. This mismatch required teachers to develop cultural competency that not only allowed them to personally function, but also allowed their students to function competently in a two culture environment.

Again, it was with behavior management that this competency was especially important. Three of the four teachers developed sufficient behavior management skills and successfully adapted. Unfortunately, Xiao was removed from her teaching position and she returned to China. Though a qualified teacher of Chinese, she did not have the knowledge to be able to create mutual understanding when using the language in American schools. Xiao's cultural beliefs and expectations were so integrated to her teaching that she failed to see them as mutable or changeable. She was not able to overcome the intercultural miscommunication and adapt her behavior so she could regain positive reinforcement in her new environment. Xiao was unaware of how her implicit

and informal culture played a major role in influencing behavior management techniques. As Xiao functioned within her own culture boundaries, her students functioned within their own; the two did not connect or develop a joint cohesive school culture. In her case, it appeared that she was unable to reflect on her practices effectively. The result was insufficient adjustment or changes that would have lead to successful teaching.

Culture within Discipline and Classroom Management

Cultural practices, in conjunction with novice teacher behavior, played a strong role in the problems the teachers encountered with behavior management during their first year. Though all teachers struggled with behavior management, their ability to adapt and acquire competency within the American school culture affected their ability to function and manage students. One related area was with the understanding of "respect." The teachers did not experience or define respect using the same cultural definitions or experiences as their students. These aspects all related to cultural competency in behavior management.

Teachers initially did not implement many classroom management procedures, which resulted the disproportionate use of disciplinary measures in their first year of teaching. Behavior problems occurred due to the differences in language discourse. What students expected to hear and what was actually said were two different things, and this ultimately led to miscommunication between the teachers and students. Yet, in the second year there was a noticeable decrease in disciplinary measures, and those noted were absent of Chinese cultural scripts. This development, in conjunction with the increase in classroom management procedures with successful Chinese cultural scripts, resulted in

fewer behavior problems. Through the successful implementation of classroom management procedures, teachers unknowingly embedded various cultural norms into their classroom management practices that their American students could successfully learn and respond to. This practice allowed teachers to close the gap between student expectations and teacher expectations, as students were able identify the clues and adjust their behaviors appropriately. Ultimately, this reduced the need for disciplinary measures.

Another drastic change in cultural approaches to discipline was that during the first year teachers were likely to address specific student misbehaviors directly. This practice strongly reflected the teachers' Chinese cultural background. In U.S. classrooms, such matters are often considered personal or confidential. In China they are conducted in an open and public manner. In China, students' grades are posted for all to see, with an overt comparison of ranking and performance. Parent teacher conferences are conducted with all parents attending and student information is presented in front of all. Negativity associated with a particular student reflects poorly upon his or her family honor.

In addition, parents show high levels of respect for the teacher. It follows that when teachers managed student behavior openly and publically in front of the class, it reflected cultural elements relating specifically to respect. In the second year, teachers' actions of indirectly addressing students' misbehaviors were much more noticeable. They were more likely to provide discrete auditory clues that allowed students to adjust the behavior without it being public or intrusive of the learning that was occurring.

This is not to say that changes in embedding culture into classroom management caused all the improvements in behavior management. Because the Chinese language program was designed to build cultural awareness at the school, these results give

indications that embedding cultural expectations within the rules, routines, and procedures within classrooms also allowed for students to develop competency skills. Teachers were able to function competently within and across the two distinct cultures in their management practices. This in turn allowed them to scaffold the culturally appropriate Chinese behavioral expectations for students. Through this, students were able to eventually respond to the subtleties of the underlying culture as it was being introduced into the classroom environment and thus respond appropriately.

Culturally Embedded Pedagogy

The purpose of this section is to examine the pedagogical approach to teaching as the teachers taught within the American classrooms. The pedagogy of these teachers had embedded in them certain aspects of Chinese culture. Thus, they provided a clear indication of the adaptation processes the teachers were experiencing.

> As every teacher are capable of imparting knowledge, why still some children can't make it? I think what matters will be how a teacher impart knowledge and how ready (a ready mood to accept or not) children are to learn.
>
> Fan

The statement by Fan is indicative of how culture influenced all four teachers and their philosophies of teaching. First, teachers were responsible for imparting knowledge, and second, students were expected to have motivation for learning. Both were highly interconnected. This section, however, will focus on their culturally embedded pedagogical teaching perspectives as related to their endeavors to impart knowledge.

Teachers indicated that it was their responsibility to impart knowledge; to choreograph and direct lessons so that students had the opportunity to learn. Ultimately,

however, the extent of the learning was up to the students. Working within this teaching philosophy in itself is challenging for any teacher. While this perspective was not totally unfamiliar to U.S. students, it was sufficiently different to cause discord in the classroom. This problem was magnified by the fact that the cultural perspective that was embedded within the pedagogies was largely disconnected from students' scripts, thus causing discrepancies in expectations.

The results in this section were also characteristic of novice teacher behaviors. What becomes evident in this section is the degree in which the cultural morals and values play a part in the actions of the teachers. For example, novice teachers often times will dominate the classroom instruction. But what becomes evident is there is the degree in which the difference may occur. As in China, the smaller self must always submit to the greater. In this case, the students must submit to the teachers. The difference is not so much in the notion itself, as it is also sometimes apparent in U.S. classrooms. Rather the difference is in degree in which it is carried out. In the U.S., students submit to their teachers, but students also know that within limits, they also have rights. The degree in which students can exert their rights is somewhat different from the notion of always submitting to the teacher. The Chinese teachers were operating under different degrees of expectations.

Teacher Dominated Lessons

Teacher dominated lessons were those that teachers maintained authoritarian control over the content of the material being learned and the interactions within the

classroom. Evident here were: (a) teacher authority as evident in social control, and (b) teacher expectations for imparting knowledge.

During both years of teaching, all participant teachers routinely positioned themselves in the front of their classes, a position that indicated authority or dominance. Within the video segments, teachers were not seen moving from their positions of dominance or actively circulating around the room; rather they stood or sat at the front of the room at all times. Examination of field notes indicated that even though students may have been working at their seats, teachers still routinely positioned themselves at the front with students coming to them for questions or assistance.

Social Control and Teacher Authority

Teachers exercised social control during all lessons, making it clear as to whose time it was. When time belonged to the teacher, the teachers monitored the attention of the children: "I wish everybody be quiet and eyes on this book" or "[student] come back," a type of talk that displayed authority. Likewise, there was purposefulness when teachers called on students to provide answers. Fan's response to an interview question about her choice of calling on students is an example of this: "I could always see a forest of hands up, so I could easily pick an appropriate person to say something or answer the question, basically. Thus they are expressing themselves and other are learning from what they said." With this strategy Fan would select students who could answer appropriately so others would hear the correct answer.

Videotape and field note analyses revealed only one classroom activity in which the teacher maintained classroom control, but relinquished social control to a student. In

her second year, Fan had a single 11 minute lesson segment in which she stepped back and let one of her students direct a game. Except for when she stepped in to mediate a small disagreement, Fan stood in the front of the class off to the left side, but allowed the student leader to choose participants and control the game. When she had the opportunity to watch the video recording that was made of this instructional segment, Fan commented on her motivation and rational for turning social control over to her student.

Interviewer:	During this game, you turned control over to a leader student. What made you reach the point where you could turn the control over to a student rather than you controlling the game?
Fan:	This question seems easy. My action derives from my belief in students' ability and my knowing where the students will get.
Interviewer:	I understand your belief in your students' ability. Can you further explain what you mean by my knowing where the students will get it?
Fan:	I know my students can do it. They have enough control of themselves to do the game. If you give kids a chance to play a game and compete against another group, the interest will be there to be good and they can do a good job. They like to compete. I don't need to lead and I can choose a student to be a good leader.
Interviewer:	How do you select a student to be a leader?
Fan:	I choose someone who listens and bes good in class. I also choose someone who other students like and get along with so their friends will respect them.

Fan realized that if she structured her activity in a manner that motivated students' participation, it allowed her to reduce the need for her to dominate the classroom interactions. She combined this with the purposeful method of selecting her student leader, choosing one who modeled appropriate classroom behavior and had a positive relationship with peers. This allowed facilitation of interactions that were relatively free of conflict. Because of these two purposeful actions on her part, Fan demonstrated an

example of acculturation. She was able to step back and relinquish her authority in favor of a successful form of social control, one that was held and monitored by the students.

Imparting Knowledge

The teachers' philosophy of teaching was to impart knowledge. This included choreographing and directing lessons so that students had opportunities to learn. Yuan noted, "Teachers talk a lot . . . We are very used to the way we tell the students something and expect them to learn from us. Then we keep talking all the time." Teachers were in control of the learning objectives and would often "lecture" students or allow instances for students to practice learning objectives in a manner where the focus remained upon the teacher. In this structure, teachers controlled participatory interaction between the teacher and their students with no student-to-student interactions. Teachers were most comfortable when students focused directly on the teacher so that students could be the receivers of knowledge.

The average literacy immersion lesson plan segment had students listening to their teachers for 30 minutes. These lessons had relatively few teacher-student interactions, and would usually begin with a 5-7 minute practice session of reading Chinese character flashcards followed by reading a story. In the 14-minute videotape segment of Xiao reading and discussing a story, she dominated the teaching time and presented three questions. All three questions allowed for students to participate, though required responses to be made directly to the teacher.

The excerpt shown in Table 6 is from a typical immersion lesson plan, and highlights the attitude of teachers that it was their responsibility to pass on knowledge. As

seen in this example, teachers viewed their actions as informing students about the desired learning objectives. Phrases such as "I tell," "I write," and "I show" were demonstrative of teachers' actions of informing students, where teachers were in control of the information and how students received the learning material. Interactions between the teacher and students were also limited and in such a manner that it was one-on-one and without interaction between peers.

Table 6

Literacy Lesson Plan Example: Going Through Previously Learned Characters

Activity'	Steps
Go through all the characters we have learned before. 5'	
Read a book: The Fun of Fall 10'	I show leaves and colors. I show what we do in fall for fun.
Review the story: Four Squirrels 15'	I write the character on one big piece of paper. I read them out at first. I tell them what they mean. I tell them what they mean. I ask some students to recognize those characters. I show how to write characters. I ask some students to copy characters.

Whole Class versus Small Group Instruction

Whole group instruction was indicated by the expected participation of all students in the class in the same activity or lesson. Small group instruction comprised groups of 3 to 8 students, who participated in a variety of learning activities set up around

the classroom. For all teachers, whole group lessons dominated the instructional time and were designed to accommodate learning of all students simultaneously. Teachers consistently expected the educational outcomes to be the same for all students, and rarely varied their method of instruction from lesson to lesson.

Differentiation according to academic ability levels or student-specific needs was not found in any of the teaching practices in the Language and Culture Program. For teachers in the Immersion Program, evidence of conscious attempts at differentiated instruction finally appeared in mid-January of 2008, nearly 5 months after beginning the teaching year. It surfaced first with Xiao, who began including 30-minutes a day of "center time." Center time is an educational practice that is dominant in American kindergarten classrooms. When JingJing took over Xiao's class, she continued the practice of center time. In examination of lesson plans that included center time, the activities listed were reading books, flash cards, puzzles, and pattern blocks. Classroom observations and lesson plans yielded that in centers, materials were placed at the various center areas, but without concrete learning expectations. Students were allowed to interact or "play" as they wanted without any expressed or conscious educational expectations on behalf of the teachers. As characterized by Xiao in regards to her western teaching partner's center practice, "Christine lets kids play for about 45 minutes each day. I want to have centers so my kids can have play time, too." The misconception that center time was for "playing" may have resulted in the lack of academic outcomes being incorporated into that time. This may have been an unconscious attempt at incorporating differentiated instruction, but in essence, the time resulted in a form of indoor recess.

Rote Practice and Learning

Rote learning involves repetitive practice within academic content areas. As characteristic of Chinese education, the value and emphasis on rote and mechanical memorization was prominent within the classrooms. Rote learning was prevalent in both the Immersion Classrooms and in the Language and Culture Program classroom.

Immersion Program

In the 50/50 Immersion Program, students spent half of their school day in their Chinese classroom. The average half-day class session was three hours after removing special classes (e.g. library, physical education, music). During the first year, rote-learning activities were common. Data from Immersion Program lesson plans were examined only to identify the rote practice of previously taught materials, and for no other reason. Based on the number of minutes that Immersion Program teachers indicated in their lesson plans the time that each activity would take, the average length for rote, whole-class practice was calculated. Examination of collected daily lesson plans included 20-47 minutes (M=37.54, sd=8.31) per day per class of teacher directed rote activities that involved whole class repetitive practice to reinforce previously taught material. The class time recorded here did not include any of the individual rote practice that had occurred in forms such as seatwork and worksheets, or repetition that may have occurred within the newly taught lessons, such as repeating phrases modeled by the teacher. To ensure that teachers were actually following their submitted lesson plans, other forms of

data were collected and analyzed, including videotaped segments of classroom instruction and field notes. Routine rote learning was evident in all of these.

In the Immersion Program rote-learning came across in a variety of forms and in various subjects, including mathematics and Chinese language. To practice the Chinese language, flashcards were routinely used. These included pictures for students to orally identify a vocabulary word or a Chinese character so students could read the sight word. Data from video segments demonstrated that rote review characteristically ran between 7 and 13 minutes, and usually preempted a literacy activity such as reading a story. In mathematics, rote practice would also take the form of orally reading and answering math equations (e.g. 3 + 2 = 5) and writing activities included the repetitiveness of writing of Chinese characters on the white board in the front of the classroom one student at a time.

Language and Culture Program

Rote activities were also part of the Language and Culture Program, drawing primarily on the use of flashcards for language practice for oral repetition. Rather than individual flashcard sets, numerous pictures with identifying characters were photocopied on single sheets of paper and presented to students in classrooms. The teachers chose picture sheets instead of flashcards because of their reported ease of using the ability for them to leave copies for the classes. Fan and Yuan believed this was the easiest adaptation since they did not have sufficient sets of flashcards to share in each class.

Language and Culture Program lesson plans during Year 1 did not indicate the number of minutes each lesson segment would take. Thus, it was not possible to identify the designated time allotted to rote learning activities. Teachers also tended to repeat the

same lesson across all grade levels. Therefore, the language level was instructionally appropriate for all students. In review of the diverse plans that were submitted, 84% indicated whole-class rote practice embedded within the lessons.

Rote learning was still evident within lessons during the second year, but it transitioned from use of flashcard type materials for whole class practice to activity based learning that included rote practice. Videotapes provided data of whole class activities that were game based, such as team racing to yell out the correct character identified on a flashcard to earn points, or students walking over colored sheets and when the music stopped, they would identify the color they are standing on. These video excerpts included rote practice activities that dominated the allotted class time with teachers taking short moments to teach or reinforce where needed.

The incentive behind this change in rote learning characteristics was the shared philosophical notion that lesson design needed to be very interesting in order to motivate students to learn and behave appropriately. As summarized by Yuan in her concluding interview, she summarized the change in her thinking as, "The first thing I learnt from my class is that class design for kids needs to be very interesting. Though I knew this before, I had no concept how interesting is interesting enough to attract kids' attention."

Knowledge Expectations in Classroom Discourse

Classroom discourse was dominated and controlled by the Chinese teachers. In their classrooms, teachers allocated turns by inviting students to participate, either by whole class recitations or calling on specific students. Their teaching practices included activity structures that were characteristic of question and answer sessions. Lessons were

organized as sequence where the teacher initiated an episode by asking a question about a fact or idea that she wanted to convey. Students replied with correct or incorrect responses, followed by the teachers' evaluation the responses, in a sequence that is known as Initiate-Reply-Evaluate (I-R-E) structure (Mehan, 1978). Although the I-R-E structures operated with low intellectual expectations, there were other, less formal opportunities for learning that allowed for higher-order thinking. However, opportunities for such higher-order learning, including comprehension and application, were on the whole quite limited.

Table7 indicates the average number of I-R-E segments per 30-minute segments and the percentage of occurrence in each category.

Table 7

I-R-E Structures and Percentage of Occurrences

	Year 1		Year 2	
	Average I-R-E structures/30 Minute Segment	Percentage	Average I-R-E structures/30 Minute Segment	Percentage
Low Level Thinking Skills				
Name/Recognize	23	48	28	53
Recall	4	9	2	4
Teacher Translation and Student Repetition	16	33	19	36
Extended I-R-E	2	4	3	5
Higher Level Thinking Skills				
Comprehension/ Application	3	6	1	2

The percentages of interaction structures were consistent across years. Name/recognize structures comprised the highest percentage each year. This was not surprising, as flashcard use predominated in both years and appeared in all videotape. The primary purpose of name/recognize structures was to review reading of Chinese characters and color recognition. Because this rote practice occurred at a rapid rate, there were more response structures in this category. Likewise, occurrences with teacher translation and student repetition were also quite high. These strategies were used to promote student language output. They are second language teaching strategies that are typical in language programs, and these teachers were comfortable in employing them.

There was a slight decrease of lessons that included higher level thinking skills during the second year. One possible reason for this decrease was that the second year data collection took place primarily in language arts lessons, and not at all in mathematics lessons. Mathematics was the content area in which most of the lessons that incorporated higher level thinking skills occurred the most during the first year.

Recalling Basic Information

Based on Bloom's Taxonomy (Bloom, 1956), the I-R-E structures functioned within the Knowledge Level of requiring simple recall or recognition of facts, and thus operated within low intellectual expectations. The three segments below model examples of the different forms of basic knowledge required by teachers within the I-R-E sequences.

Table 8 indicates an I-R-E sequence with the conceptual practice of color identification, a required kindergarten learning standard. This first sequence reflected in

rote practice where the same sequence was repeated numerous times by the teacher to allow basic recall practice and often times included the use of flashcards. This was either conducted within the expectation of participation of the whole class or while the whole class watched and individual students were called upon to answer the question or read the flashcard. This did not necessarily guarantee participation on behalf of all students.

Table 8

Name/Recognize

I-R-E Sequence	Chinese	English Translation
Initiation	T: *zhè shì shénme yánsè?*	What is this color?
Reply	S: Huángsè	Yellow
Evaluation	T: Huángsè de. duì	Yellow [measurement word]. Correct

A second example (Table 9) of basic knowledge expectations was when students were expected to recall basic information. These sequences usually were present when reading a story or checking for basic understanding. Basically, students were required to reiterate points of the story without having to extend their thinking to express or explain.

Table 9

Recall

I-R-E Sequence	Chinese	English Translation
Initiation	T: *gùshi zěnme jiéshù? [student]*	How did the story end [student]?
Reply	S: They get married and live happily ever after	
Evaluation	T: Good	Teacher smiles – thumbs up sign

Repetition was common with all four teachers, but in the Immersion Program classrooms, repetition I-R-E sequences were frequently used in situations to encourage students to use Chinese language rather than rely upon their native English. These sequences predominantly were set up with a precipitator, a phrase that students say in English that would prompt the I-R-E sequence. Immersion teachers' efforts to encourage students to practice Chinese would involve modeling of the translation and expansion into a complete sentence on the part of the teacher, followed by repetition on the part of the student. Translation and repetition are both knowledge level skills (Table 10).

Table 10

Teacher Translation and Student Repetition

I-R-E Sequence	Chinese	English Translation
Precipitator:	S: big brother	
Initiation	T: *Wǒ shì gēge.*	I'm a big brother.
Reply	S: *Wǒ shì gēge.*	I'm a big brother.
Evaluation	T: *Hěn hǎo.*	Very good.

Another type of I-R-E segment was the Extended I-R-E Sequence, an example of which is found in Table 11. This type of sequence occurred when the teacher did not get the desired response. It also highlights that initiation and evaluation were not always verbal in nature, but also included non-verbal actions that would prompt responses on the part of the student(s).

Table 11

Extended I-R-E

I-R-E Sequence	Chinese	English Translation
Initiation	Non-verbal cue by holding up a flash card with a Chinese character on it.	
Reply	S: kāfēi	Coffee
Evaluation	T: kāfēi*what?*	Coffee what?
Reply	S: kāfēisè de	Coffee (with correct ending)
Evaluation	Non-verbal by awarding a point to the student's team.	

Higher-Level Thinking

The I-R-E segments discussed in the previous sections were typical interactions within language arts activities that brought forth the question of what subjects, if any, infused higher-level thinking skills. The area of mathematics yielded evidence of Comprehension and Application levels of intellectual behavior. These examples that included higher level thinking skills were imbedded in mathematical story problems (Table 12).

Table 12

Comprehension/Explain

I-R-E Sequence	Chinese	English Translation
Initiation	On the white board is a picture of an apple tree and two children. The children have baskets and the teacher had told them they were picking apples and students were going to figure out how many apples the children had. Teacher writes on the board 9+8= Students raise hands and the teacher calls on a student with his hand up. T: *[student]*	
Reply	S: *jiǔ jiā bā děngyú shíqī.*	Nine plus eight equals seventeen
Evaluation/ Initiation	Dui. *Wèishénme?*	Correct. Why?
Reply	Student goes to board and takes a marker. He draws 9 dots in the first basket. S: *Jiǔ* dots. *yī, èr, sān, sì, wǔ, liù, qī, bā, jiǔ. Jiǔ ping guǒ* He touches each dot as he counts and some classmates count with him. He then draws 8 dots in the second basket. S: *Bā* dots for plus *8. yī, èr, sān, sì, wǔ, liù, qī, bā ping guǒ* He touches each dot as he counts and some classmates count with him. S: *That's shíqī.* He touches both baskets with his marker	Nine dots. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9. Nine apples Eight dots for plus 8. 1, 2,3, 4, 5, 6,7, 8 apples. That's 17.
Evaluation	T: *yī, èr, sān, sì, wǔ, liù, qī, bā, jiǔ, shí, Shíyī, shí'èr, shísān, shísì, shíwǔ, shíliù, shíqī* *T: Hěn hǎo.*	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10,11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17 Very good

In the video-recorded data of language arts classroom time, examples of high level of thinking were not found. However, data showed that students were indeed given

opportunities to explain (Comprehension-Blooms) and that these examples were more prominent within the teachers' reflective blogs, a place where teachers had the opportunity to reflect on the disconnection between their cultural beliefs and the values the American students brought to their educational experiences. The following blog excerpt from Fan provides a typical example of one of these occurrences.

> Kong Rong Giving up Big Pears" is one of Chinese classical stories... Kong Rong was offered pears I stopped for a couple of minutes and asked children whether Kong Rong should take the big pear as people showed him, they answered with one accord "Yes!" I bet you are as shocked as I was, so I inquired about the reason (both for you and for me, hehe^_^). Children said: "Because parents want to make him happy, nice and strong." And some children's answer for Kong Rong's giving the biggest pear to his biggest brother is that it's his brother who climbed the ladder to pick pears. Although that's quite different from what Chinese people have derived from the story (I don't prefer to say that's the truth conclusion of the story) children all nodded after my explaining to them what meaning the story is bestowed with in China.

In Fan's blog entry, it is evident that students were given an opportunity to rationalize their responses to situations of differences in cultural expectations. This was done through the English language, and in this case students were not required to express their views in Chinese. One might question whether this was impromptu step out of Fan's typical teaching pattern in order to satisfy her curiosity as to why students were responding in a manner quite differently than what she had expected.

Summary of Culturally Embedded Pedagogy

Foreign teachers' abilities to interact competently within and between two distinct cultures was reflected in their teaching pedagogies. Throughout the study, teachers

maintained their positions being responsible of imparting knowledge to their students, controlled the access to knowledge and interactions.

Teacher Dominated Lessons

In their teaching practices, Chinese teachers' beliefs about the need to educate the class a whole were evident. This lended itself to a teacher-directed approach with instruction tailored to the class as a whole, whereby all students were expected to learn the same material, meet the same educational criteria, and perform at the same level. Likewise, the Chinese teachers controlled the discourse in ways that allowed them to impart and control the knowledge to which students had access. These two positions reflected the systems in which they were pupils and were educated to teach.

There was one example in which Fan released social control to her students. Fan expressed her confidence and belief in students' ability to conduct themselves in an appropriate manner within a structured game as to allow them to maintain social control over the activity. Though time of the activity was limited, it nevertheless demonstrated a shift in Fan's thinking towards social control of the learning environment.

Culturally Embedded Knowledge Expectations in Classroom Discourse

Teaching practices relied heavily upon memorization of cognitive knowledge. With knowledge being the lowest level of learning outcomes, all that was cognitively required was the recollection of appropriate information upon cue. When higher-level thinking skills were required, they were primarily found within the content area of mathematics, which in turn held limited examples of cultural acquisition.

Participant structures, including ways of arranging verbal interactions between teachers and students were regulated and controlled by teacher. Such interactions routinely followed I-R-E patterns with a teacher prompt, followed by student response and then an evaluation by the teacher.

The percentages of interaction structures remained consistent across both years, with emphasis on basic knowledge. Chinese teachers' knowledge and beliefs in the importance of content knowledge did not change significantly between years as indicative of the data percentages remaining consistent across years with the emphasis being on lower-level knowledge acquisition.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This study found that the trends and patterns demonstrated by the teachers indicated novice teacher behaviors with a strong cultural component. As beginning teachers, they encountered many of the struggles and teaching trends typical of beginning teachers, yet the uniqueness of their situation was influential. As the teachers were learning to teach in an unfamiliar school environment, they were embedding aspects of their home culture into their practices.

Culture is rooted in every aspect of life: in home life, in employment, and in schools. It is not isolated within a particular environment; rather it transcends a variety of environments. Schools are environments for promoting intellectual growth, but their systems also lend themselves to the promotion of cultural capital through methodical flow of cultural values to and between the members of the school culture. In these members, culture is implicitly acquired and understood and is embedded within all classroom activities. Children use their culture, their acquired beliefs, and their values and attitudes to make clear and explain their world (Stevenson & Stigler, 1992), or in this case, their educational experiences. When students and teachers share common cultural knowledge, it is collectively distributed so that all participants know what to expect, are familiar with interaction protocols and proper action, and react to encounters within the classroom.

The findings of this study indicated that the teachers embedded their cultural knowledge and expectations into teaching practices. In certain cases, these actions caused led to confusion because the students were functioning with different cultural knowledge than their teachers. This problematic clash of cultural morals and values occured within an environment that was new to the teachers, and led to miscommunication and misunderstandings between them and their students. In order to develop cultural competency in this new environment, the teachers needed to negotiate with the students to develop a common classroom culture.

This study examined the developing cultural competency from the perspective of the four novice Chinese teachers. The research was an effort to understand how Chinese teachers navigated teaching as novice educators while they attempted to adapt to the complex territory between their own culture and teaching practices as compared with the norms and values that characterize effective teaching in Michigan Chinese language classrooms. When these Chinese teachers entered American classrooms there was the need to build the competency for developing a reciprocal interdependence that could result in biculturalism. The teachers had to acclimate to the new culture and the expectations within that culture in order to move fluidly between the new culture and old culture. Thus, the ultimate goal, similarly described by Juffer (1993) was the adoption of new cultural cues and a propriety of both cultures.

In addressing the research questions, this study examined the lived experiences of these four Chinese teachers as they taught the Chinese language in a Michigan elementary school. The data were analyzed for relevant themes. Some of these themes were expected and anticipated, and others emerged as the study progressed. There were

two groups of research questions: the first focused on the influences of culture on teaching practices as the Chinese teachers acculturated to the new educational system, and the second focused on the knowledge and beliefs of the Chinese teachers, in particular reference to their teaching philosophies and practices. These research questions are discussed first, followed by a review of each participant, and the how the ideas and themes of this study played out in each personal context. The chapter concludes with the implications and recommendations for practice and for further research.

Research Question 1:
How Do Novice Chinese Teachers Acculturate and Develop Cultural Competency within The U.S. School Environment?

There were two research questions related to the Chinese teachers' cultural expectations and their adjustment to their new educational environment. These were:

a. How does culture manifest and influence the practices of the novice teachers?
b. As teachers acculturate to the new school environment, how do practices change over time?

A primary and overarching finding was related to culture shock. Culture shock must lead the discussion here, because the ability to cope with culture shock directly relates to the ability to develop a cultural competency that was needed by these teachers. Additionally, other prominent and recurring themes could be identified with this first group of research questions. These themes were closely related, and featured strongly throughout the data analysis. These were the Behavior Management themes of discipline

and classroom management. Other key themes emerged here, and again were often related to the teachers' efforts of embedding culture into their practices.

Overcoming Culture Shock to Develop Cultural Competency

Culture shock was first defined as an ailment with its own symptoms and cures (Weaver, 1993). It is precipitated by anxiety brought on by sudden immersion into a foreign culture that includes a loss of familiar cues and communication difficulties that result in subsequent personal identity crisis within the new culture. In the current study, three interconnected factors related to culture shock influenced the development of the teachers' cultural competency within the American school environment. First, the Chinese teachers were confronted by a new environment that functioned in a manner that was dissimilar to what they were accustomed to resulting in ineffective intercultural and/or interpersonal communications. This was compounded by the fact that as first year teachers, they were novices by definition. They therefore would be expected to encounter many challenges typical of any novice teacher. Second, as they were interacting in this unfamiliar environment, the teachers needed to modify their behavior to overcome the ineffectiveness in communication between themselves and their students, and to regain positive footing in the new environment. This resulted in the final factor of participation in a growth experience. Teachers had to grow and adapt to develop cultural competency in the new setting.

When individuals do not overcome culture shock, they are unable to cope and do not develop competency within the new environment. This current study mirrored the statistic of 25% of U.S. expatriate teachers that return to the U.S. earlier than expected

(Garson, 2005; Lubin 1992). In this study, one (25%) of the Chinese expatriate teachers in the United States returned to China prior to the completion of her teaching responsibility. The remaining three teachers developed sufficient cultural competency skills that allowed for their successful adaptation and achievement of relative success within U.S. schools. Fan, Yuan, and JingJing all had the ability to shape what are termed by Barrera and Corso, (2002) as respectful and responsive interactions between themselves and their students. These three teachers, whether consciously or subconsciously, had the capacity to interpret and analyze the situations they were placed in. As they identified aspects of their practices that were ineffective, both in terms of novice teacher actions and where the embedded cultural practice failed, they had to ability to adapt their interactions to make their teaching practices more effective. For example, during their first year, disciplinary rates were elevated, and disciplinary efforts were relatively ineffective. Adjusting their approach to implement a higher ratio of classroom management strategies as compared to disciplinary actions improved teachers' behavior management competency, particularly as students were more familiar with classroom management strategies and responded more appropriately to them. In this situation, the teachers gained a cultural equilibrium within the new environment that allowed them to become attuned to it. They were able to predict and react to the cues within the new environment. Taking this example a step further, implementing aspects of Chinese culture within their classroom management demonstrated the capacity to fluidly move between the new culture and old culture adopting the cultural cues and propriety of both cultures. These interactions represented the ability to effectively function between

the native culture and the new culture, as was also found by Ford and Whiting (2007) in their study of what students need when preparing for interacting in diverse societies.

On the other hand, Xiao was not able to overcome the ineffectiveness of both novice teacher behaviors and intercultural communication. Thus, she left her position to return to China. She could not adapt her behavior to regain what Juffer (1993) termed as positive reinforcement in the new environment. What happened with the Chinese teachers, and Xiao in particular, mirrors the finding of Erickson and Mohatt (1982): "The idea that implicit, informal culture shapes people's way of acting in everyday life does not seem to be generally taught to teachers" (P. 167). Xiao had no experience or knowledge of how her own Chinese culture interacted with students' American culture. Thus she was left perplexed and without the knowhow to modify and adapt her thoughts, actions and beliefs, so that she could develop competency within the school environment.

Cultural Competency within Behavior Management

The four participants were trained teachers specializing in Teaching Chinese as a Second language before they came to the U.S. All had a command of both the Chinese and English languages, as well as some cultural knowledge of their new country. Yet, this did not necessarily mean they had the set of teaching skills needed at this a particular site, including the local knowledge to be able to create mutual understanding when using communicative language (de Oyarzabal, 1982), or the cultural knowledge ands skills necessary to handle issues (Coats, 2005), especially with classroom discipline. As they entered their U.S. classrooms, they were novices in the new environment.

Characteristic of novice teachers, the teachers' disciplinary actions focused specifically on responding to inappropriate behavior that was happening in the classroom by one or many of the students. This was a challenging endeavor during the first year, but transitioning into their second year, teachers were able to reduce the need for disciplinary actions and transition to implement more classroom management techniques. This is a positive trend for novice teachers, yet of particular interest in this study was the embedding of culture into these practices.

These teachers initially embedded their cultural knowledge of discipline and respect being taught as part of the norms of the country and all cultural units within it. This position of respect for Chinese teachers within Chinese society has been well documented (Coats, 2005; Stevenson & Stigler, 1992; Stigler & Hiebert, 1999). Thus, one area of consistently differing expectations was seen when teachers' ideas of respect and disrespect toward the teacher were not seen in the same manner by students. Teachers expected students to respectfully and passively listen and follow directions; when students did not act in the expected manner, teachers were at a loss. "As those who have never taught within the context of an Eastern culture may find difficulty in dealing with the apparent lack of response in a classroom, and may interpret as dullness or lack of cooperation what is in fact a reticence based on a cultural form of respect." (Boyle, 2000, p. 148). Likewise, when teachers who are products of Eastern culture are accustomed to respect that is demonstrated through specific student responses, they may not know how to respond or react when they encounter students who demonstrate respect through different means, or function with different cultural expectations. As all four teachers struggled with behavior management, their ability to adapt and acquire competency

within the American school culture directly affected their ability to function and manage students.

When put in extreme terms, the teachers expected total control or blind obedience from the students, but encountered student rebellion. With the variety of behavior issues in the American classrooms, they were perplexed with how to deal with American students who did not share what Coats (2005) documented as a Chinese moral perspective that personal behaviors reflect upon Chinese cultural values. This finding is also similar to that of Stevenson and Stigler (1992), who posited that the Chinese family would "lose face" due to the family not meeting the responsibility to the child. The teachers thus relied on their Chinese cultural knowledge that students should maintain their own appropriate discipline. This translated into the classroom practice of "ignoring" students that they thought were not interested in learning, instead focusing their teaching those students who showed respect and interest in learning. However, the other students interpreted the ignoring of misbehavior instead as implicit permission for them to misbehave. Or,the ignoring was perceived by the student as evidence that the teacher did not care for him or her.

Teachers initially realized that though American education values problem solving and creativity on the part of students (Zhao, 2007). However, they did not immediately recognize that there were also boundaries. These boundaries structure the educational environment within expectations of how students behave through the implementation classroom management strategies, which are proactive measures designed to prevent behavior problems.

During the first year, the teachers' behavior management strategies were reactive and disciplinary in nature. They primarily used both macro level discipline aimed at disciplining the whole class, and direct micro level discipline that publically focused on a particular student's behavior. Both of these disciplinary strategies disrupted classroom instruction. In addition, the teachers ignored more misbehaviors than they addressed. As the teachers drew on cultural knowledge educating those students who were interested in learning, certain students' actions demonstrated different interpretations from what the teachers held. In order to be successful in this environment, the teachers needed to shed the associated cultural perceptions.

Indeed, this pattern of novice teacher behaviors changed the second year. Both macro (disciplining the class as a whole) and direct micro (disciplining individual students publically) behavior management strategies decreased in favor of (a) increased indirect micro behavior strategies, (b) disciplining individual students in a manner that is non-disruptive to instruction, and (c) the implementation of classroom management strategies. These changes were partly due to novice teachers gaining experience, and partly due the Chinese teachers adopting the behavior management practices of their American counterpart teachers, which were cultural practices that students were familiar with.

An important finding was that teachers did not shed all of their culturally embedded management practices. They managed to successfully merge or retain some of these along with the new strategies they learned. In their endeavors to shift towards proactive measures, the teachers embedded Chinese cultural values into their classroom management strategies while shedding them from their discipline measures. This

eliminated the cultural disconnect for disciplinary expectations, thus reducing discipline problems. In addition, culturally embedded classroom management allowed for teachers to teach and model expectations so students could operate within the Chinese cultural expectations. For example, as students needed to cue the start of class, Fan would stand stiffly at the front of the room, stern-faced with one hand raised. Initially, this was not effective, though as she explicitly taught her expectations, over time students started cuing into the expectation. Though in China, a class monitor may have employed this action with the teacher standing next to the monitor, it is very similar to the cultural behavior management actions that Stevenson and Stigler (1992) reported within their research of Asian education.

The adaptations of disciplinary actions and the embedding of cultural approaches within the classroom management techniques made behavior management less intrusive on instructional time. Students were explicitly taught the norms and expectations of Chinese classrooms through the classroom management techniques employed. As classroom management is proactive behavior management, it is explicitly taught through the routines and procedures. In this course of action, the teachers embedded Chinese cultural expectations in a manner that students could learn. Likewise, disciplinary measures are reactive, or not explicitly taught beforehand. Therefore, when necessary, teachers utilized the disciplinary techniques that students expected to see and hear. This situation improved after the first year as the teachers worked through their stages of culture shock, developed new teaching skills and acculturated to the American classroom. As defined by Wright (2005), reciprocal interdependence resulting in biculturalism is a

point in time whereby an individual is capable of moving fluidly between the new culture and old culture, while adopting the cultural cues and propriety of both cultures.

Bridging Language Differences Between Teachers and Students to Develop Competency

If students and teachers within the same classroom share a common school culture, cultural knowledge is jointly shared so that all participants know what to expect, are familiar with communication procedures, and properly act and/or react to encounters within the classroom. But, when these are not the same, then teachers and students must negotiate to develop a common set of expectations.

According to studies by Chang (1993), Davis (1984), and Jenkins (1997), when native English speakers interact with second language speakers they struggle with differences in language discourse, leading to miscommunication. This phenomenon was a primary source of conflict in the classrooms of this study where differing expectations between teachers and students existed. A prime example of this phenomenon was when the teachers abandoned using Chinese language and relied strictly on English for behavior management. Students were not able to pick up on the subtle clues to differentiate strictness in the tone of voice and the general tone within conversational Chinese. Here the teachers demonstrated what Wright (2005) termed as reciprocal interdependence, which can result in biculturalism. The teachers had to acculturate to the terms of language discourse, where they moved fluidly between languages for management purposes, using English for disciplinary measures and Chinese within classroom management techniques. Initially, the differences in language discourse and what students expected to hear and what was actually said were two distinctly different

things, which ultimately led to miscommunication and resulted in unmet expectations and even confusion. But, over time, teachers adapted their approach so that Chinese could be implemented in behavior management in a manner that bridged the differences and led to mutual understanding between the teachers and students.

Passive Behavior Management Styles

There was an aspect of passiveness in behavior management that can be attributed to novice teacher behavior with a cultural approach. When behavior problems arose in the Language and Culture classrooms, the problems were temporarily overlooked and deferred to the classroom teacher. This passive style led to a reliance on the classroom teacher for follow through on discipline. Whereas in the Immersion Program, teachers interacted with each of their two classes on a full time basis. They were the instructors of record and were viewed as the classroom teacher, and thus did not have the opportunity to defer any discipline to another teacher.When they ignored or practiced passivity in management, behavior problems arose. Both of these situations are characteristic of novice teacher behavior.

This passivity was problematic. When behavior problems were not addressed, students' either perceived it as permission to misbehave, or that the teacher did not care for them or was neglected them. These were typical misunderstandings that occurred between the teacher and the misbehaving students. Drawing on their experiences in the Chinese educational system, the teachers had been relying on students to self-monitor and maintain appropriate behavior. These findings were similar to Stevenson and Stigler's (1992) research on the learning gap between American education and Chinese and

Japanese education. What came across in this study as passivity towards behavior management was compounded by other problems, namely that these teachers experienced hardships that were typical for beginner teachers. The teachers also initially made ineffective attempts to embed their cultural values into their approach. Their efforts to make behavior management the direct responsibility of the students conflicted with students' expectations that teachers would impose the discipline, thus causing conflict.

Research Question 2:
What Are Novice Chinese Teachers' Knowledge and Beliefs?

There were three research questions related to the Chinese teachers' knowledge and beliefs, and these related particularly to their ideas about teaching and learning processes, and the cultural changes they experience from their teaching experiences in the United States.

a. How do Chinese teachers reflect on what they know and believe?
b. How do their knowledge and beliefs change over time?

Prominent and recurring themes were identified with this second group of research questions relating to the knowledge and belief of the teachers, and focused on embedded culture related to Pedagogy. Their pedagogy was steeped in the cultural morals and values the teachers brought with them from China. The cultural values and expectations of a society play an intricate role in what the system values within its students and what is expected from its teachers and students. Within Chinese culture is the value of the collective. Chinese culture holds that the smaller self (individual) should always submit to the larger self, whether the larger self is the family or country, and the

smaller self must adapt the expectations of the larger self. In this philosophy was the belief of educating the whole (Coats, 2005). Teachers' practices focused on the academic needs of the class as a whole, those students interested in learning, rather than on the individual needs of students within the class. The primary amount of instructional time thus involved the class as a whole, all working towards the same educational outcomes.

Teacher as Central Figure of Knowledge

Teachers identified their practice as imparting knowledge to their students. They controlled the information and knowledge that students had access to and were responsible for giving this knowledge to their students.

The actions and beliefs of the Chinese teachers within this study were very similar to the vast majority of Chinese teacher in Mainland China. In a study by Schoenhals (1994), a Chinese teacher, while educating Chinese students in China, attempted to have students actively participate and debate within the classroom. This was a very rogue idea. She was openly criticized by her fellow teachers for not giving her students enough knowledge and therefore, was thought to inadequately prepare her students for examination. Though not preparing students for examinations, the teachers in this study took their responsibility of imparting knowledge seriously so that students could meet educational expectations. Similarly the fellow teachers Shoenhals' in this study, the teachers in this study took seriously their responsibility of imparting knowledge, where they presented knowledge in an evaluative manner without debate.

A Whole Class Approach

In their practices, Chinese teachers focused on educating the class as a whole. Whole class instruction is also a common practice within many classrooms within the U.S. The tendencies and motivations behind the practice were what were different within this teaching situation. As teachers were teaching, they were drawing upon their values of the collectivist society that they were products of, and it was manifested in the way the teachers identified the students as a collective group rather than as individual students. Therefore, they consistently took a teacher-directed approach to instruction, tailoring it to the needs of the class as a whole. All students were expected to learn the same material, meet the same educational criteria, and perform at the same level. Such methods of learning relied heavily upon reiteration of cognitive knowledge. With knowledge being the lowest level of learning outcomes, all that was cognitively needed was the recollection of appropriate information upon cue. Cheng (1998), in her discussion of the Asian moral dimension of education, described this phenomenon as the memorization and the ability to recite cognitive knowledge in which the exercise is understood as a training mode to develop discipline and work ethic. Building upon Cheng's (1998) views, as the teachers in this study were teaching, they were subconsciously embedding the cultural values of the collective while developing social and moral ethics.

Embedding Authority into the Philosophy of Teaching

The manifestation of control (guan) over the classroom discourse by the teachers was demonstrated by the authority held by the teacher. The Chinese teachers controlling the discourse allowed them to impart and control the knowledge which students had

access to. According to Schoenhals (1994), the power and value of the teacher lies in her ability to persuade others to listen and through the domination of the discourse, an action which prevailed in this study. In their positioning of themselves at the front of the classroom, they put themselves in a position of authority that allowed for the attention to be focused on them as they imparted their knowledge. Teachers controlled the classroom discourse in the amount of time that they spent lecturing or authoritative talk. This phenomena were also described by Xia, (2000) in a study of Chinese graduate students' speaking discourse in U.S. classrooms. Similar to Xia's finding, teachers in this study demonstrated their authority through the words and phrases chosen and expressed. This was representative of what Schoenhals (1994) described as the "stuff-the-duck method" (tian ya shi), where the role of students emphasizes passiveness and being a receiver of the teacher's knowledge (Shoenhals, 1994). This notion that is quite similar to the western educational philosophy where students are seen as "empty vessels" in that they learn what is presented in order for them to perform well. This idea in certain viewpoints has a negative connotation with emphasis on more favor to educational philosophies such as child-centered and socio-cultural theories (Willmott, 2002). Yet, the teachers in the study placed high value on authority and the imparting of knowledge.

Culturally Embedded Teacher Dominated Instruction

This study mirrored work by Stevenson and Stigler (1992) in which instruction was found to be dominated by the teacher, with whole class group work the primary mode of instruction. This primarily manifested itself through the degree in which the

teachers exercised stringent control over the content of the material being learned. It was also seen in teachers' control of interactions within the classroom.

According to Stevenson and Stigler (1992) in Chinese classrooms, instructional time is primarily dominated by the teacher's instruction. The same was true in the current study as the teachers consistently dominated their classrooms. This time was not dominated by lectures, rather it was spent providing problems, proposing questions and eliciting answers from students. Even so, this is quite different from what is typically seen in the U.S., where classroom educational time is may be divided between whole class, small group, and independent work.

From the teachers' point of view, it was their responsibility to impart knowledge, and to choreograph and direct lessons so that students had the opportunity to learn. Within this framework, the extent of the learning was up to the students, and ultimate responsibility for learning was placed on the students. Working within this teaching philosophy in itself is challenging for any teacher, and while this perspective was not totally unfamiliar to U.S. students, the degree of differences was sufficiently different to cause discord in the classroom. Thus discrepancies in expectations resulted.

At the same time the interaction protocols of the classroom were routine and predictable. Instructional time involved providing problems, proposing questions, and eliciting answers from students. This was seen in a routine verbal protocol of an I-R-E pattern with a teacher prompt, followed by student response and being followed up with an evaluation by the teacher (Mehan, 1978). Such patterns of interaction made it easy for students to realize expectations.

The control of the interaction structures also made it easy for teachers to exercise social control, making it clear as to whose time it was. Teachers made clear their expectations that students raise their hands and participate in classroom discourse that matched the I-R-E patterns. In the one instance of relinquishing social control, it was done is such a manner where the teacher purposefully selected a student leader and designed an engaging activity that motivated participation to control for behavior management. Even within the activity, participation structures were also I-R-E in nature emphasizing the teacher's value.

Ideas of Effort and Achievement

In the Chinese education system, success and failure are viewed in terms of how much effort was applied (Cheng, 1998) regardless of one's cognitive ability or performance level (Stevenson & Stigler, 1992). Likewise, in Chinese schools, students possess strong content knowledge and this knowledge is reflected in the attainment of high standardized test scores. There is a corresponding emphasis that Chinese families place on achieving high marks (Zhao, 2007). Reflective of these perspectives, the teachers relied on their knowledge of school systems and based instruction to the specific needs of the class as a whole, where all students were expected to perform at the same instructional level with high academic expectations. There were definite ideas as to what was considered effort and achievement. Effort was valued in terms of the ability of students to listen, behave appropriately, and participate within the learning situation.

Rote learning involves repetitive practice within academic content areas. As described by Cheng (1998), it is characteristic of Chinese education that the value and

emphasis on rote and mechanical memorization is prominent. The findings of this study concurred with other research: rote learning was prevalent in both the Immersion Program and in the Language and Culture Program classrooms. During instructional lessons teachers allocated turns by inviting students to participate, either by whole class recitations or by calling on attentive students.

Similar to findings in other research (Cheng, 1998; Zhao, 2007), achievement was measured in terms of the students' ability to recall knowledge. Classroom discourse was dominated and controlled by the Chinese teachers with teaching practices including activity structures that were characteristic of question and answer sessions. Lessons were organized as sequence where the teacher initiated an episode by asking a question about a fact or idea that she wanted to convey; students replied with their responses (either correct or incorrect), followed by the teachers' evaluation the responses, sequence that is known as Initiate-Reply-Evaluate (I-R-E) structures (Mehan, 1978). Most the I-R-E structures operated with low intellectual expectations that may be attributed to the teachers' value place on the recalling basic knowledge, though primarily in the area of mathematics and higher-level comprehension was valued.

Attempts to Adopt Western Teaching Practices

Xiao and JingJing each made a single attempt to adopt learning centers into their teaching practices. In theory, learning centers are designed to individualize instruction to meet the varying needs of individual students (Thompkins, 2006). Centers reflect on a child-centered approach in which educational standards are incorporated into the students' interests and learning styles with the goal of empowering students (Thompkins,

2006). Xiao and JingJing developed awareness of the differences between their teaching practices and their western counterparts, they attempted replicate the practice of centers. Not truly understanding the educational philosophy behind the practice led to the misconception and perception that center time was "play" time. Thus, the immersion teachers' attempts to adapt center-based learning failed. Despite their attempt, the immersion teachers were unable to address the bias in their perspective, which created the incorrect idea that the center time was "play" time.

This study reflects Elturk's (2003) position that different individuals have different stories and interpretations that are authentic to each individual involved. In this case of this study, the teachers involved viewed the purposes of centers differently. The American colleagues viewed them as educational activities and the Chinese teachers viewed them as play time. Their preconceived notions interfered with building an awareness that could have lead to flexibility their approaches and thinking. This in turn reinforced the fact that what is right for one culture is not necessarily correct for others (Elturk, 2003). The question that arises, and cannot be answered here, can a practice that is not prominent and/or present in one educational environment, if the philosophy is truly understood, be implemented in a manner that embeds the cultural expectations of different educational environment?

Limitations

There were several limitations to this study. First, this study was confined to studying native Chinese teachers new to teaching Mandarin Chinese in the United States. Focusing on teachers from one country was purposeful in that individuals brought their

own cultural understandings with them when they taught abroad. While there was individual variation among the teachers, it was expected that teachers from China bought different cultural values, understandings and working knowledge of schools than a teacher, for example, from India. Therefore, different cultural backgrounds of teachers from many different countries would have complicated the study, but it also limits the findings to this population. Second, examining short-term acculturation in a three-semester time period allowed for investigation of acculturation issues such as initial culture shock and the induction process when teachers were most aware of their conflict and resolution efforts. With the possibilities of acculturation happening at different rates for different individuals, this study could not encompass the whole acculturation process for all teachers. However, it spoke to the general problem of cultural adjustment when teachers first crossed national, societal and linguistic borders in order to teach their native language as second language to students whose backgrounds are foreign to them.

Further Research

Employing foreign teachers to teach in the United States, though not new, is a rather understudied field. First, this study examined only a small group of Chinese teachers teaching in the United States. Similar qualitative studies could be carried out, not only with teachers from China, but also with teachers originating from a variety of countries. Such studies could extend to surveying foreign teachers from a variety of countries to identify patterns of adjusting to teaching in the United States, acculturation, behavior management, and pedagogies. With baseline results representing teachers from

one country, further studies can examine the similarities and differences that may be found with teachers from different countries.

Second, the teachers within this study were first year teachers and encountered many of the difficulties and challenges associated with being a novice teacher. This raises the question as to whether or not bringing teachers who have had experience teaching in China will encounter the same issues as these novice teachers.

Finally, this study only looked at influence of embedding culture within teaching practices and how teachers developed competency in the areas related to behavior management and teaching pedagogy. There are several different avenues that may also be researched and such as relationship dynamics between foreign teachers and colleagues or parents, influences of cultural as foreign teachers teach at different educational levels such as middle and high school, or even a case study of the program as a whole (students, parents, administrators and other teachers) rather than just a small aspect of it such as the foreign teachers.

Recommendations for Practice

Although foreign teachers may have the education and teaching experience to be successful as teachers in their native country, they once again become novices as they begin teaching in foreign classrooms. To better prepare Chinese teachers for teaching in the United States, it is recommended that the following actions be taken. First, teachers should arrive within the country early enough to allow for sufficient time to adapt to living in the new country and attend to aspects of culture shock before entering the teaching environment. Culture shock will be inevitable, but allowing for time to

acclimate to living differences before entering the educational environment may help reduce or lesson the effects of having to adjust simultaneously to culture shock associated with both living and teaching in the foreign country. As teachers enter the new community, actions such as (a) providing community mentors, (b) assisting in helping teachers network and develop community relationships, (c) invitations to holiday and/or social events, and (d) individuals to contact when ill to name a few, all have the potential to reduce pressure and allow for adjustment to the new environment.

Second, it is imperative that teachers receive intensive professional development to support teachers as beginning practitioners and building awareness of how their own culture and views on education influences their classroom. Preservice education is necessary to prepare teachers for working in American classroom. To begin with, teachers need to understand the basic educational structures of American schools and how they function. This includes topics focusing on the roles of various teachers/administrators, basic procedures (e.g. drills, report cards, parent communication), race/ethnicities in America, child development, behavior management, professionalism and lesson planning.

To take this course of action a step further, it is recommended that teachers have the opportunity to enroll in teacher education programs that not only recognizes their academic teaching degrees from China, but provide additional collaborative structures to support Chinese teachers. Course(s), which provide an internship like structures (e.g. field instructor) add supplementary monitoring elements for further support while acclimating and honing teaching skills. Similarly, methodology courses potentially add

perspective to American teaching practices such as center-based teaching to allow for understanding the theory behind teaching practices.

Finally, as school sites prepare for foreign teachers, educating the U.S. teachers and students to the factors and issues that these teachers will encounter may help create a network to help teachers as they adjust to the new environment. Building an awareness of the culturally embedded teaching practices that are influential will assist sites with understanding the actions and practices that the Chinese teachers. Likewise, teachers should have a designated mentor. These individuals must not only be experienced teachers, but also open to different ideas and practices and aware of potential cultural differences that may impact teaching practices. Allowing Chinese teachers to observe their mentors and/or other American teachers and likewise, being observed by the mentor teacher may develop a coaching situation that may assist in easing the issues associated with acclimation. Providing knowledge and insights in conjunction with scaffolding support structures into the transitions Chinese teachers will go through as they develop competency within the school environment will allow administrators to tailor special support services for their foreign teacher.

APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. How were your expectations of teaching in the U.S. were similar and different than what you experienced?
2. What was the best and worst experience of your first year of teaching in the US?
3. Tell me about your perceptions of students in the US. How are they the same and different to students in China? How did your experience with Chinese education influence how you interacted with American students?
4. Tell me about your perceptions of American parents and how have they changed over the school year?
5. What were the challenges you encountered teaching in your placement? Living in the U.S.?
6. What were the successes you encountered teaching in your placement?
7. Do you consider yourself a teacher? Why/Why not?
8. Tell me about what Chinese teaching is. What is good Chinese teaching?
9. Tell me about what American teaching is.
10. How are these two school settings the same? Different?
11. In comparing the two, what aspects of both teaching practices do you consider as good teaching practices? Poor practices?
12. What have you learned over the last year? How has that shaped who you have become?
13. How have you changed as a teacher?
14. Tell me about the differences between American classrooms and yours. How did it make you feel?

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