Family Resilience and Sojourning Japanese Families in the U.S.

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FAMILY RESILIENCE AND SOJOURNING JAPANESE FAMILIES IN THE U.S.

by

Mitsuyo Izumi

A dissertation submitted to the Graduate College in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Educational Leadership, Research and Technology Western Michigan University May 2015

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FAMILY RESILIENCE AND SOJOURNING JAPANESE FAMILIES IN THE U.S.

Mitsuyo Izumi, Ph.D.

Western Michigan University, 2015

This study examined processes of family resilience sojourning Japanese parents reported using while raising children (between the ages of 4 and 8) in the U.S., the relationship between family resilience and child behavior and impact of stressful life events, and predictors of the impact of stressful life events and child behavior. Seventy mothers and 37 fathers from six Japanese educational institutions completed self-report questionnaires. Measures included Japanese translations of the Family Resilience Assessment (Duncan Lane, 2011), Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (Goodman, 1997), the Impact of Stressful Life Events Scale (Hasui et al., 2009), the Kansas Marital Satisfaction (Schumm et al., 1986), demographic items, and items developed for this study (stress raising children, time with children, English proficiency, and importance of being a parent to identity). The most frequently reported processes were positive outlook, transcendence, and make meaning. The least frequently reported were flexibility, social and economic resources, and open emotional expression. Parents reporting greater use of processes of family resilience reported lower impact of stressful life events, and lower levels of child behavior problems, particularly lower levels of externalizing behaviors. Mothers reporting greater use of processes of family resilience reported lower impact of stressful life events and lower levels of child externalizing problems; fathers reporting
greater use of processes of family resilience reported lower levels of child externalizing problems and greater child pro-social behavior. The relationships disappeared when controlled for marital satisfaction and stress-related variables, except for the relationship between fathers’ reported use of processes of family resilience and child pro-social behavior. Hierarchical regression analyses indicated that stress-related variables predicted child behavior problems; marital satisfaction and stress raising children predicted impact of stressful life events; and stress raising children predicted impact of stressful life events for mothers. Five processes of family resilience were associated with child behavior problems for the parents: positive outlook, flexibility, open emotional expression, problem-solving, and connectedness. Fathers’ open emotional expression and flexibility, and mothers’ problem-solving were associated with child behavior problems. Results highlight the importance of marital satisfaction and parental stress-related factors to children’s behavioral adjustment. Implications for parents, schools, teachers, and employers are included.
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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Background

For many individuals or families, immigration to another country is actually a temporary immigration as they plan to return to their country of origin within a specified period of time after achieving a particular purpose such as completing a job assignment or obtaining a degree. Individuals who make such temporary and purpose-specific moves are referred to sojourners (Bochner, 2003) or expatriates (Haslberger & Brewster, 2008).

The number of people moving to other countries for work assignments has been increasing for decades, except for a brief decline in growth rates in 2009 and 2010 (Brookfield Global Relocation Services [BGRS], 2013). Often, family members move with these sojourners or expatriates. In 2013, human resource professionals and managers of 136 international mobility programs reported that 43% of internationally-assigned employees were accompanied by their children. Of the 65% of internationally-assigned employees who were married or partnered, 79% were accompanied by their spouse or partner (BGRS, 2013).

Japan is one of the world’s largest economies, and Japanese companies regularly send employees to work at international locations. In 2013, 412,639 Japanese people lived in the U.S. The number is approximately 20% larger than a decade ago, and is a greater number of Japanese expatriates than in any other country (Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Japan, 2014). Approximately 55% of Japanese living overseas are doing so because of employment by Japanese companies while others are government officers,
media free-lancers, self-employed, researchers, students, and teachers (Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Japan, 2014; Ozeki, 2008). Most of these sojourning families consist of newlywed couples and parents with young children. The majority of these temporary Japanese immigrant families belong to an upper-middle class socioeconomic group, and the fathers in these families have stable jobs and status (Abe, 2006; Winterbottom, 2011).

**Problem Statement**

In a review of the expatriate literature, Haslberger and Brewster (2008), who applied family stress theory to expatriate family adjustment and adaptation, concluded that the literature on expatriate families is “scant” (p. 325). They noted that most research concerning expatriates has focused on the sojourning or expatriate employee. When considered, family demands and spouse adjustment have been studied as factors influencing the expatriate employee. For example, Haslberger and Brewster (2008) noted that Fukuda and Chu’s (1994) study of expatriate Japanese in Hong Kong and Taiwan showed “family-related problems are the most important factor in Japanese expatriates' failure in international assignment” (p. 43). Only in the past 20 years have researchers begun to study the experiences of expatriate spouses and children from various countries for their own sake (Haslberger & Brewster, 2008).

As noted, the literature on expatriate or sojourning Japanese families has been focused on the employee. More recently, however, researchers have begun to study the experiences of members of sojourning Japanese families (e.g., Ishizaki & Ishizaki, 2001; Kurotani, 2005; Tanaka, Obana, & Sugimura, 1999; Winterbottom, 2013), including the employee’s experience of fathering while sojourning (Abe, 2006). These studies have
been conducted in China, Malaysia, the United Kingdom, and the United States. The following paragraphs provide a summary of this research.

**Studies Addressing Sojourning Japanese Families**

In Japan, the decision to work in a foreign country has typically been made by the male employee (Pranvera, 2012). A comparison study of German, Japanese, United Kingdom, and the U.S. multinational companies’ expatriate selection practices showed that when considering candidates for international assignments, companies considered employees’ willingness to work abroad, but only Japanese companies did not report it as one of the top five selection criteria. Companies were similar in not evaluating partners’ suitability to live abroad. However, when compared to companies in the other countries, Japanese companies were less likely to use the family’s willingness to go abroad as a selection criterion (Tungli & Peiperlungli, 2009).

Japanese companies offer substantial pre-departure training, primarily language training but also some cross-cultural training, for expatriate employees but less so for expatriate family members (Pranvera, 2012; Tungli & Peiperlungli, 2009). However, a search of the Internet shows multiple businesses that offer: (1) trainings and services to other companies, and (2) predeparture training services directly to Japanese expatriates and spouses. A few businesses also offer consultation to expatriates and family members during their sojourn and upon return to Japan. While no studies have been located that compared the outcome of training versus no training, it seems reasonable to suggest that a lack of preparation may make the international transition to a new culture and language more challenging than necessary for Japanese wives and children.
Studies show that sojourning outside of Japan is a challenge for families, particularly in the first six months (Nakagawa, Teti, & Lamb, 1992). Sojourning parents, particular mothers, report facing a number of stressful challenges related to parenting in another country and culture. Japanese mothers have reported challenges related to childbirth, interacting with medical professionals, isolation due to cultural and language difficulties, child rearing and education, and missing support and guidance from extended family in Japan (Ishizaki & Izhizaki, 2001; Ozeki, 2008; Ozeki & Knowles, 2009; Ozeki & Mizuguchi, 2007).

Challenges specifically facing sojourning Japanese parents with children under the age of 6 include seeking medical care, child care, and educational services for their children, and parenting children without daily practical support and guidance from extended family (Ishizaki & Ishizaki, 2001; Ozeki & Mizuguchi, 2007).

Two studies conducted in the U.S. have reported psychological distress and minor psychiatric and health problems for a sub-group of sojourning Japanese wives; these problems have been associated by researchers to the stress resulting from living abroad (Ishizaki & Ishizaki, 2001; Ozeki & Mizuguchi, 2007). In one study, one-fourth of sojourning mothers in the sample exceeded threshold scores for “minor psychiatric illnesses” (Ishizaki & Ishizaki, 2001, pp. 33-34). In another study, a third of sojourning mothers surveyed reported high-risk scores on the General Health Questionnaire (GHQ) and 52% of the sample had abnormal GHQ scores, although these rates did not differ from a comparison sample mothers in Japan (Ozeki & Mizuguchi, 2007). In this study, sojourning mothers in the U.S. with high-risk GHQ scores differed from sojourning mothers with normal GHQ scores with reports of feeling more stressed with “child
rearing,” “child’s friends,” “child’s education,” “relationship with local Japanese,” “own health,” “nobody to consult,” and “no time to relax” (Ozeki & Mizuguchi, 2007, p. 512).

Sojourning in the U.S. has implications for adult roles within the home. Qualitative studies of Japanese wives have noted that when wives were unable to seek employment as a foreign accompanying spouse, they considered the sojourn in the U.S. as a time to care for their families. The women decided their first priorities would be to follow a Japanese way of mothering and homemaking. For example, they wanted to follow a Japanese diet and support their children’s academic success to prepare them to return to school in Japan. The wives relied on their own local community of other Japanese wives to find the resources to allow them to mother and carry out homemaking in a Japanese way (Kurotani, 2005; Toyokawa, 2006). However, wives also reported ambivalence as they fulfilled the responsibilities of domestic management and family caretaking (Kurotani, 2005).

Sojourning mothers have reported difficulties interacting in the local community because of limited language proficiency in the country where they live. As a consequence, they can feel socially and emotionally isolated from the surrounding community (Ishizaki & Ishizaki, 2001; Kurotani, 2005; Ozeki & Mizuguchi, 2007). Japanese mothers abroad can feel lonely because their husbands work long hours and they miss support from family in Japan (Ozeki, 2008). Given their work hours and perspective on fatherhood, fathers do not take care of children as much as they, the mothers, do (Abe, 2006).

Research on children in sojourning Japanese families and their adjustment is also limited. Almost all of the data about children come from mothers’ reports. In one study of
61 mother-child pairs in the U.S., Japanese mothers reported symptoms of depression in 10% of the children and anxiety in 30%. In this study, mothers’ minor psychiatric illnesses were associated with their children’s depression and anxiety (Ishizaki & Ishizaki, 2001). In a comparison study of behaviors of Japanese children in Japan with those living in Malaysia, parents of children sojourning in Malaysia reported more psychiatric symptoms and lack of attention and over-activity than parents of children in Japan (Tanaka, Obana, & Sugimura, 1999). Another comparison study was conducted in Shanghai, China and in two Japanese cities, Wakayama and Osaka (Onishi, Okawa, Utsumi, Yamada, & Morioka, 2013). This study examined prosocial behaviors of 5- and 6-year-old kindergartners, as reported by parents using Parent Strength and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ). Ninety-five percent of the participants were mothers. No significant difference in prosocial behaviors between Japanese kindergarteners in China and Japan were noted, and only in the Shanghai group did parenting attitude affect their children’s prosocial behaviors (Onishi et al., 2013). Finally, in a clinical report, Kameyama (1994) described counseling cases with three Japanese children between 2 and 5 years old who sojourned in the U.S. According to the author, these children displayed some problems interacting with other children and adults.

While a few studies have focused on the relationship between mothers and children in sojourning Japanese families, the research on sojourning Japanese fathers is even more limited. Only one study has been located that addressed parenting issues of Japanese sojourning fathers in the U.S. (Abe, 2006). Abe noted that cross-national comparisons show expectations of fathers differ from country to country; differences of paternal involvement can be seen by “race/ethnicity, social class, living arrangement
(e.g., single parents vs. dual parent households) and life course phase (e.g., parenting infants vs. parenting adolescents)” (p. 1). With this understanding, Abe examined how sojourning Japanese fathers in the U.S. negotiated Japanese and American cultural expectations regarding fatherhood. Abe conducted in-depth interviews with 24 Japanese fathers. Results suggested that sojourning Japanese fathers in the U.S. did what Abe termed “situational adjustment” in which a majority of the fathers reported greater “paternal engagement, accessibility, and responsibility” while in the U.S. than they usually did in Japan. However, this increased involvement for most of the fathers was due to the situation of temporarily living in the U.S. and not due to a change in perspective about father involvement. Most of the fathers believed that their primary duty was to work hard and support their wife who was considered to be the primary caregiver (Abe, 2006).

As noted above, a majority of Japanese who are living overseas have families, and many of these families have young children. It is important to note that in the Japanese educational system, children are 5 years old when they enter a senior kindergarten (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science & Technology in Japan, 2011). Kindergarten is an important stepping-stone for Japanese children. In kindergarten children experience group activities that can highlight developmental and social problems that may not have been apparent at home (Shimoizumi, 2011). Parents of kindergartners are concerned with their children being well prepared socially and academically to enter first grade. Parents wonder what they should be doing at home to prepare their children so that they will be conduct themselves well in terms of following teachers’ instructions (Koshiyama, 2008).
In summary, studies on sojourning Japanese families have been limited in number and focus (Abe, 2006). As is common to people living outside of their home countries, sojourning Japanese mothers face stressful challenges raising children abroad, and for some, sojourning may be experienced as a challenge or even an adversity, resulting in the disruption of family functioning (Walsh, 2006). A few qualitative studies have reported mothers’ experiences of sojourning in the U.S., and one has focused on fathers’ perspectives on fathering (Abe, 2006). Meanwhile, studies of children and mothers have noted the link between the well-being of mothers and children. No studies were located that considered sojourning Japanese families’ engagement in processes that foster family “resilience by buffering stress and facilitating adaptation” (Walsh, 2006, p. 26).

Prior research has focused on what mothers have found stressful while sojourning, and the influence of their mental health on children. Even though evidence suggests that a majority of sojourning mothers may not report a negative impact on physical or psychological health, the possibility that one-quarter or more of mothers may experience psychological distress and mental health problems (Ishizaki & Ishizaki, 2001; Ozeki & Mizuguchi, 2007) warrants the examination of what processes can buffer the stress and promote adaptation in families (Walsh, 2006). Although highly likely that sojourning Japanese families demonstrate many strengths as they face the stressful challenges of living abroad with young children, no studies have been located that overtly examine Japanese families’ engagement in processes that enhance resilience while sojourning specifically in the U.S. Also, despite previous studies that noted the association between husbands’ support and involvement in child rearing and sojourning Japanese mothers’ mental health (Ozeki & Knowles, 2009; Ozeki & Mizuguchi, 2007), little attention has
focused to sojourning Japanese fathers as family members (Abe, 2006). Therefore, further research is needed to highlight the strengths of sojourning Japanese families as perceived by not only Japanese mothers but also Japanese fathers, the behavioral adjustment of their young children, and their perception of stressful life events.

**Significance**

The number of Japanese expatriate in the U.S. has been increasing since 2000. In 2013 the number of Japanese expatriates was 412,639 the largest number in any country. The number of expatriate Japanese children age 6 to 15 in the North America was 25,540, the second only to Asia with 27,586 (Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Japan, 2014).

Support systems for the families who are seeking help for child rearing in the U.S. are limited (Ishizali & Ishizaki, 2001; Ozeki & Mizuguchi, 2007). Clarifying what factors contribute to family resilience can be useful to sojourning Japanese parents, the Japanese government, employers, foundations, the local community government, mental health professionals, and Japanese and American school teachers in order to offer appropriate and sufficient support to sojourning Japanese families raising their young children in the U.S. Likewise, this knowledge could assist Japanese parents of young children preparing to live abroad or already sojourning by directing their attention to ways to enhance their family responses to sojourning, thereby promoting resilience for all family members (Walsh, 2006).

**Theoretical Foundation**

Experiencing the demands of living in another country, even temporarily, requires a level of adjustment or adaptation by individuals and families (Foss, 1996; Haslberger &
Brewster, 2008). Most recently, family scholars are studying families from a strengths and wellness perspective rather than from a deficit perspective that considers family members as damaged (Walsh, 2002).

Research in the past three decades has shown the importance of resilience to families’ functioning. Resilience has been defined as “the ability to withstand and rebound from adversity” (Walsh, 2002, p. 1). Families can become immobilized when experiencing adversity, trauma, or disasters; however, it is possible for families to emerge strengthened and more resourceful (Walsh, 2002).

This study relies on the family resilience framework developed by Walsh (1996, 1998, 2002, 2006). This framework draws attention to the strengths families can exhibit while experiencing family disruption and can develop through adversity (Walsh, 2006), and offers a conceptual map of key family processes associated with positive family functioning. According to Walsh (2006),

A family resilience approach aims to identify and fortify key interactional processes that enable families to withstand and rebound from disruptive life challenges. A resilience lens shifts perspective from viewing distressed families as damaged to seeing them as challenged, affirming their potential for repair and growth. . . . Instead of focusing on how families have failed, we redirect our attention to how they can succeed . . . building on key processes to encourage both individual and family growth. (pp. 3–4)

Walsh (2002) noted three domains of family functioning in the family resilience framework and three processes within each domain for a total of nine key processes: family belief systems (making meaning of adversity, positive outlook, transcendence and spirituality), organization patterns (flexibility, connectedness, social and economic resources), and communication processes (clarity, open emotional expression, collaborative problem solving).
Walsh’s (2006) family resilience framework is grounded in systemic, ecological, and developmental perspectives. A systems perspective directs attention to the interrelatedness of family members, and the influence of family functioning on individual members and members’ influence on family functioning. Ongoing stresses can harm individuals and family relationships. An ecological perspective highlights the need to see individual and family resilience within a larger social context of institutions (e.g., school, government, laws) and sociocultural influences. A developmental perspective allows for the growth of resilience throughout the life cycle (Walsh, 2006).

Walsh (2006) calls for research to explore how well-functioning families succeed particularly when experiencing stressful challenges and adversity. She rejects the notion of “the resilient family” (p. 24), and instead emphasizes resilience as processes that families can engage in to promote healthy functioning and to survive, repair, and grow from stressful challenges or adversities (p. 45).

It is assumed that sojourning Japanese families will vary in their experience of living in the U.S. while raising young children. Some may be propelled in a state of crisis while others not. In family stress theory, demands refer to stressors (e.g., living abroad), strains (i.e., unresolved tension related to a stressor or not coping with demands), and daily hassles of living (e.g., child care, traffic, meal preparation) (Haslberger & Brewster, 2008). Collectively these demands can overwhelm a family living within a different culture and language. Families can adjust to a stressor by making short-term changes or adapt to a stressor by making changes in the family system that occur over a longer time period (Price, Price, & McKenry, 2010). The processes of adjustment and adaptation have been likened to the process of acculturation, which can range from integrating
aspects of the original culture and new culture “while preserving the individual’s cultural identity overall” to experiencing “a profound change in cultural identity” (Haslberger & Brewster, 2008, p. 326).

It is assumed that for Japanese and other families sojourning provides an opportunity to demonstrate key processes of family functioning that are associated with resilience. This study is built on the idea that family functioning, conceptualized as key processes of family resilience (Walsh, 2006), will influence parents’ assessment of the impact of stressful life events and their assessment of children’s behavioral adjustment.

As noted above, Japanese sojourning parents who are raising young children face stressful challenges. Studies on sojourning Japanese families have been conducted in China, Malaysia, the United Kingdom, and the U.S. Most of the studies have focused on the stressors of living in different country and the adjustment of mothers and children who accompany the male employee who is typically working for a Japanese company.

**Purpose Statement**

The purpose of this study was to highlight the importance of family functioning to the lives of sojourning Japanese parents and their children (Walsh, 2006, p. 6). To address family functioning, sojourning Japanese parents’ use of key processes of family resilience (Walsh, 2003) was examined in relationship to parental perception of children’s behavioral adjustment and the impact of stressful life events. By looking at the relationship between parents’ self-report of their family’s use of key processes of resilience, their children’s behavioral adjustment, and their perception of the impact stressful life events, this study seeks to clarify if specific family processes contribute to children’s and parental adjustment while living in the U.S. so in the future families who
move to the U.S. temporarily can apply the processes to their sojourning experience. Walsh’s (2003) family resilience model focuses on key processes used by families to overcome serious challenges or situations often associated with stressors such as living in a different culture. By using a family resilience framework, this proposed study considers family strengths rather than deficits. In addition, its design includes fathers’ perspectives as well as mothers’ (Buchanan, 2008). Results of this study can assist future Japanese parents, whether they “struggle well” or experience a crisis when raising young children while sojourning in the U.S., by identifying the processes of family functioning associated with child adjustment and the impact of stressful life events.

**Research Questions**

This study recruited a sample of Japanese mothers and fathers of at least one child who was between the ages of 4 and 8 to complete responses to three self-report instruments and a series of demographic questions in order to examine the relationship between key processes of family resilience and behaviors associated with child adjustment and parents’ perception of stressful life events while sojourning in the U.S. For the purposes of this study, the Family Resilience Assessment (FRA) (Duncan Lane, 2011), first developed to assess resilience processes in families of breast cancer (Walsh, 2003), was used to measure processes of family resilience. The adaptation of the instrument exchanged the prompt of “surviving breast cancer” for the prompt of “sojourning in the U.S. with young children.” The second instrument is the Japanese translation of the parent Strength and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ) (Matsuishi et al., 2008), which was normed for the native Japanese population. The third instrument, the Stressful Life Events Scale (SLES), developed by researchers in Japan, is a one-item
scale that asks respondents to rate the impact of life events from the past week that were upsetting/awful/undesirable (Hasui et al., 2009, pp. 16-17). Using the responses from a sample of Japanese sojourning fathers and mothers in the U.S., this study seeks to answer the following research questions (RQ):

RQ1: (a) What key processes of family resilience do sojourning Japanese mothers and fathers in the U.S. report using? (b) Are there significant differences between FRA scores reported by mothers and fathers?

RQ2: (a) What is the relationship between family resilience reported by Japanese fathers and mothers sojourning in the U.S. and (b) reported impact of stressful life events and behavioral adjustment of their children?

RQ3: (a) When examining if family resilience can predict children’s behavioral adjustment, and (b) if family resilience can predict the impact of stressful life events as reported by mothers and fathers, are there significant differences between mothers and fathers? Specifically, (c) what, if any, family resilience variables are associated with children’s behavioral adjustment as reported by the mothers and fathers, and are there significant differences between mothers and fathers?

Methods Overview

This research is a quantitative study of participants’ perceptions using survey instruments and items developed for this study. Survey items elicit demographic information and self-reported descriptions of family resilience processes and child adjustment behaviors from Japanese sojourning mothers and fathers living in the U.S. The three instruments yield subjective data that can be quantified (Schwandt, 2001). “Quantitative methodology is effective to test objective theories by examining the
relationship among variables” (Creswell, 2009, p. 4). This study is situated within the post-positivistic paradigm, in that it examined if there were predictors among family resilience processes for outcomes of child adjustment via data from instruments that can provide a measure of objectivity through research validated constructs.

In this study, a survey approach was utilized. “Surveys can collect information about some aspects or characteristics (such as abilities, opinions, attitudes, beliefs, and/or knowledge) of a population” (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2005, p. 397). Creswell (2008) indicated that survey research cannot explain cause and effect because it does not experimentally manipulate the conditions. In this study, a survey was used to elicit parent perceptions and comments. Thus, this study is using respondents’ views of reality as indicators of the factors under study rather than direct measures of those factors.

Conceptual Framework

Sojourning families with young children experience stressors related to the transition to parenthood and to living abroad (Foss, 1996). Research has shown that the stressors for many sojourning Japanese families in the U.S., especially for the mothers with their young children, include a lack of support from family in Japan and their husbands in the U.S., language barriers and cultural differences, limited networks, and a narrow Japanese community. It was hypothesized that the use of key processes of family resilience would relate to children’s behavioral adjustment. Further, it was expected that high levels of perceived stress would be related to low use of key processes of family resilience, and a low level of perceived stress would be related to high use of key processes of family resilience. (See Figure 1.)
Figure 1. Conceptual framework for this study.

Definitions of Terms

Adjustment: “The status of an individual based on how well she or he is doing developmentally, behaviorally, and socially” (Buchanan, 2008, p. 6).

Family resilience: “Characteristics, dimensions, and properties of families which help families be resistant to disruption in the face of change and adaptive in the face of crisis situations” (McCubbin & McCubbin, 1988, p. 1).
Key processes of family resilience: Walsh (2002) identified nine family processes that “reduce the risk of dysfunction, buffer stress, and encourage healing and growth from crisis” (p. 132). These nine key processes of family resilience are: making meaning, positive outlook, transcendence and spirituality, flexibility, connectedness, social and economic resources, clarity, open emotional sharing, and collaborative problem-solving.

Resilience: Resilience is defined as “the capacity to rebound from adversity strengthened and more resourceful” (Walsh, 2006, p. 4).

Sojourner/Expatriate: Sojourner/Expatriate refers to an individual or family who moves to another country temporarily, planning to return to the country of origin within a specified period of time, typically after accomplishing a particular purpose such as completing a job assignment, or obtaining a degree. These individuals have been called sojourners (Bochner, 2003) and expatriates (Haslberger & Brewster, 2008). The term “sojourner” and “expatriate” and the phrases “immigrants temporarily living in the U.S.” or “immigrant families temporarily living in the U.S.” are used interchangeably.

Sojourning Japanese families: anyone who is living in the U.S. and has the expectation of returning to Japan.

Summary

In this first chapter, the topic of sojourning families, specifically sojourning Japanese families, was introduced. Only a few studies were located that examine the experiences of sojourning Japanese parents and children. Prior studies have focused on stressors related to sojourning, cultural expectations of fathering, and maternal and child mental health. No studies were located that examine the relationship between process of family resilience, child behavioral adjustment, and perceived stress. This study takes a
strengths-based perspective of sojourning Japanese families to examine the relationship between processes of family resilience, child behavioral adjustment, and parental perceived stress to support both of the families who are struggling well and those who are facing crisis (Walsh, 2006).

Chapter II reviews the literature on sojourning Japanese families, cultural factors relevant to this study, and the family resilience framework. Chapter III describes the proposed methodology used to answer the research questions. In Chapter IV, the results of this study are described. Chapter V presents a summary and discussion of the results, limitations of the study, and implications for research and practice.
CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW

Background

This chapter provides a background to parenting in immigrant families and immigrant children in the U.S. to clarify the issues they may be facing. Next, it describes the cultural and historical context of Japanese families, children and childrearing. Further, it focuses on sojourning Japanese families and children in the world, including the U.S., to understand their situation and identify the issues seen in Japanese sojourning families and children. Finally, it addresses the concepts of family resilience and Walsh’s (2003) key processes of family resilience and summarize the related studies. The significance of this current study will be demonstrated through the process of reviewing the literature.

Parenthood and Immigration as Transitions

A factor common to migration and parenthood is transition (Foss, 1996). Foss noted that the transition to parenthood and migration both involve a change from one state of being to another. For parents, there is the transition from a childless status to parenthood. For immigrants, there is the transition from a homeland to a new country, culture and usually languages. (p. 74)

The transition to parenthood is one of the most challenging events for couples (Kluwer & Johnson, 2007) as it brings changes in identity and to fundamental interactions in the family system. This transition affects couple relationships, often negatively (Bischoff, 2004; Gottman & Notarius, 2000), as new parents reconfigure their relationships and roles as family members (Foss, 1996).
Likewise, families leaving their homeland experience multiple changes as they transition to living in another country. Change, including positive and welcomed change, can be stressful (Boss, 2002). Immigration, even temporary immigration, can usher in a number of changes and challenges, resulting in an accumulation, or pileup, of stressor events or situations. This pileup of stressors can overwhelm a family’s coping, disrupting family functioning (Boss, 2002; Walsh, 2006).

Foss (1996) applied Belsky’s model of parental functioning to determinants of parenting infant and young children in immigrant families. She expanded the Belsky’s categories (i.e., parental characteristics, infant characteristics, and context) to reflect immigrant experiences. Parental and infant characteristics will be touched on below, but more details are given on contextual factors because Foss focused primarily on them: premigration, migration, post-migration, ethnicity, and social and economic factors.

When discussing the category of parental factors, Foss (1996) focused on mothers. Adverse life events and level of social support can influence maternal depression which, in turn, can affect a child’s development and growth, and the mother-child bond throughout childhood. Culture can affect a woman’s identity as a mother and sense of competence as a mother. Ethnic identity can affect mother’s role as a parent, her physical and mental health, and her quality of life. Infant factors that affect parenting behaviors include infant temperament, gender, and health including absence or presence of a disability. For some immigrants, giving birth in the new culture can be a sign of hope and signify a new beginning for a mother and/or a family that has experienced trauma (Foss, 1996).
Contextual factors prior to or during migration can include experiences of violence (e.g., torture, rape) or other trauma (e.g., famine, loss of or separation from family members). Predictors of successful coping post-migration “include the ability to speak the language, attain financial security, master skills of daily living, and maintain physical and mental health” (p. 81). Negative events and chronic separation from family members are associated with negative outcomes such as depression and anxiety. For example, a number of studies reported that mothers’ mental health significantly affects children’s growth and development. Language barriers can limit social interactions and creation of social networks beyond close family and kin. However, family and immigrants from the same country or culture usually contribute to the stability that can be lost from family separation. Posttraumatic stress disorder or major depression in adolescents can be predicted by the combination of a mother’s history of trauma, language competency of the new country, and feelings of distress (Foss, 1996). Other post-migration experiences can affect parenting such as “exposure to community-based violence, decreased social status, the presence of discrimination as perceived by the newcomers, and multigenerational family relationship issues resulting from changing roles and functions of various family members who incorporate parts of the new culture at differing rates” (Foss, 1996, p. 82).

Foss (1996) also noted that ethnicity of immigrants can affect parenting values, beliefs, and roles. Parent-child interaction in immigrant families may differ from the receiving culture. Social and economic environment include religious and cultural traditions, health care, education, access to social support, and the political environment.
Immigrants will usually seek advice and guidance from family, kin, and others from their culture before turning to those in the host community (Foss, 1996).

In summary, parental characteristics of immigrants such as culture, ethnicity, life experiences, and mental health influence parental behaviors that, in turn, influences children’s well-being (Foss, 1996). Parental behaviors post-migration can be influenced by experiences of trauma or negative events, chronic separation from family members, gender, access to a social network, culture and ethnicity, and language barriers (Foss, 1996).

This study examined sojourning Japanese families’ use of key processes of resilience (e.g., use of resources such as social networks) as they raise children in the U.S. and face potential challenges such as cultural differences and language barriers. This study provides the opportunity to highlight which processes of family resilience are used by one ethnic group, Japanese parents, who are experiencing the same challenge, raising children while sojourning in the U.S. The use of the family resilience framework (Walsh, 2006) in this study focuses attention on the sojourning Japanese parents’ strengths while they face the challenges of sojourning. This study examined the relationship between mothers’ and fathers’ reports of the use of key processes of family resilience in the domains of a belief system, organizational pattern, and communication process (Walsh, 2003) and their assessment of the impact of stressors and their children’s behaviors.

Sojourning children of Japanese parents in the U.S. share some characteristics of immigrant children in the U.S. More racial-ethnic diversity exists among children from birth through age 8 than among other age groups in the U.S. The first- and second-generation immigrants most likely to be seen in the U.S. tend to belong to racial-ethnic
groups originating outside European nations. Also, many live with non-English speaking parents (Hernandez, Takanishi, & Marotz, 2009).

Over 5 million immigrant children live in households in which one or both parents are unauthorized to live and work in the U.S (Tienda & Haskins, 2011). Their parents’ unauthorized resident status inhibits their integration into the larger society during their crucial formative years. If, due to their immigration status, their parents do not have sufficient information about child benefits and entitlements, children may not participate in social programs or acquire knowledge and develop the strategies needed to maneuver through bureaucratic systems (Tienda & Haskins, 2011). While sojourning Japanese families are in the U.S. legally, the cultural and language differences may inhibit families’ inclusion in the local community.

**Cultural Context of Japanese Families**

This section describes common cultural characteristics that will assist in understanding the worldview likely influencing sojourning Japanese families. A worldview encompasses the attitudes, beliefs, and assumptions about life (e.g., relationships, human nature, social relationships, time, nature, and activity) (Ohnishi & Ibrahim, 1999).

**Japanese Cultural Characteristics**

Japanese see human nature as good and bad, with religious and social expectations and control encouraging good and harmonious behavior. The Taoist and Buddhist goal of living in harmony with nature, space, earth and spirit is highly valued in Japanese culture. Therefore, Japanese tend not to describe another in only negative terms, which may be perceived by Westerns as ambiguous (Ohnishi & Ibrahim, 1999).
As commonly known, Japan is a collectivist society, valuing the well-being of the group rather than individuals. Harmony and conformity are seen as ways to keep social order. For example, from kindergarten onward children wear the same school uniform as their peers. From the time they are very young Japanese are taught the importance of making an effort and compromising personal goals and desires to meet the demands of the group. The belief is that if the group is doing well so are the individuals in it (Ohnishi & Ibrahim, 1999).

According to Ohnishi and Ibrahim (1999), Japanese tend to operate as a psychological unit at the level of the family, social groups, and the whole society. While Japanese people define their identity as individuals within their family by gender and age, both are affected by religious, cultural, and social expectations. Defining oneself within the family constellation is shared with other Asian cultures, and “acting on one’s own” may be difficult for Japanese (Ohnishi & Ibrahim, 1999).

Also, Japanese learn to function with the public self (*tatema*) and the private self (*honne*) and to use the two functions properly in each occasion. In social situations, personal views are not stated. Rather, Japanese try to seek consensus among people. Japanese’ public self (*tatema*) and the private self (*honne*) may be very different and this difference might confuse Westerns. Japanese may indicate agreement in a social situation because of the expectation of harmony but personally disagree (Ohnishi & Ibrahim, 1999).

The Taoist and Buddhist goal of living in harmony with nature (also with space, earth and spirit) is highly valued in Japanese culture. Also, seeing time as a continuity of past, present, and future is a common perspective for Japanese. Japanese are likely to
believe the Shinto practice that honoring their ancestors will bring a better present life. Further, they are likely to believe that Buddha will bring a better future and life after they die. Additionally, Japanese people are likely to believe that they must achieve their goals not only for themselves but also for their ancestors and their current family members. In addition, Japanese tend to set their life goals in order to maintain harmony within their families and society. Toward this end, Japanese parents spend time and money on their children in order for them to achieve future goals. In so doing, Japanese parents may achieve their goals and dreams through their children’s lives (Ohnishi & Ibrahim, 1999).

A Historical Perspective of Childrearing in Japan

This section addresses parenting, also referred to as childrearing, in Japan. A number of studies examine contemporary Japanese families and childrearing in Japan. To understand current Japanese families and parenting practices, I will introduce several studies in this section.

First, it is important to understand the ie, meaning house or family, and how this system permeates family life. The ie system arises from the feudalism of the Edo era (1600-1868) in which society was divided into a political, not economic, caste system. The highest caste, shi, consisted of the samurai warriors. Next were the peasant caste, no; the artisan caste, ko; and the merchant caste, sho (Kumagai, 2008). In the ie system, a family consists of intergenerational members; the head of the household, the kacho, had possession of the ie which was inherited by the eldest son. The ie included symbolic ideas of prestige and ranking. During the Edo era, however, only the lord of the region and his samurai warriors participated in this ie system. Families in the other castes were considered more units of economic production with responsibility to insure members
were cared for. In these other castes, inheritance was not restricted to first sons, but could be bestowed on any son or on a son-in-law (Kumagai, 2008).

The Meiji era (1868 to World War II) ended the feudal system in Japan with the uniting of Japanese people under the rule of an emperor. Rather than weakening the traditional patriarchal *ie* system, it was strengthened by broadening it to include all families, assuming all families were directly subordinate to the emperor, and adopting Confucianism as the moral code of all. This moral code focused on loyalty to the emperor, *chu*, and filial piety, *ko*. So the more egalitarian family life of the lower castes was replaced with a hierarchical and patriarchal system that honored first-born males with the right to inherit all property while requiring the obedience of other family members (Kumagai, 2008; Shen, 2006).

After World War II, the Civil Code of 1947 abolished the *ie* system, claimed the importance of individual dignity and equality between women and men, and defined family as a nuclear unit of a wife, husband, and children. However, expectations associated with the *ie* system continue to influence Japanese family in that members tend to prioritize family reputation over individuals’ goals (Kumagai, 2008; Ueno, 1994/2009).

Family researchers in Japan have noted three time periods since after World War II: before 1955 and rapid economic growth, during rapid economic growth (1955-1973), and after 1973 and rapid economic growth (Hirata, 2005; Yamase, 2012). The influence of the *ie* system can be seen in these time periods. Before 1955, a majority of Japanese families were farmers. The roles of mothers in these families consisted mainly of productive labor, and the paternal grandmother was the responsible person who parented
the family’s children. The grandmother had the right to decide issues related to childrearing, and she was a main source of information about childrearing. During the rapid economic growth from 1955 to 1973, a majority of Japanese families belonged to the middle class of office workers; fathers were the main breadwinners and mothers stayed at home and focused on housework and childrearing. Since 1973, because of the expansion of home electronics and outsourcing of housework, the amount of time mothers spend on childrearing has been increasing. Therefore, it is a recent practice for Japanese mothers to be the primary caregiver of children (Yamase, 2012).

The ideal of the “professional housewife” took hold post-war and for some, such as sojourning wives, continues in some form. As part of or alongside of the “professional housewife,” motherhood became synonymous with self-sacrifice and devotion to the care and success of children (Sasagawa, 2006), while the main role of the husband is that of one who provides and interacts with those outside the house. Although when compared to other countries, Japanese fathers’ participation in housework and childcare is low, it has been increasing over the last 15 years (Ishii-Kuntz, 2008).

While past generations of wives dedicated themselves to raising their children (Vogel & Vogel, 2013), women now consider motherhood a choice and many of them want to enjoy both their children and the process of parenting (Yamase, 2012). Parents who do not consider parenting to be an enjoyable activity or a means of self-improvement may experience parenting as a burden. In this regard, parenting can be seen as a tool to improve themselves as human beings.

Although adherence to traditional gender roles is still seen in many contemporary Japanese families, particularly those who are expatriates (Takeuchi, Lepak, Marinova, &
Yun, 2007), Ishii-Kuntz (2008) argues that Japanese people are undergoing a transition for three reasons. First, since the early 1990s, there has been a sharp decline in the birthrate in Japan, attributed to women’s reluctance to have babies because of their husband’s lack of participation in childrearing and housework. Japanese government officials have been seriously concerned about the declining birthrate. In 1999, they generated a campaign appealing for greater paternal involvement. “We don’t call a man ‘Father’ who doesn’t take care of his children” was the slogan issued by Japan’s Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare (Ishii-Kuntz, 2008).

Second, Ishii-Kuntz (2008) reported that Japanese women’s participation in the labor force has significantly increased. Although the percentage of Japanese men in the workforce remained the same, the percentage of younger mothers of childbearing years (25 to 39 years of age) in the workforce increased from 60.2% in 1995 to 66.9% in 2005. As a consequence, the number of dual-income families increased from 46% in 1995 to 53% in 2005. Ishii-Kuntz concludes that the power of traditional gender roles to determine who completes household labor, is the main breadwinner, and is the main care provider for family members is lessening; few modern Japanese families rely on these traditional gender roles to organize their lives.

Third, Ishii-Kuntz (2008) reported that due to the ongoing economic recession an increasing number of Japanese men are becoming discontented with their jobs and the workplace. The percentage of Japanese men who considered paid work the most important aspect of their lives dropped from 24% in 1978 to 8% in 2005. Likewise, the percentage of Japanese men who agreed that it is desirable for men to concentrate on paid work dropped from 52% in 1987 to 30% in 2001 (Ishii-Kuntz, 2008).
Along with demographic changes, Japan has supported a movement toward more father involvement (Yamase, 2008). Most recently, in 2010, the Ministry has advanced a campaign to promote fathers’ active involvement in parenting. The Ikumen Project, a word that blends “ikuji” (i.e., childrearing) and “men,” encourages fathers to participate in raising their children (Tanabe, Kawamura, & Hatanaka, 2011).

As with mothers, fathers are also undergoing change. Approximately 20% of Japanese fathers in their thirties reported that they do not identify with a traditional gender role but consider parenting their responsibility along with housework and employment. Even though they were the main breadwinner for their family, they engaged in housework and parenting (Ohno, 2008). Tanabe, Kawamura and Hatanaka (2011) surveyed 703 fathers of children who attended kindergartens or childcare centers on the west side of Japan to examine how parental involvement in childcare and housework influences the well-being of fathers. The researchers reported that regardless of the time fathers spent on paid-work, they valued their role as fathers and considered being a father a part of their personal identity. Moreover, the amount of time fathers spent on childrearing activities was significantly related to their level of satisfaction about life and their level of satisfaction with their wife.

Although the number of Japanese mothers who have a full time job outside of the home has increased, when compared to other developed countries, the level of husbands’ participation in housework and parenting is significantly lower (Nakano, 2009). In the majority of households in Japan, fathers are the main breadwinner while mothers work at part-time jobs and assume the main responsibility for housework and childrearing (Sato, 2012). Further, fathers who earn a high income tend to have a high level of education,
and they are married to women who also tend to have a high level of education. These wives are more likely to report negative feelings about being a housewife when compared with housewives who have less education (Sato, 2012).

As noted in the previous section, Japanese people who are temporarily living abroad are usually doing so because of the husband’s role as a businessman. In these families it is often the case that wives have the responsibility for housework and, if there are children, childrearing. Most of the families belong to an upper-middle social economic class and the majority of the wives do not work outside of the home due to their visa and language issues (Ishizaki & Ishizaki, 2001; Ozeki & Knowles, 2009; Ozeki & Mizuguchi, 2007).

Further research is needed to better understand the situation of sojourning Japanese families and how their division of labor relates to engagement in processes of family resilience and children’s behavioral adjustment. Therefore, in this current study, Japanese sojourning fathers as well as mothers were included in the target population, and asked about hours spent interacting with children, and the importance of parenting to adult identity.

**Japanese Young Children and Parents in Contemporary Japan**

Harako (2011) reported, in Japan, since the middle of 1990s, voices from school sites can be heard about “the issues of the first graders.” The meaning of “the issues of the first graders” is that many homeroom teachers cannot control their first graders in their classroom. A number of the first graders do not listen to their teachers’ orders, and sometimes the teachers cannot conduct their class. In the end, the school cannot function as a location for group education. Mass media reports that this phenomenon is due to
three possible reasons: teachers’ lower teaching skills and knowledge, lower home education competence, and free-style programs in kindergarten and preschools. (Harako, 2011). The assumption is that the educational system from infant childcare to the lower elementary grades has not caught up to changes in children’s development situation. Four factors are offered as reasons for this situation: change in children’s surrounding social circumstances; changes in child rearing and parents’ isolation from society and the community; differences between the preschool curriculum and unchanged elementary school curriculum; and the lack of cooperation between preschools and elementary schools (Harako, 2011, translated by the author of the dissertation). Harako (2011) and Koshiyama (2008) argue that because the number of nuclear families is increasing and the number of extended families are decreasing, mothers and children form a mother-child capsule isolated from community and society which affects children’s development.

In the Japanese educational system, children are 5 years old when they enter a senior kindergarten (Ministry of Education, 2011). Parents of kindergartners are concerned with their children being well prepared socially and academically to enter first grade. Parents wonder what they should be doing at home to prepare their children so that they do not have “the issue/crisis of first graders.” Parents worry whether their child will be academically prepared and conduct themselves well in terms of following teachers’ instructions (Koshiyama, 2008).

Mothers of a kindergartener have different stressors than mothers who have children under the age of 4. Hasegawa (2008) reported that Japanese children around the age of 4 to 5 do not tend to cry at night, and mothers do not have to breastfeed or worry about other problems of diet and excretion, thus reducing the maternal level of stress.
However, on the other hand, these children are expanding their sphere of activities, and are improving their vocabulary. In addition, the children are wanting more control and mothers may experience stress in responding to children and anxiety if their children seem delayed in mental or physical development. By the age of 5, most Japanese children are attending nursery school or kindergarten. In these settings, the children experience group activities that can highlight developmental and social problems that may not have been apparent at home (Shimoizumi, 2011). In the past 30 years, researchers in child development and psychology have been studying children’s behaviors, although there are few studies on risk factors for emotional and behavioral problems in young children (Xiaoling & Katsurada, 2008).

This study focused on sojourning Japanese parents of young children ages 4 to 8 who are entering the educational system and becoming accustomed to it. During this time, as noted above, both children and their parents are facing new challenges. Therefore, it can be assumed that children in this age range and their parents who are sojourning in the U.S. also face these challenges. This study considered the degree to which parents used processes of family resilience during the early years of their child’s education while living in the U.S. (Walsh, 2002).

**Sojourning Japanese Families**

Global management skills have become key elements for the survival of companies in a competitive world of rapid globalization of businesses. The expatriate experience, enabling businessmen to obtain global management skills, is a critical factor for their successful future. However, it is important to understand what makes a difference between successful and unsuccessful expatriate assignments. During the
assignment abroad, family-related issues are one of the main causes of stress for the expatriates and their spouses.

**Challenges Related to Sojourning for Japanese Families**

Previous studies on sojourning Japanese families consistently reported that families living abroad with children face challenges in family functioning and are less likely to obtain needed support (Hohashi & Honda, 2011). The main causes of stress for expatriates and their spouses are family issues. Previous studies have defined unsuccessful expatriate assignment to include being sent home prematurely, leaving the company while on the assignment, and failing to perform well even when completing the full term of the assignment (Tungli & Peiperl, 2009). Unsuccessful assignments may be traced to the expatriate and/or spouse having difficulty in adjusting to foreign culture, challenges related to children (e.g., adjustment to new school) (Hohashi & Honda, 2011), or the expatriate experiencing a clash of work and family demands (Shaffer, Harrison, Gilley, & Luk, 2001).

Like many transitions, sojourning brings multiple challenges or stressors to families. Such stressors can disturb the equilibrium of a family, and affect the wellbeing of family members, including children (Walsh, 2006). Most of the studies on sojourning Japanese families have focused on wives and/or mothers. When data are available on husbands and/or fathers and children, they are presented below. I describe five critical challenges: parenting and children’s education; hierarchical local Japanese community; lack of husbands’ support and adjustment; language barrier; and loss of support from extended family which sojourning Japanese families tend to face during their expatriate assignment.
**Parenting and children’s education.** Nukaga’s (2012), Ozeki and Mizuguchi’s (2007), and Toyokawa’s (2006) studies conducted in the U.S. provide insight into how parenting and children’s education become critical factors for sojourning Japanese mothers as their responsibility during their expatriate assignment. In these ethnographic, grounded theory, and survey studies, sojourning Japanese wives reported during sojourning their first priority became mothering and homemaking due to visa restrictions about employment and language barriers (Nukaga, 2012; Ozeki & Mizuguchi, 2007; Toyokawa, 2006).

One study of mothers who had at least one child under the age of 6 in New York and a city in Japan compared mothers’ mental health showed the following results. Approximately 90% of mothers from both cities were between 25 to 40 years old. The study showed that 35% of mothers in New York reported that they felt their children were stressed by living abroad, and 53.6% mothers felt more stress about child rearing abroad than in Japan. However, only two mothers reported that the children’s experience of living abroad was not beneficial. Although mothers in both groups reported similar levels of stress and similar status of mental health as indicated by scores on the General Health Questionnaire (GHQ), the Japanese mothers in New York were more stressed than mothers in Japan about their child’s education (Ozeki & Mizuguchi, 2007).

According to Nukaga (2012), sojourning Japanese mothers especially felt a strong responsibility for their children’s academic success. They were very sensitive about their children maintaining Japanese language competency and culture and obtaining English language skills and a global perspective, factors these mothers considered critical for a successful future (Nukaga, 2012). So they required their children to attend Japanese
schools in the U.S. in order to be prepared to return to Japan and not be behind academically (Nukaga, 2012; Toyokawa, 2006).

Further, Nukaga (2012) reported that the Japanese sojourning mothers needed to learn American ways of good mothering, such as volunteering at their children’s school events, library, and cafeteria and helping their children do homework. The mothers expressed concern about their children’s lack of independence and autonomy because being in a foreign country the Japanese expatriate mothers always took care of their children except when the children were at school. The mothers explained that they controlled their children’s schedules and gave instructions for every detail; therefore, the children were unable to do anything without their mothers’ instruction. These situations were sources of emotional pain for the Japanese expatriate mothers.

**Local Japanese community.** Multiple case, grounded theory, ethnomethodological and survey studies of Japanese families sojourning in the U.S. (Arnault, 2002; Nukaga, 2012; Toyokawa, 2006) and outside of the U.S. (Hohashi & Honda, 2011; Ozeki, 2008; Ozeki & Knowles, 2009) have showed that a local Japanese community can be a source of support. However, the hierarchical structure of these communities can also be a stressor sojourning Japanese wives.

Recent studies indicate that for most Japanese wives, the Japanese network, a hierarchical structure ordered by seniority, was the dominant source of sufficient information and support for their sojourn life in the U.S. and future life in Japan. According to Toyokawa (2006), the Japanese wives used the hierarchical network as their resource to obtain needed information in order to practice mothering and homemaking in a Japanese style. The hierarchical network factors of social status, age, and company
affiliation are defined culturally. The leader in the network is the most influential person among the network, and the other wives need to maintain a good relationship with the person; otherwise, it would be difficult for them to stay in the network and obtain crucial information and support from the network to survive in the Japanese community. A Japanese wife has her own role within the network, and she will exchange tangible resources with others such as taking care of each other’s children and sharing useful information about children’s education (Nukaga, 2012; Toyokawa, 2006).

Although the Japanese sojourning wives’ hierarchical network is an indispensable part of life, many of them may feel stressed or burdened by it (Arnault, 2002; Hohashi & Honda, 2011; Nukaga, 2012; Ozeki, 2008; Ozeki & Knowles, 2009; Toyokawa, 2006). Toyokawa (2006) reported that while Japanese sojourning wives sought exchanging tangible support for information, instrumental, social opportunity from the Japanese network in the U.S., they sought emotional support from their extended family such as their own mothers or sisters in Japan. In addition, the hierarchical community may result in an increase in the wives’ isolation from society in the host country and a decrease in intimacy among members of their network (Arnault, 2002).

**Sojourning husbands and wives.** Grounded theory, ethnographic, and survey studies showed that a majority of sojourning Japanese wives report their husbands’ serious job circumstances cause them stress and reduce their time with their family in the U.S. (Arnault, 2002; Nukaga, 2012) and other countries (Hohashi & Honda, 2011; Ozeki & Knowles, 2009; Ozeki & Mizuguchi, 2007).

A majority of Japanese sojourning wives recognized that their husbands were under stress due to their job circumstances (Arnault, 2002; Hohashi & Honda, 2011;
Nukaga, 2012; Ozeki & Knowles, 2009; Ozeki & Mizuguchi, 2007). Because Japanese sojourning wives felt that their husbands were under stress at work, the wives did not express their true feelings or concerns to their husbands (Arnault, 2002; Nukaga, 2012; Ozeki & Mizuguchi, 2007). They did not want to increase their husband’s stress and they believed that it was their responsibility to create a comfortable environment at home in order for their husband to work (Arnault, 2002).

Takeuchi and colleagues (2007) conducted a study that examined the relationship of parental demands, cultural novelty, and expatriate adjustment for 170 pairs of Japanese expatriates and their spouses assigned to the U.S. The study showed that spouses, but not expatriates, showed a significant relationship between parental demands and general adjustment. The researchers suggested that Japan’s rank as the highest masculinity society among 40 countries may indicate a reason why parenting demands were not associated with adjustment for men. Further, results indicated a significant difference in the adjustment process for expatriates and their spouses. This difference may also have affected other factors. Takeuchi and colleagues (2007) suggested that spouses play a critical role in the family adjustment process.

In summary, spouses’ positive adjustment contributes positively to the adjustment of other family members, particularly the adjustment of the expatriate who is able to concentrate on his job. Eventually, positive adjustment in one country may likely lead to an expatriate assignment to another foreign country.

**Language challenges and feelings of isolation.** Multiple studies reported that language challenges affect Japanese sojourning families and it causes them to be isolated from local community in their host country. This language barrier and resulting isolation
has been documented as occurring not only in the U.S. (Mojaverian, Hashimoto, & Kim, 2012; Ozeki & Mizuguchi, 2007), but also in the U.K. (Ozeki, 2008) and China (Hohashi & Honda, 2011; Ozeki & Knowles, 2009).

Hohashi and Honda (2011), Mojaverian, Hashimoto, and Kim (2012), Ozeki (2008), Ozeki and Mizuguchi (2007), and Ozeki and Knowles (2009) reported that the sojourning wives limited language proficiency caused them stress. Their language barrier contributed to them staying within the sojourning Japanese community, rather than interacting with people in the host country from whom they hesitated to ask for help (Mojaverian et al., 2012). Further, according to Nukaga (2012), due to their lack of English and communication skills, many of them believed they could not advocate successfully for their children in academic matters in the local school.

Previous studies reported that some mothers wanted to interact with others outside of the Japanese community in order to improve their and their children’s English language skills and to develop friendships with Americans. However, it was difficult for them to develop friendships because of limited English skills (Arnault, 2002; Nukaga, 2012; Toyokawa, 2006).

**Being away from extended family in Japan.** Survey studies in the U.S. (Ozeki & Mizuguchi, 2007) and in China (Hohashi & Honda, 2011) and an ethnomethodological study in the U.K. (Ozeki, 2008) showed sojourning Japanese mothers/wives felt stress because of being away from their extended family in Japan. Distance from family in Japan resulted in lack of support for child rearing and/or homemaking.
Challenges Related to Japanese Sojourning Children

This section reviews the studies on sojourning Japanese children in families living abroad. Only a few studies about sojourning Japanese children (e.g., behaviors, mental issues related to mothers’ mental health) exist. Researchers have studied Japanese young children age 4 to 5 years old living in the U.S. (Mizuta, Zahn-Waxler, Cole, & Hiruma, 1996), age 2 and 5 years old France and the U.S. (Kameyama, 1994), age 3 to 6 years old living in Malaysia (Tanaka, Obana, & Sugimura, 1999), age 5 to 6 years old Shanghai, China (Onishi et al., 2013); and school-age children in elementary and secondary schools in the U.S. (Ishizaki & Ishizaki, 2001; Miyamoto & Kuhlman, 2001).

Young children. In this section I introduce two studies that examined Japanese sojourning children’s problematic behaviors in Malaysia (Tanaka et al., 1999) and in the U.S. and France (Kameyama, 1994). In addition, I introduce two studies, conducted in China (Onishi et al., 2013) and in the U.S. (Mizuta et al., 1996), which show sojourning Japanese parents’ perspectives on their children’s behaviors and how they related to parental attitudes.

Sojourning Japanese child behaviors. The study conducted in Malaysia compared the stress of Japanese children ages 3 to 6 who lived in Malaysia with children who lived in Japan as reported by parents (Tanaka et al., 1999). Children’s emotional and behavioral problems were assessed using a 28-item children's behavior questionnaire completed by parents (Rutter, 1970). Seven categories of problematic behaviors were examined as indicators of children’s stress: physical and psychosomatic symptoms, daily habits, aggressive behaviors, regressive behaviors psychiatric symptoms, lack of attention and over activity, and antisocial behaviors. Questions were answered using a Likert-type
scale (0 for not at all, 1 for a little, and 2 for very often). Parents of children in Malaysia reported higher scores in two categories than children in Japan: psychiatric symptoms, and lack of attention and over-activity. Although not statistically significant, scores about problems with daily habits and regressive behaviors were higher for children in Malaysia than children in Japan.

Kameyama (1994) reported on counseling cases of three Japanese children between 2 and 5 years old who lived overseas. The counselor observed children having difficulty with social skills such as interacting with other children and adults. Two children exhibited anxiety when separating from their mothers. Upon returning to Japan, one child would abruptly and often change the topic of conversation with her mother and freely talked to strangers and told them about her interests.

**Relationship between sojourning Japanese children’s behaviors and parenting attitudes.** Two survey studies examined the relationship between parents’ perspective of their children’s behaviors and their parenting attitudes in the U.S. (Mizuta et al., 1996) and in China (Onishi et al., 2013). The study in the U.S. compared sojourning Japanese and American children and their mothers in the U.S. In another study, a researcher compared the relationship between children’s behaviors and parenting attitudes of sojourning Japanese children and parents in China and Japanese children and parents in two cities in Japan.

The first study compared mother-child attachment in a sample of Japanese sojourning mothers and their 4- to 5-year-old children with a sample of American mothers and their 4- to 5-year-old children (Mizuta et al., 1996). The author of the study focused on Japanese sojourning children’s attachment-related behaviors, feelings and
representations with using Child Behavior Check List (CBCL; Achenbach, 1991). The CBCL is a widely-used parent-report questionnaire about behavioral and emotional problems and assesses internalizing (i.e., anxious, depressive, and over-controlled) and externalizing (i.e., aggressive, hyperactive, noncompliant, and under-controlled) behaviors.

Mizuta and colleagues (1996) found similar results for Japanese and American children where 21 out of 30 belonged to the higher internalizing group and 9 children scored in the lower internalizing group. Japanese children showed more amae (desire for bodily closeness) than did American children. Amae, which has no literal English translation, has been considered to be a key concept to understand Japanese mentality. It has been defined in various ways as a motivational factor within an individual, or a certain pattern of an interpersonal relationship including the key elements of indulgence and inter-dependency. For Japanese preschoolers, seeking close physical contact such as climbing up and sitting on the mother’s lap and burying his/her face against the mother’s chest are the amae behaviors. In Japanese parenting style, amae is regarded as a positive behavior rather than a negative. However, for American children, if children show such behaviors to mothers/parents, it is likely to be regarded as immature. Data showed that all Japanese children and American children with higher internalizing symptoms showed more amae behavior than American children with lower internalizing symptoms. Further, amae was not positively correlated with internalizing symptoms for Japanese children, but it was correlated for American children.

There were no differences between the two groups in levels of problematic behaviors related to security and sensitivity to separation and reunion behaviors.
However, there were differences in mothers’ child rearing attitudes, values, behaviors and goals as measured by the 91-item Childrearing Practices Report (CRPR). Japanese mothers scored higher on health orientation, parental worry, inconsistent punishment, guilt induction, anxiety induction, negative effect, and suppression of sex. On the other hand, American mothers scored higher on openness to experience, open affect, enjoyment of parenting, non-punitive punishment, and suppression of aggression. Both Japanese and American mothers of children with higher internalizing symptoms scored higher on anxiety induction. Mizuta and colleagues (1996) concluded that Japanese mothers tended to focus on the negative factors in child-rearing rather than on positive factors as American mothers did.

A study by Onishi et al. (2013) utilized the Japanese version of the Strength and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ) to examine the effect of living abroad on the social development of Japanese kindergarteners both in China and Japan. Samples were collected in three Japanese kindergartens in Shanghai, China; three kindergartens in Wakayama, Japan; and three kindergartens in Osaka, Japan. Guardians of 5- to 6-year-old children in kindergarten completed the SDQ, items about children’s daily activities and lifestyle, and items about guardians’ awareness of childrearing. Of the 246 participants, 95% were mothers.

No significant differences were found among the three groups in reported difficulties and prosocial behaviors or in the proportion of children judged as having a low need for support. However, the groups differed in factors associated with children’s prosocial behavior. For the sojourning group in Shanghai, results of multiple logistic regression analysis showed a significant relationship between children’s prosocial
behavior and two factors: children’s frequency of eating fast-food and the guardians’ anxiety about childrearing or losing enthusiasm for childrearing when the child was recalcitrant. For Wakayama group, children’s prosocial behaviors related to children’s spending daily hours for watching TV. For Osaka group, children’s prosocial behavior related to the children’s daily time spent playing outdoors. Onishi and colleagues (2013) concluded that children’s behavior was more related to their parents’ attitude toward childrearing for the sojourning group than for the groups in Japan.

**School-age children.** In this section, I introduce two studies conducted in the U.S. One of the studies showed school-age children’s predictive variables for the level of culture shock, grades in school, and anxiety level over returning to Japan (Miyamoto & Kuhlman, 2001). The results of this study suggest that family members and people children routinely encounter (e.g., teachers, American students) play important roles in reducing the stress, termed “culture shock” in this study, experienced by children. Another study examined the relationship between sojourning Japanese mothers’ mental health status and their children’s level of depression and anxiety. The study showed that there is significant relationship between them (Ishizaki & Ishizaki, 2001).

**Children’s adjustment.** Miyamoto and Kuhlman (2001) were interested in variables associated with the experience of culture shock in school-age Japanese children sojourning in the U.S. Children accompanying their expatriate parents to the U.S. usually attend either a full-time Japanese school or a combination of an American school from Monday through Friday and a Japanese supplemental school on Saturday. Transitioning from Japan to the U.S. often results in stress, or culture shock, as children face the
To identify variables that predicted the level of culture shock, grades in school, and anxiety level over returning to Japan, researchers surveyed 240 sojourning Japanese students from the 4th through 11th grades at a Japanese supplementary school in southern California. The study showed that the most effective predictors of culture shock were the students’ perceived relationships with American friends and teachers and not the children’s English language proficiency or the length of stay. Also, the most effective predictor of grades in the Japanese supplementary school was the relationship with the Japanese teachers rather than the children’s Japanese language skills. According to these results, human relationships were more significant than practical language skills to help Japanese sojourning students become accustomed to their new lives (Miyamoto & Kuhlman, 2001). The results of this study suggest that family members and people children routinely encounter (e.g., teachers, American students) play important roles in reducing the stress, the culture shock, experienced by children. The results of this study move beyond describing symptoms of culture shock and beyond identifying internal attributes expatriates can employ to cope with culture shock. It highlights the important contributions of others in the environment who can mitigate culture shock. This result may be particularly helpful for young children, whose experiences are minimally present in the literature (Miyamoto & Kuhlman, 2001).

Ishizaki and Ishizaki (2001) studied temporary immigrant Japanese mothers and their children in New England and the mid-south region of the U.S. The authors collected paired data on mothers and children who ranged in age from 8 to 15. As measured by the
General Health Questionnaire (GHQ), 25% of the mothers were categorized with a minor psychiatric illness. Ten percent of the children were considered depressed as measured by the Children’s Depression Inventory, and 30% of them were identified with a high level of anxiety as assessed by Children’s Manifest Anxiety Scale. The study concluded that the mothers’ mental health status was associated with their children’s level of depression and anxiety (Ishizaki & Ishizaki, 2001).

**Strengths of Sojourning Japanese Families and Children**

Previous studies of sojourning Japanese families reported challenges faced by children and possible adjustment problems. However, the results of these studies also showed that many sojourning families and children did not report mental, emotional, or behavioral problems while living overseas (Ishizaki & Ishizaki, 2001; Onishi et al., 2013; Ozeki & Mizuguchi, 2007; Tanaka et al., 1999).

The study of children’s stress level as reported by sojourning Japanese parents in Malaysia and Japan showed that while children in Malaysia were more highly stressed than children in Japan, a majority of the Japanese children in Malaysia were not highly stressed (Tanaka et al., 1999). Further, as noted above, Onishi et al. (2013) reported no significant differences in difficulties and prosocial behaviors among Japanese young children in China and Japan although the factors associated with reported difficulties were different among the three cities. Also, no significant difference existed among the proportion of parents in one city in China and two cities in Japan who answered “think so” to the questions: “I have no confidence to rear my child” (China, 34.7%; Japan, 40.7%, 29.5%), “I become anxious or lose enthusiasm for childrearing when my child is recalcitrant” (China, 90.3%; Japan, 86.0% and 83.0%), and “I have many anxieties about
rearing my child” (China, 26.4%; Japan, 31.4% and 26.4%). Moreover, the results of the study conducted by Ozeki and Mizuguchi (2007), noted above, showed no significant difference in mental health between Japanese mothers in the U.S. and in Japan. Although one-third of mothers with young children in the U.S. reported they may need professional support for their mental health, majority of the mothers did not seek the support.

For strengths of school-age children and mothers, as described earlier in this chapter, a study which conducted in the U.S. to examine psychosocial association for sojourning Japanese mothers and their children in the U.S. showed that although 25% of mothers and 10% of children were assessed as depressed and 30% were assessed as having a high level of anxiety, a majority of mothers and children did not report these problems (Ishizaki & Ishizaki, 2001).

From the studies reviewed here, sojourning families experience challenges associated with sojourning and as a result, some exhibit adjustment problems but not a majority. Although strengths as noted above can be seen among sojourning Japanese parents and children based on previous studies, researchers have not designed studies to examine strengths or the factors that contribute to the strengths of the families.

Schoppe, Mangelsdorf, and Frosch (2001) conducted a study to examine how family interaction relates to preschoolers’ externalizing behavior problems. The fathers, mothers and teachers of three year-old children assessed the quality of co-parenting, family affective processes, and family structure and rated on children’s externalizing behavior problems at 4 years. The findings indicated that higher levels of supportive co-parenting and more adaptive family structures are more likely to be associated with children’s fewer externalizing behavior problems. In contrast, higher levels of
undermining co-parenting and more negative affect and fewer adaptive family structures were more likely to be associated with higher children’s externalizing behavior problems level. Although Schoppe and colleagues did not apply Walsh’ (2006) family resilience framework, the factors which they applied to their research of co-parenting (do childrearing together), family affective processes (communication process/skills) and family structure (family coherence) reflect some key processes of family resilience.

By focusing on processes related to resilience, this study highlights the strengths of sojourning Japanese families and young children. Walsh (2006) has called for researchers to move away from focusing on “dysfunctional families and how they fail, to studies of well-functioning families and what enables them to succeed” (p. 24). This study aims to examine the relationship between both mothers’ and fathers’ assessment of the family’s use of key processes and the impact of stressful events and children’s behaviors (Walsh, 2003) as they face challenges inherent in their expatriate assignment in the U.S. In so doing, this study provided an opportunity to learn more about fathers’ perspectives on their children, impact of stressful events, and family processes (Walsh, 2003).

**Marital Satisfaction**

Studies in the U.S. document both direct and indirect relationships between marital satisfaction and children’s adjustment (Fishman & Meyers, 2000). Marital distress has been associated with children’s emotional and behavioral problems, such as internalizing and externalizing disorders, and peer problems (Fishman & Meyers, 2000; Katz & Gottman, 1993).
Researchers in Japan have commented on the importance of the marital relationship on children’s problematic behavior and mental health (Sugawara & Takuma, 1997). Several studies in Japan have examined the relationship between marital satisfaction and parents’ attitude related to childrearing. Nakatani (2006) studied the relationship between wives’ marital satisfaction and comfort leaving children in their husbands’ care. Also, Kurosawa and Kato (2011) found an association between relationship coping style and marital satisfaction in couples raising young children.

One of the studies, conducted by Sagara, Ito, and Ikeda (2008), focused on the relationship between marital satisfaction and the gap between the ideal and the reality of sharing housework and childrearing responsibilities. While wives wanted less responsibility in these areas, the husbands, particularly younger ones, wanted more. Higher marital satisfaction was associated with a smaller gap between the actual and ideal amounts of housework and childrearing responsibilities. For husbands with elementary school children higher marital satisfaction was reported for those who reported a small gap between the ideal and reality and whose wives also reported a small gap. However, even the husbands who reported having a non-traditional gender attitude, the actual time they spent on housework was not much as their wives expected. Wives with elementary children reported a larger gap between ideals and reality, while wives with university-aged children reported less of a gap because childrearing tasks were minimal. On the other hand, young Japanese fathers tended to recognize childrearing as their role and wished to spend more time with their children.

Marital satisfaction of Japanese mothers who were raising young children was affected by the gap between an ideal situation and the reality of how much time they and
their husbands spent on housework and childrearing. When compared to the mothers who were raising older children, these mothers of young children expected husbands to be more involved in childrearing (Sagara et al., 2008).

Further, the marital satisfaction of Japanese fathers who were raising young children was more likely to be affected by their wives’ gap between the ideal and real situation when compared to the fathers who were not raising young children. The authors of this study explained two reasons for this finding. One of the reasons is that fathers with elementary age children who had a large gap were more likely to spend time at home, allowing them to sense their wives’ dissatisfaction and exhaustion more directly than fathers who were not raising young children. This experience contributed to a decrease in marital satisfaction. Also, these younger fathers were more likely to hold a non-traditional gender role (i.e., equal rights for both sexes) perspective. This perspective may have sensitized them to their wives’ dissatisfaction more strongly because they knew that their involvement in childrearing did not meet their wives’ expectations and this mental conflict led to lower marital satisfaction (Sagara et al., 2008).

Japanese studies introduced above are focused on marital satisfaction and parents’ childrearing attitudes. No study was found which specifically examined children behavioral difficulties and parents’ marital satisfaction.

Based on U.S. studies showing a relationship between marital satisfaction and child adjustment and Japanese studies examining the relationships between marital satisfaction and parents’ childrearing attitude, the possibility of marital satisfaction mediating the relationship between family resilience and child adjustment was considered in this study.
Resilience

In this section, I introduce the concepts of resilience and key processes of family resilience. Resilience is defined as 

the capacity to rebound from adversity strengthened and more resourceful. It is an active process of endurance, self-righting, and growth in response to crisis and challenge. The ability to overcome adversity challenges our culture’s conventional wisdom: that early or severe trauma can’t be undone; that adverse experiences always damage people sooner or later; and that children from troubled or “broken” families are doomed. (Walsh, 2006, p. 4)

History of resilience. The concept of resilience is rooted in family stress research. At first, early researchers regarded resilience as a personal trait, that is, an inborn ability. Researcher then began considering resilience as a family trait emerging in the context of a family facing a stressor (Price et al., 2010). In the late 1970s through 1980s researchers began to change their attention from family weakness to family strengths and coping strategies used during adversity (Weber, 2011). Researchers have come to view resilience “as an ongoing interaction between nature and nurture, encouraged by supportive relationships . . . resilience might be strong or weak but training and practice can strengthen it to deal better with traumatic events and life challenges” (Walsh, 2006, p. 7). Today, Walsh’s (2006) family resilience framework highlights the processes in family functioning that foster resilience.

Rutter (1987, 1999) introduced the concept of “resilience as an ongoing interaction between nurture and nurture, encouraged by supportive relationships. Family and social experiences that open up new opportunities can become beneficial turning points” (Walsh, 2006, p. 7). Researchers conducting the early studies of resilience (Hauser, Vierya, Jacobson, & Werlieb, 1985; Rutter, 1985; Werner & Smith, 1992) paid attention to “the family organization and emotional climate, noting the importance of
warmth, affection, emotional support, and clear-cut, limit” (Walsh, 2006, p. 11). They illuminated the positive family contribution to children’s resilience.

Among the large number of studies about the resilience of children, Werner and Smith’s (1992) longitudinal study of childhood resilience is a highly influential study of resilience (Patterson & Kirkland, 2007; Walsh, 2006). Werner and Smith (1992) focused on nearly 700 children in the island of Kauai. The children were mixed ethnicity and reared in poverty and hardship. A majority of the children’s parents were working at sugar plantations, and one-third of the children were classified as “at risk” for poor individual outcomes. Although two-thirds of the “at risk” children were categorized as delinquent in their later life as predicted, approximately one-third of the children went on to lead a successful life (Patterson & Kirkland, 2007; Walsh, 2006). Werner and Smith (1992) pointed out that the early researchers missed the importance of the influence of extended family networks such as siblings, other family members, relatives and friends for families to cope with the adversity. Patterson and Kirkland (2007), citing the findings of Werner and Smith’s longitudinal study, noted that, regardless to their character or ability, children are more likely to be resilient when they have at least one adult, who does not have to be their parent, who is supportive and has positive expectations of them. Further, they highlighted the importance for the children to interact with others and to contribute others’ well-being.

Werner and Smith (1992) concluded “that people with troubled pasts have the potential to turn their lives around throughout adulthood” and “that a crisis can become a positive turning point” (as cited by Walsh, 2006, p. 15). Their conclusions are supported by many studies of “at risk” children. Resilience can occur at any time in life and through
various interactive processes which may heal the family and help each member to integrate the experience of the crisis and move forward on a positive path (Walsh, 2006).

**Studies of resilience in Japan.** The usefulness and significance of the concept of resilience is gaining recognition in academic circles in Japan (Shoji, 2009). The studies of resilience in Japan have been conducted in various fields such as developmental psychology, counseling psychology, education, early childhood health, nursing, and psychiatry. Although there is no clear definition of resilience in Japan yet (Ohyama & Nozue, 2013; Shoji, 2009), the number of studies of resilience focused on individuals is increasing (Ohyama & Nozue, 2013).

Studies are underway to create or validate resilience assessment scales (Nakamura, Umebayashi, & Takino, 2010; Shoji, 2009). In one study, Miyano, Fujimoto, Yamada, and Fujiwara (2014) developed an assessment scale of individual resilience of parents participating in a child care support program. The study targeted 97 mothers who had a 3-year-old child. A factor analysis found a three-factor structure to the scale. Although they did not apply Walsh’s (2003) family resilience concept, the three factors (social support, problem-solving, and perception) overlap with Walsh’s (2003) key processes of family resilience.

Researchers are also beginning to consider a family perspective when studying resilience, noting its importance given natural disasters and an increasing number of child abuse cases and suicides. The 2011 earthquake and tsunami in Japan have resulted in extensive damage to human and natural environments and in emotional and physical suffering to a large number of victims. Given these social issues, researchers believe it is becoming more important to understand the strengths of families who overcome serious
crises and to apply this knowledge to support families long term (Oyama & Nozue, 2013).

In order to study family resilience, researchers in Japan have developed two measures. One is the Family Resilience Inventory (FRI; Tokutsu & Kusaka, 2006). This instrument is based on Walsh’s (1998) family resilience framework and was given to 221 college students for the purpose of investigating how they perceived family’s resilience. A factor analysis of this 44-item FRI identified four factors: positive collaboration, commonality, equality, and stability (Tokutsu & Kusaka, 2006).

A second measure of family resilience, Family Resilience Scale (FRS), was developed by Ohyama and Nozue (2013). They initially conducted ceiling and floor analysis and item total correlation test on 56 items, using 125 (44 men, 81 women) participants, 80% of which were college or graduate students. After the tests, 50 items were remained. The main study included 408 participants (144 men, 264 women), and approximately 90% of the participants were college students. After they conducted ceiling effect, floor effect test, and item total correlation test correlation test, 2 items out of 50 items were deducted. After that they conducted factor analysis and found 30 items remained and 5 factors were found. The five factors were labeled as “cohesion,” “trust in family strength,” “balance between individual family members and the family system,” “social and economic resources,” and spirituality” (p. 70).

Ohyama and Nozue (2013), building on Walsh’s (1998) work and previous studies that indicated personal meaning making and spirituality can significantly affect psychological health, described spirituality as both a concept and activity to find new meaning, purpose, and connectedness when people and their families face difficulties.
They note Walsh’s understanding of spirituality is not limited only to religion, but includes communing with nature, and visiting churches, temples, and shrines for spiritual renewal. Further, it includes feeling inspired by art, music and literature. Through these activities, Walsh (2006) argues, people can feel revitalized and renewed to face ordeals with energy and able to find a new way of life. In Ohyama and Nozue’s (2013) FRS, three items were related to transcendence and spirituality: “be able to obtain spiritual relaxation when communing with nature,” “be able to obtain spiritual relaxation when feeling inspired by art, music and literature,” and “the existence of people who already died can be a spiritual support” (p. 68).

While the FRI did not identify “spirituality” factor, the FRS did. Although both the FRI and FRS demonstrated high reliability, neither instrument specified a specific adversity, nor clarified a definition of adversity.

Although the number of studies is limited, a few qualitative studies have examined Japanese people’s process of resilience. Ishii and her colleagues (2014) conducted semi-structured interviews with 8 grandparents (2 males, 6 females) whose adult children had children with special needs. While the researchers did not apply Walsh’s (2003) key processes of family resilience to this study, the grandparents noted a process of accepting the reality of the situation (positive outlook), identifying and valuing what they could do to support their children and grandchildren (making meaning/appraisal, transcendence), allowing themselves to continue to engage in personal interests (flexibility in that there was continuity in routines). The grandparents appeared to be using a positive outlook, engaging in making meaning, showing flexibility
and connectedness by helping and collaborating with their family members while also allowing themselves to engage in established routines.

Further, Morimoto and Sato (2013) conducted a qualitative study using semi-structured interviews, participant observations, and analyses of nursing and treatment record analysis. The researchers studied 19 people with an average age of 60.9 years who were diagnosed with breast, lung, or other cancer and were receiving radiation therapy. This study reported the process of how the participants demonstrated resilience during the treatment. The results showed that as a first step the participants accepted the reality and made the decision to have radiation therapy. As a second step, they thought about the meaning of life and death, and a positive understanding helped them to withstand the hardship of treatment. As a result, participants reported engaging in a third step: valuing and finding daily life important and engaging in typical, everyday activities. Because of the relationship with surrounding people contributed to their emotional stability, which, in turn, had a positive effect on their treatment. As a result of this process, participants reported taking more of an active role in their treatment and in their interactions with others. What these participants report appear to reflect the key processes of making meaning, and transcendence and spirituality (Walsh, 2003).

Kim and Honing (1998) considered children’s resilience in a study of 96 Korean immigrant families with preschoolers and school-aged children. Regardless of mothers' employed status, when the mothers perceived their status as positive, the children had a higher level of reported resilience. Further, when mothers perceived their husbands as supportive of their employment status, they were more likely to perceive their children as resilient. Also, when mothers perceived their childcare arrangements as positive, they
were more likely to report their children as more resilient. Also, mothers who responded to vignettes with higher resilience-promoting behavior also tended to report more resilient children. Although the target population was not sojourning Japanese families, this study implies the relationship of a parental positive outlook on children’s adjustment.

However, no study has been found which used a measure based on Walsh’s (2003) concept of key processes of family resilience to study a specific challenge or adversity, particularly raising children. Also, no study was found that directly examined the relationship between processes of family resilience as described by Walsh (2003) and children’s functioning in Japan.

**Family resilience and key processes of family resilience.** The term “family resilience” is defined as “coping and adaptational processes in the family as a functional unit” (Walsh, 1998, p. 14, emphasis in the original). This concept of family resilience focuses on processes engaged in by family members that contribute to coping positively with stressors, resulting in family members adapting to a crisis or long-term adversity (Walsh, 2006). Walsh’s model is based on system theory and studies noting processes that lead to functioning well as a family and those that lead to family dysfunction. However, to guard against idealizing one type of family, her model also is ecological, recognizing families that respond to stressors based on their unique personal, social and cultural background including “ethnicity, social class, religion, family structure, gender roles, sexual orientation, and life stage” (p. 20). The concept of family resilience is a flexible one “that can encompass many variables and attend to both continuity and change over time” (p. 20).
Building on work and research by a number of scholars such as Garmezy (1987), Seligman (1991), and Werner (1993), Walsh also notes the importance of a developmental perspective to understanding family resilience. As individuals and families experience developmental phases, vulnerability to stress can change and protective processes can support families.

Walsh’s (2006) model also has been influenced by the work in family stress, coping, and adaption. Hill’s (1949) studies of World War II families noted the relationship between stressors (e.g., reuniting with loved ones returning from war) and the importance of family members’ perception of a stressor and the resources they used in response. McCubbin and McCubbin (1993) and McCubbin and Patterson’s (1983a) added the idea of pile-up of family demands (i.e., stressors, strains, transitions) and highlighted a family’s coping and problem-solving strategies are related to their level of adaptation to the stressor.

Walsh’s family resilience framework suggests that any family can engage in these processes and strengthen the ability to overcome challenges. With this emphasis on processes, researchers do not label a family as fitting into “the resilient family” mold but consider how any and each family engages in processes that support its resilience (Walsh, 2006). In reviewing Walsh’s framework, Duncan Lane (2011) notes its many strengths including its allowance for varying cultural and family diversity (Duncan Lane, 2011).

Walsh (2006) has organized the findings of studies on family processes into “a conceptual framework comprising three domains” of family functioning: belief systems, organizational patterns, and communication/problem-solving (p. 25). Each domain includes three processes: family belief systems (making meaning of adversity, positive
outlook, transcendence and spirituality), organization patterns (flexibility, connectedness, social and economic resources), and communication processes (clarity, open emotional sharing, collaborative problem solving). A description of each domain and process follows.

*Family belief system.* “Beliefs are the lenses through which we view the world as we move through life, influencing what we see or do not see and what we make of our perceptions” (Walsh, 2006, p. 49). The family’s belief system can “broadly encompass values, convictions, attitudes, biases, and assumptions, which coalesce to form a set of basic premises that trigger emotional responses, inform decisions, and guide actions” (p. 50). Beliefs can facilitate resolution of problems and healing while constraining beliefs “perpetuate problems and restrict options” (p. 50). Because beliefs are socially defined, family members influence one another as they make sense of a challenge situation, adversity, or crisis.

*Making meaning of adversity.* This first key process of family resilience, making meaning or making sense of an adverse situation or crisis, is at the heart of family resilience (Walsh, 2006). This key process emphasizes the perspective that resilience is relationally based and not an individual trait that someone has or does not have. Walsh argues that families, eventually but often not immediately, do better when a challenging or adverse situation is seen as a “shared challenge” and experiences are normalized or contextualized, for example that distress as a result of the situation is understandable (p. 55). Families make sense of a situation by endowing it with a coherent meaning so it is comprehensible, manageable, and explicable. Families’ appraisal of a situation affects their responses and chosen coping strategies (Walsh, 2003).
Positive outlook. A positive outlook consists of “hope and optimism; [a] focus on strengths and potential; initiative and perseverance; courage and en-courage-ment; and active mastery and acceptance. All are essential in forging the strength needed to withstand and rebound from adversity” (Walsh, 2006, p. 65, emphasis in the original). Hope can energize family members and contribute to overcoming adversity. Also, it is a future-oriented belief about moving toward a better future, no matter how bleak the present. High-functioning families tend to have a more optimistic view of life. Walsh relies on Seligman’s (1991) learned optimism counters the idea of learned helplessness to emphasize the importance of positive thinking, “reinforced by successful experiences and a nurturing context” (p. 67). Further, “positive illusions” (seeing stressful situations with a positive bias in which the facts and implications of the situation and are acknowledged) protect against extreme stress. Affirming family strengths and potential in the midst of difficulties helps families reinforce pride, confidence, and a “can do” spirit. In addition, families with an Eastern philosophical or religious orientation tend to more smoothly accept something which is beyond their control or comprehension, whereas those with a Western-mastery orientation when faced with difficulties tend to have a harder time accepting something outside of their control and instrumental problem-solving (Walsh, 2003).

Transcendence and spirituality. Transcendence beliefs and practices help to provide meaning and purpose beyond immediate challenges. Through cultural and religious traditions, most families find strength, comfort, and guidance in adversity. Religious practices such as prayer and meditation, and religious/congregational affiliation
benefit many families. Further, outside of formal religion, a deep personal connection with nature, music, and art or a higher power can also benefit families (Walsh, 2003).

The worst of times bringing out people’s best is the paradox of resilience. A crisis poses an opportunity to learn, transform and grow in unforeseen directions. A crisis gives a chance for family members to rethink the importance of loved ones or encourage them to heal old wounds. In Walsh’s model (2006) families can learn, change, and grow because of going through adversity is more than a threat but also an opportunity. Family members can grow in being more socially responsible, taking action to benefit others (Walsh, 2003).

**Family organizational patterns.** When facing adversity, families must organize their resources and reorganize themselves to fit changes brought about by a crisis or adversity. In families, as in organizations, resilience is bolstered by a flexible structure, connectedness, and social and economic resources (Walsh, 2003).

**Flexibility.** A core process in resilience is flexibility. Families cannot simply return to normal life as before they faced the crisis or any serious difficulties. Families have to accept the challenge and meet new circumstances by reorganizing their structure, for example, who does what task. Flexibility, however, is also balanced by efforts to sustain continuity and stability. The adaptation of immigrant families to the receiving culture, for example, is fostered by finding ways to maintain connections with valued customs, kin, and the community networks surrounding them (Walsh, 2003).

**Connectedness.** Connectedness, or cohesion, is a critical element for effective family functioning. Mutual support, collaboration, and commitment strengthen family resilience and allow family members to weather the troubled times together.
Connectedness, however, is in a context in which family members respect each other and the differences in perspective, values, separateness and boundaries. Each family member may have different reactions to the same event or may need varying amounts of time to process the experience or situation, depending on their age or the meaning of a lost relationship (Walsh, 2003).

*Social and economic resources.* Relatives and social networks can offer practical and emotional support to families when facing difficulties. Families who are more isolated can be supported by access to community groups and faith organizations as social resources. Community-based agencies and residents are critical resources for families who experience serious challenges of disaster or widespread trauma or who need to prepare for managing such threats in the future (Walsh, 2003).

Walsh (2006) notes that financial security can be an essential element of resilience. However, financial instability should not be used to blame families or to label them as not resilient (Walsh, 2003).

*Communication/Problem-solving processes.* By bringing clarity to crisis situations, encouraging open emotional expression, and promoting collaborative problem-solving, communication processes can foster family resilience. However, cultures differ in many ways, including the expression of feelings (Walsh, 2003).

*Clarity.* A significant process of family resilience is clarifying and sharing crucial information about the crisis situation. Ambiguity or secrecy about current or future expectations, such as a medical prognosis, blocks meaningful and authentic relating, and informed decision-making. By acknowledging the reality of the circumstances, family members enhance recovery. Without acknowledging or discussing of the adversities
facing the family, anxiety may be expressed in children’s symptoms. Sometimes well-intentioned family members try to protect the young and the vulnerable (e.g., ill members or frail elderly) from worry by avoiding painful topics (Walsh, 2006). However, when not expressed verbally, anxiety can be generated as catastrophic fears. Parents help children by reassuring them they will keep them informed as the situation changes and they are open at any time to discuss the children’s questions and concerns. Such conversations are done with consideration of the children’s age and their level of maturity (Walsh, 2003).

Open emotional sharing. An environment of mutual trust, mutual empathy, and tolerance for differences encourages members to share a range of feelings that can be aroused by crisis events and/or chronic stress. Such an environment supports open communication. Crisis events may impact family members differently. Some remain quite upset, while others “move on” to the next stage. To promote relational resilience, couples and families can be encouraged to share their feelings and comfort one another. Finding pleasure and moments of humor in the middle of adversity offers respite and lifts spirits (Walsh, 2003).

Collaborative problem-solving. For family resilience, collaborative problem-solving and conflict management are essential. Brainstorming and resourcefulness offer new possibilities for overcoming the adversity and healing or growing. Shared decision-making based on negotiation, fairness, and reciprocity can help families navigate conflict and misunderstandings. Families engaging in collaborative problem-solving set clear goals and priorities, take concrete steps toward achieving them, and regard failures as learning experiences and build on small successes and learn from failures (Walsh, 2006). Finally, when a crisis event or adversity has been weathered, families, strengthened by
the weathering, anticipate and prepare for future challenges and unpredictable futures (Walsh, 2003).

**Studies of Key Processes in Family Resilience**

In addition to Duncan Lane’s (2011) FRA, other researchers have tried to measure families’ use of key processes of family resilience (Walsh, 2003). Duncan Lane (2011) offered a critique of these efforts. The Family Resilience Assessment Scale was developed by Sixbey (2005) and used by a few others. Duncan Lane (2011) noted that Sixbey (2005) developed the scale drawing a sample from the U.S. population, rather than focusing on a group of people sharing the same adversity. While the instrument demonstrated good reliability, the contents of the scale did not take into account cultural diversity such as race, ethnicity or age.

Duncan Lane’s (2011) study examined the reliability and validity of the Family Resilience Assessment (FRA), a measure she developed based on Walsh’s (2003) family resilience framework. Duncan Lane tested this instrument with a sample of women who were diagnosed with breast cancer. The instrument showed strong reliability and “beginning content, construct, and convergent validity” (p. 84). In this current study, Duncan Lane’s (2011) FRA was translated into Japanese for use with Japanese sojourning families with young children in the U.S.

**Summary**

A number of Japanese sojourners enter the U.S. each year, and many of the sojourners enter with a spouse and young children. It is important to consider these families through a strength-based rather than a deficit lens. The transition of young children entering school in another culture is considered by many temporary immigrants
to be highly stressful and challenging. Only a limited number of studies exist that address Japanese sojourning families with young children.

However, previous studies have not focused on processes of family resilience used by Japanese sojourning families. In Chapter II, I reviewed the concept of family resilience, and the key processes of family resilience (Walsh, 2006). No study was found which included data from both Japanese sojourning fathers and mothers about their use of key processes of resilience or their assessment of their children’s adjustment. Therefore, this study was designed to examine relationships between both Japanese sojourning fathers and mothers’ assessment of the use of processes of family resilience and their children’s adjustment and impact of stressful life events. Chapter III describes the methodology to be used to answer the research questions. Chapter IV presents the result of this study, and Chapter V includes a discussion of the results, limitations of the study, and implications for future research and practice.
CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This study has two steps. The first step is to examine the face validity of a translation of the Family Resilience Assessment (FRA) into Japanese. The second step involves examining the relationship between processes of family resilience and child behavioral adjustment, and processes of family resilience and impact of stressful life events, as reported by sojourning Japanese parents raising children in the U.S. In this chapter I describe the purpose of each step, data collection procedures, measures, sample characteristics and data analysis. Both steps were reviewed and approved by the university’s Human Subjects Institutional Review Board (HSIRB; see Appendix A for HSIRB letter of approval).

Step One: Face Validity of the FRA Translated into Japanese

Background

The FRA instrument, developed by Duncan Lane (2011), was modified to examine processes of family resilience used by sojourning Japanese families (see Appendix B for Dr. Duncan Lane’s letter of permission). The FRA was developed based on Walsh’s (2006) family resilience framework that conceptualizes nine processes in three domains: belief system, organizational pattern, and communication/problem-solving. The FRA is designed to measure each individual family member’s view of the family’s engagement in these processes of resilience. This instrument consists of 29 items
that are rated using a 5-point Likert-scale (not at all, very little, sometimes, a lot, all the time). Initially the instrument was used with women who had been diagnosed with breast cancer. Duncan Lane reported excellent reliability: Cronbach’s Alpha of 0.929. Also, a test of split-half reliability was conducted which was divided by odd (0.86) and even numbers (0.87); the FRA demonstrated high levels of internal consistency.

The FRA is theoretically divided into three domains and each domain has three variables, reflecting Walsh’s (2003) family resilience framework: (1) belief system (positive outlook, make meaning of events, spiritual/ritual and transcendence), (2) organizational pattern (flexibility, connectedness, social/economic resources), and (3) communication processes (clarity, open emotional sharing, collaborative problem-solving).

In addition to the original 29-item FRA, 11 more items were developed by the author of this dissertation. These 11 items were created in consultation with Dr. Duncan Lane and one of the co-chairs of the dissertation committee. These items addressed: experiencing nature (1 item); experiencing artistic or musical expression (1 item); support from Japanese friends and/or acquaintances inside and outside local community (2 items); support from American friends and/or acquaintances (1 item); support from friends and family in Japan (1 item); empathy from and for spouse (2 items); financial security while living in the U.S. (1 item); and trying to make life easier for one another (2 items).

These 11 items reflect research on Japanese and sojourning Japanese families. Asking Japanese parents about experiencing nature and artistic or musical expression is believed to be more culturally sensitive than asking about spiritual rituals (e.g., prayer,
meditation, attending services). According to Ishii (2000), a scholar of Japanese religion from Kokugakuin University, in general, Japanese people tend to look at a “religious organization” as a kind of cult organization that has a charismatic leader and extreme believers who follow the leader and solicit other people and force them to belong to the organization. The terms “prayer, meditation, attending services” might remind participants of a negative image of religion or religious organization and eventually they might not answer the question. Therefore, one of the 11 additional items used the phrase, “feeling a power beyond human beings.”

Regarding asking Japanese parents about seeking support, several scholars reported that Japanese sojourning mothers tend to seek help with raising children or doing housework from Japanese people in their local community rather than outside of their community, whether Japanese or American people (Hohashi & Honda, 2011; Ozeki, 2008; Ozeki & Knowles, 2009; Ozeki & Mizuguchi; 2007). Further, due to the long distance from their home country of Japan, they obtain minimal support from their extended family or friends in Japan. Therefore, four additional items were included that individually asked about seeking support from the local Japanese community, the local American community, and family and friends in Japan.

Added items addressed empathy (feeling understood by spouse and understanding the spouse) and making life easier for one another. Several studies have documented that Japanese sojourning mothers realize that their husbands experience a stressful job situation; therefore, mothers tended not to ask for help with childrearing or/and housework issues because they do not want to increase their husband’s stress which might affect his job (see Arnault, 2002; Hohashi & Honda 2011; Nukaga, 2012; Ozeki &
Likewise, a husband needs to be aware of his wife’s needs and, if necessary, get help from the local Japanese community (Arnault, 2002). For both wives and husbands, empathy with non-verbal expression and acting on that empathy to help the other are important factors in the relationship. Therefore, these four items “I feel empathy from my spouse about the challenges of living in the U.S. with young children,” “My spouse tries to make life easier for me while living in the U.S. with young children,” “I have empathy for my spouse about the challenges of living in the U.S. with young children,” and “I try to make life easier for my spouse while living in the U.S. with young children” were added.

However, for Step 2 of this dissertation research, Dr. Duncan Lane’s 29 items of original FRA, translated into Japanese, was used as the measurement of processes of family resilience. The psychometric properties of the additional items will be examined in a future analysis. A future analysis will consider whether the reliability and validity of the FRA for a Japanese sample is improved with the inclusion of the additional items.

**Establishing Face Validity of the FRA in Japanese**

The first step of this dissertation included translating the FRA into Japanese and then conducting a study to examine the face validity of the FRA. A translation/back-translation process was conducted (Brislin, 1976). That is, the original English items were translated into Japanese by a Japanese scholar of history who had sufficient knowledge and skill of English and Japanese. Next, the Japanese translated version was back-translated into English by another Japanese scholar of Japanese language and literature who was knowledgeable of both Japanese and American cultures and languages. After the back-translation from Japanese to English was completed, the two
translators compared the original English version of the FRA to the back-translated English version to see how they matched. The author of this present dissertation joined the scholars to discuss any changes or necessary adjustment to the wording the Japanese version until we agreed on the translation of each item.

For any instrument to be of practical use, face validity (FV) is an important feature (Nevo, 1985). “Face validity is the degree to which an instrument appears to be an appropriate measure for obtaining the desired information, particularly from the perspective of a potential respondent” (Colton & Covert, 2007, p. 66). Nevo (1985) indicated that “a test with high FV may have a better chance than an equivalent test with low FV of (a) inducing cooperation and positive motivation among subjects before and during the test administration; (b) attracting potential candidates; (c) reducing dissatisfaction and feelings of injustice among low scorers; (d) convincing policymakers, employers, and administrators to implement the test; and (e) improving public relations, including relations with the mass media and the courts” (p. 288). Duncan Lane (2011) included in the title of the FRA instrument “family resilience” to establish face validity. The Japanese version of the FRA did the same.

In addition, Nevo (1985) recommended that in order to establish face validity, it is important to consult with individuals from the target group for their feedback. To establish face validity of the translated FRA into Japanese and the 11 additional items, native speakers of Japanese provided feedback. The author of this present dissertation called eight acquaintance who were Japanese parents living temporarily or permanently in the U.S. to see if they would be interested in learning about this study (see Appendix C). Five Japanese parents participated in face-to-face interviews and three participated in
telephone interviews. After signing a consent document, parents were asked to read the draft of the FRA translated into Japanese and provide feedback whether the wording of the items made sense grammatically and culturally. The three interviews were conducted by telephone because these parents lived at a distance. Before the telephone interview, a draft of the translated FRA was sent to each of these three parents by mail. After receiving a signed consent form, the author of this present dissertation arranged a time to talk with them by phone. During each of the 8 interviews, the author took notes about what a parent said about each item. The notes were recorded on a data collection form designed for this face validity study (see Appendix D for the data collection form that includes the research interview script, demographic items, and draft of the translation of the FRA).

Results

The feedback from these parents suggested changes in the wording and grammar to 19 FRA items. The author of this present dissertation consulted with the translators, Dr. Duncan Lane (2011), and faculty to determine the changes to make. Dr. Duncan Lane approved the final changes. Four types of changes were made: grammar, changing a word or phrase in English (which was then translated into Japanese), changing a word in Japanese while the English remained the same, and adding a phrase in English and Japanese.

Grammar was modified in three items by changing a postpositional particle to specify the situation. Eleven phrases in English from the original FRA were changed: “overwhelmed” to “bogged down”; “The experience of having shared past challenges” to “experience of working hard together in the past”; “challenges” to “experience of living”;
“in spite of” to “even though” or “although”; “make the best of the situation” to “keep in mind to live with a positive attitude”; “nurture me” to “helps me grow”; “reconnection” to “deepen our connection”; “find support” to “are supported by”; “face the challenge” to “deal with”; and “talk openly” to “can say whatever we want to say.”

Three words in Japanese were changed but the English remained the same. The English words were: “encounter,” “creative ways,” and “feelings.” Nine words or phrases in Japanese were added to clarify the meaning of an item. One item needed the pronoun “I” added to the initial Japanese translation; religion and invisible power were added to clarify the meaning of spirituality; the phrases “the experience of,” “after we have started to live,” “when we faced difficulties,” “in spite of,” and “I think” were added for specificity.

**Step 2: Main Study**

In the next section, recruitment efforts, research participants, measurements, data analysis, and research questions for the second step are described. This study used a survey design. A questionnaire was distributed to sojourning Japanese parents in the U.S. Participation in this study was anonymous; participants’ names or addresses were not asked.

This study had three research questions (RQ):

RQ1: (a) What key processes of family resilience do sojourning Japanese mothers and fathers in the U.S. report using? (b) Are there significant differences between FRA reported by mothers and fathers?
RQ2: (a) What is the relationship between family resilience reported by Japanese fathers and mothers sojourning in the U.S. and (b) reported impact of stressful life events and behavioral adjustment of their children?

RQ3: (a) When examining if family resilience can predict children’s behavioral adjustment, and (b) if family resilience can predict the impact of stressful life events as reported by mothers and fathers, are there significant differences between mothers and fathers? Specifically, (c) what, if any, family resilience variables are associated with children’s behavioral adjustment and are there significant differences between mothers and fathers?

To analyze the relationship among the variables mentioned above, inferential statistics were used, particularly correlation analyses in which nominal and ordinal data from the instruments were analyzed to isolate any meaningful relationships (Schwandt, 2001). According to Creswell (2009), a quantitative approach is recommended to test objective theories by examining the relationship among variables (see also Fraenkel & Wallen, 2005). This study asked parents about their use of key processes of family resilience; the impact of stressful life events; their child’s behavioral adjustment; marital satisfaction; demographics; and other questions about their level of stress related to raising young children, importance of being a parent on identity, and time spent with children.

The section below describes the recruitment efforts and research participants. Then a description of data collection procedures follows.
Phases of Recruiting Distribution Sites

Japanese educational organizations in the U.S. are institutions where Japanese parents gather, and they served as a venue through which to recruit parents for this study. The following paragraphs describe the educational organizations that serve children of Japanese sojourning parents who have at least one child between the ages of 4 and 8 (kindergarten to second graders). Research packets were distributed to parents of kindergarteners, first graders, and second graders at six Japanese educational organizations in the U.S.

This section summarizes three phases of participant recruitment. The required number of participants did not result from phase one; therefore, phases two and three of recruitment were proceeded.

To determine whether recruiting parents through educational institutions would be feasible, I phoned the principal of a school during the fall of 2013 who indicated he would be willing to review a request to be a distribution site. After the study was approved by the university’s HSIRB, Phase 1 recruiting started with calling this principal; he agreed to receive an invitation (see Appendix E for a script of the phone call with this first principal).

A letter was sent to a principal describing the study that included an invitation for the school to serve as a distribution site and a place for the principal’s signature indicating agreement to distribute research packets to parents of children in K-2 (see Appendix F for a copy of the letter). A copy of the research questionnaire accompanied the letter. The letter to the principal referred to the copy of the questionnaire.
The principal agreed that the school would serve as a distribution site, and signed and returned the form. The research packets were delivered in person in order to thank the principal, discuss ways to distribute the research packets, answer questions, and give thank-you gifts to the school principal and teachers (i.e., a book of photographs of Michigan; a gift basket of Michigan products). Delivering the research packets in person when possible and giving small gifts were culturally appropriate. During this meeting, this first principal decided to distribute the research packets at upcoming group meetings with parents of children and so requested a flyer (see Appendix G for a copy of the flyer). Because a group meeting of parents of one grade had already passed, the principal decided to send a research packet home with each child in that grade.

In addition to this first school, phone call was made to a principal of another school (see Appendix H for the telephone script used with this and subsequent principals and juku director); he had already learned of the study from the first principal and was willing to receive an invitation for the school to serve as a distribution site. He requested a letter by fax and he returned his signed form by fax indicating the school could be a distribution site. The principal requested that research packets be mailed in order to distribute them at upcoming meetings with parents of children. Research packets were sent to use at these meetings. The principal also requested a flyer to hand out to parents and indicated what he wanted on the flyer. The flyer was finalized and reviewed and approved by HSIRB, so it could be distributed to parents at one of these meetings. A copy of this flyer, with the name of the principal and school deleted, is in Appendix I. Additional research packets were taken when meeting with this principal in person. Each research packet had a separate questionnaire, consent document, and resource list (of
associations that may provide links to professionals who offer counseling services in Japanese should a participant experience distress from reading and/or responding to the questionnaire) for a mother and a father; and a thank-you note, incentives (i.e., two notecards and three sheets of stickers; these materials are described below).

Due to nearing the end of the school year, recruitment moved on to Phase 2. In Phase 2, the author of the dissertation relied on a personal contact to be introduced to a principal of the third school and a director of a juku. The personal contact described who the author of this present dissertation was and that she would like to contact the site about the dissertation research project (see Appendix J). The principal and juku director indicated that the author could contact them; the author called them to explain the study. They were interested in being a possible site, so the author sent a letter that described the study and requested that the school or juku serve as a distribution site, and a document for the person’s signature. They both returned signed forms indicating agreement to be a distribution site. The author delivered the research packets in person in order to thank the individual, review the steps to take to distribute the research packets, answer questions, and give thank-you gifts.

Another personal contact distributed research packets to acquaintances. A script of what to say to parents and research packets were provided to the contact (see Appendix K for a script used when giving directions to the personal contact and the contact’s script when distributing research packets). On the outside of the research packet, the following information was written in Japanese and English: “Dear Parents: This packet is for a Japanese employee assigned to work in the U.S. temporarily and a spouse who are parents of a child in kindergarten, first grade, or second grade.”
To increase the number of responses, in Phase 3, I telephoned three additional Japanese schools in the U.S. Two out of three principals declined to participate; one agreed to participate. He was sent a letter of invitation, and he returned the signed form. The principal of the distribution site indicated a meeting was not necessary. Therefore a letter (see Appendix L) and thank-you gifts were sent to the school with the research packets.

In summary, a total of 553 research packets were distributed (i.e., 1,106 questionnaires) at six distribution sites in the U.S., and 118 questionnaires were returned (for an initial return rate of 10.7%). Eleven questionnaires were excluded from this study for one of three reasons: 4 questionnaires arrived after data analysis had begun; 6 questionnaires were returned by parents who chose a target child under the age of 4, an age outside of the criteria for inclusion in the study; and one questionnaire had an almost blank SDQ. A total of 107 valid questionnaires were used for this study. The final return rate was 9.7%. After data analysis was completed, a thank-you letter and a summary report of the study was sent to the participating sites.

**Recruiting Parents**

Four of the sites were visited in person to discuss how to distribute the packets. All of them were either Japanese day supplemental schools or a juku. When meeting with a principal, staff, and/or director, the author followed a script (see Appendix M) and described the contents of the research packet, the anonymity of the study, what teachers would say if handing out research packets to parents, and the importance of parents’ choice to take a research packet. During this meeting and in subsequent phone calls, the
Using a sample research packet, the author showed the principal, staff and/or director, what parents would receive. Directions in English and Japanese for parents were printed on the outside of the research packet (see Appendix N). Inside the research packet (a 9 in. × 12 in. envelope) were two smaller envelopes (each one 6½ in. × 9½ in., one for the mother and for the father), a thank-you note, two note cards for parents and a sheet of stickers for the children. Each smaller envelope contained a HSIRB-approved consent document, a resource list for the consent document and a list of resources), a questionnaire, and a postage-paid return envelope. (See Appendix O for a copy of the research questionnaire.)

In summary, one site distributed research packets through teachers. A second site distributed a flyer in group meeting with parents; the flyer described the study, and parents could take a research packet from a designated location if they wished to. A third site distributed the packets to parents in two ways: teachers passed out research packets to children in one grade to take home, and a flyer was passed out to parents at a meeting and interested could parents take a research packet from a designated location if they wished to. A fourth site distributed a flyer to parents who could pick up a research packet at a central location if interested. The fifth site, the one not visited, sent research packets home with children. The sixth means of distributing research packets to parents was through a personal contact who handed packets out to sojourning parents she knew.
Measures

This study is a cross-sectional design to examine the reported use of key processes of family resilience and children’s behavioral adjustment. To answer the research questions four self-report instruments were used: (1) the Family Resilience Assessment (FRA; Duncan Lane, 2011) translated into Japanese for this study, (2) the translated Japanese version of Strength and Difficulties Questionnaires (SDQ; Goodman, 1997; Matsuishi et al., 2008), (3) the translated version of the Stressful Life Event Scale (SLES; Hasui et al., 2009), and (4) the translated Japanese version of the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale (KMS; Schumm et al. 1986). Permission was obtained to use these instruments (see Appendix B). Demographic and other items (e.g., Level of Stress Raising Children) developed for this study were translated into Japanese by the author of this present dissertation.

Family Resilience Assessment (FRA; Duncan Lane, 2011) translated into Japanese. Duncan Lane (2011) developed the FRA based on Walsh’s (2003) key processes of family resilience and conducted a study to examine its reliability and validity. The 29-item FRA was “created to quantitatively measure family resilience from the perspective of women who have been diagnosed with breast cancer,” offering “an individual’s perspective on [her] family’s resilience” (Duncan Lane, 2011, p. 5). Unlike other studies on Walsh’s family resilience framework, Duncan Lane created an instrument for a group of people experiencing the same adversity or challenge (Walsh, 2006).

The FRA demonstrated reliability with a Cronbach’s Alpha of .929. Cronbach’s Alpha (Cronbach, 1951) measures internal consistency of an instrument as a whole (all
the items), and is recommended for social science research in which participants are asked to indicate how much they agree or disagree with a statement. Cronbach’s Alpha is measured on a scale of zero to one, and a coefficient alpha of 0.70 or higher is accepted as indicating reliability (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

Validity of the FRA was addressed in multiple ways (Duncan Lane, 2011). Face validity was established by using “family resilience” in the title of the instrument and designing items that asked participants about their family. To establish content validity (i.e., whether the instrument is about family resilience), items were written for each key process and linked to Walsh’s (2002) framework and relevant family literature. Moreover, Dr. Froma Walsh, who developed the family resilience framework, reviewed FRA items and provided guidance. Construct validity (i.e., the degree to which the instrument addresses the concepts under consideration) was addressed by operationalizing three latent variables into nine variables. Initial convergent validity was addressed by correlating responses to the FRA with items from the Self-Report Inventory Version II, (Beavers & Hampson, 2000) and the Family Assessment Device (Epstein, Bishop, & Levin, 1978). Multicultural validity addresses whether the “instrument measures what it purports to measure as understood by a particular audience” (Colton & Covert, 2007, p. 69). The FRA was written at a 8th grade reading level in English, and, based on the feedback to Duncan Lane (2011), the phrase “women who have been diagnosed with breast cancer” was used in lieu of “survivor.”

In this study, I used a Japanese translated version of the FRA. As with the original study of the FRA, this present study also focused on a group of people experiencing the same challenge. In this case it was sojourning Japanese families living in the U.S. with
young children. In recognition of Dr. Duncan Lane’s involvement in guiding the translation process, permitting use of the FRA, and offering suggestions about data analysis, she served as an external member of the dissertation committee.

To assess the level of family resilience, the FRA utilizes a Likert-scale (1 = not at all, 2 = very little, 3 = sometimes, 4 = a lot, 5 = all the time). The overall score is the sum of all of the items; a score can range from 1 to 145. A higher score refers to greater use of key processes of family resilience, and lower scores refer to less use of key processes of family resilience.

**Strength and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ; Goodman, 1997).** The parent Strength and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ, Goodman, 1997) was used to measure children’s behavioral adjustment. The SDQ contains 25 items about children’s negative and positive behaviors. Parents answer by indicating: (0 = not true, 1 = somewhat true, or 2 = certainly true). The SDQ is divided into five scales: (1) emotional symptoms, (2) conduct problems, (3) hyperactivity/inattention, (4) peer relationship problems, and (5) prosocial behavior. Goodman, Lamping, and Ploubidis (2010) recommended when using the SDQ with low-risk samples, a three-subscale division is more appropriate, that is, children’s externalizing, internalizing, and prosocial behaviors as reported by their mothers and fathers. In this study, the Japanese translated version of parent SDQ (Matsuishi et al., 2008) was used to measure the socio-emotional behavioral adjustment of the Japanese sojourning children, ages from 4 to 8 years old. The parent SDQ has been validated for a Japanese speaking population and recommended bandings of normal, borderline, and clinical ranges have been defined for each of the five scales for Japanese children ages 4 to 12 (Matsuishi et al., 2008). Matsuishi and colleagues concluded that
the Japanese version was “approximately as reliable and useful as the original English questionnaire” (p. 414). To measure the scale’s reliability, internal consistency was examined.

A Cronbach alpha of .77 was obtained for the total difficulties score and a Cronbach alpha of .66 was obtained for the prosocial behavior scale (Matsuishi et al., 2008). In this present study, the total difficulties score demonstrated reliability with a Cronbach’s alpha of .76, and a Cronbach alpha of .74 was obtained for the prosocial behavior scale.

**Stressful Life Events Scale (SLES; Hasui et al., 2009).** The SLES measures the level of perceived stress using a single item. It is assumed that perceived stress can reflect a person’s psychological experience more accurately than just summing up the number of stressful events (Hasui et al., 2009). SLES asks participants to “Consider things happening in the last week that were undesirable, upsetting, unhappy, awful, or saddening, and estimate the impact that they had on you. Rate it as 0 if there were not negative effects and 100 if they were the worst” (Hasui et al., 2009, p. 16). Following this question, for this study, was a list of possible things (e.g., speaking English, relationships at work, raising children) that could be considered stressors experienced by sojourning Japanese parents. Participants were asked to indicate if any of these stressors were experienced during the past week. Listing possible stressors was part of Hasui and colleagues’ study of resilience among college students in Japan; this study follows the format of the original question but lists stressors relevant to sojourning Japanese parents.

**The Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale (KMSS; Schumm et al., 1986).** The Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale consists of 3 items rated on a 7-point Likert scale,
ranging from 1 (extremely dissatisfied) to 7 (extremely satisfied) (e.g., I am satisfied with my relationship with my partner). A total score ranges from 3 to 21. KMS has established test-retest reliability and criterion, concurrent and discriminant validity (Crane, Middleton, & Bean, 2000; Shumm et al., 1986). KMS has been translated into Japanese (Sugawara & Takuma, 1997). In this study, the KMS demonstrated reliability with a Cronbach’s Alpha of .971. Marital satisfaction was measured by the Japanese version of Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale (KMSS; Kurosawa & Kato, 2011, 2012; Sugawara & Takuma, 1997). High reliability and validity have been reported for the original English version (Shumm et al, 1986); no articles reporting the psychometrics of the Japanese KMS were found.

**Level of stress raising children.** Parents’ level of stress related to raising young children in the U.S. was assessed by one item: “How much stress do you feel raising young children in America?” Response options were: (1 = no stress, 2 = a little, 3 = some, 4 = quite a bit, 5 = and a lot).

**Time with children.** Two items addressed the time parents spend with children. One item asked about the length of time a parent spends with her or his child on work days and on weekends. The second time asked whether parents would like to spend more or less time with their children or if they think they spend the right amount of time with their children. Response options were: (1 = I would like to spend less time with my child, 2 = I think I spend the right amount of time with my child, 3 = I would like to spend more time with my child).
Importance of being a mother or father to identity. One item asked parents how important to their identity is being a mother or father. Response options were: 1 = not at all, 2 = a little, 3 = some, 4 = quite a bit, 5 = a lot.

English proficiency. Parents were asked to assess their English speaking proficiency level for themselves and their children. Response options were: 1 = not at all, 2 = a little, 3 = some, 4 = quite a bit, 5 = a lot.

Demographic items. In addition to the instruments and items noted above parents were asked demographic information: their and their children’s sex and age; and children’s attendance at either a full-time Japanese school or supplemental school. Based on prior studies, the parents were also asked how long they have been living in the United States; how many times they have experienced living abroad as sojourners; their educational level; and the number of hours worked outside of the home.

Open-ended question. The questionnaire ended with an open ended question: “please feel free to describe any other thoughts or experiences you would like us to know about living in America with young children.”

Description of Sample

Table 1 presents sample characteristics. Of the 107 parents who participated in this study, 37 were fathers and 70 were mothers. Their average age was 38, and 76%, were living outside of Japan for the first time. The average number of years in the U.S. was 3.1, ranging from .08 to 17. Ninety-two percent of the fathers had a college or university bachelor’s degree or graduate degree, compared with 58% of mothers. Thirty-six fathers responded to number of hours worked, of which one father reported working zero hours per week. Fathers averaged working 51.78 hours a week, with a range from 9
to 84 hours. Five mothers reported working. While the mean number of hours work for mothers was 20.9, the range was 2 to 40 hours per week. Parents’ English competency was a mean of 2.67, between “a little” and “some” (ranging from 1 to 5; $SD = 1.02$). Fathers rated their English competency higher ($M = 3.16$, $SD = 1.07$) than that of mothers ($M = 2.41$, $SD = .90$).

Parents had an average of 2 children. The average age of the target child was 6.08 years, and the range was from 4.08 to 8.17. Fifty-five percent of target children were female. Seventy percent of children attended a supplemental school. The mean score of children’s English competency as reported by parents was 2.61, ranging from 1 to 5 ($SD = 1.20$).

Fathers reported spending an average of 1.41 hours per weekday and 15.54 hours per weekend with their child. Mothers reported spending an average of 7.58 hours per weekday and 22.28 hours per weekend with their child. Sixty-eight percent of fathers reported wanting to spend more time with their children, while 84% of mothers reported that they were spending the right amount of time with their children.

To assess the importance of being a mother or father to identity, parents were asked, “How important to your identity is being a father or mother?” using a Likert scale ($1 = $ not at all, $2 = $ very little, $3 = $ some, $4 = $ quite a bit, and $5 = $ a lot). The mean response from mothers was higher ($M = 4.29$, $SD = .84$) than the mean response from fathers ($M = 3.89$, $SD = .81$).
Table 1

**Sample Characteristics**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables (number of participants who responded)</th>
<th>Overall Sample (107)</th>
<th>Father (37)</th>
<th>Mother (70)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age of Respondents</td>
<td>N (%)</td>
<td>Mean (SD)</td>
<td>N (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>106</td>
<td>38.4 (3.9)</td>
<td>38.8 (3.9)</td>
<td>38.1 (3.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years in U.S.</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>3.1 (3.2)</td>
<td>3.3 (3.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Times Lived Outside of Japan</td>
<td>N (%)</td>
<td>Mean (SD)</td>
<td>N (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once</td>
<td>81 (76%)</td>
<td>37 (100)</td>
<td>28 (75.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twice</td>
<td>26 (24%)</td>
<td>37 (100)</td>
<td>9 (24.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Level</td>
<td>N (%)</td>
<td>Mean (SD)</td>
<td>N (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>8 (7.5%)</td>
<td>37 (100)</td>
<td>2 (5.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior</td>
<td>24 (22.6%)</td>
<td>37 (100)</td>
<td>1 (2.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College/other College/University School</td>
<td>60 (56.6%)</td>
<td>23 (62.2%)</td>
<td>37 (53.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate School</td>
<td>14 (13.2%)</td>
<td>11 (29.7%)</td>
<td>3 (4.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paid Work Hours</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>20.3 (27.13)</td>
<td>36 (97.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Children</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>2.11 (.678)</td>
<td>37 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Target Child Age</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>6.08 (1.13)</td>
<td>37 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Target Child Gender</td>
<td>N (%)</td>
<td>Mean (SD)</td>
<td>N (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>59 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>47 (44.8)</td>
<td>16 (44.4%)</td>
<td>38 (55.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>58 (55.2)</td>
<td>20 (56.4%)</td>
<td>38 (55.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Target Child’s School Type</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Day</td>
<td>16 (15.2)</td>
<td>5 (13.5%)</td>
<td>11 (16.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplemental</td>
<td>74 (70.5)</td>
<td>26 (70.3%)</td>
<td>48 (70.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither</td>
<td>15 (14.3)</td>
<td>6 (16.2%)</td>
<td>9 (13.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent’s English Competency</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>2.67 (1.02)</td>
<td>37 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child’s English Competency</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>2.61 (1.21)</td>
<td>37 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spend Time Child Week</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>5.38 (5.55)</td>
<td>37 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spend Time Child Weekend</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>19.83 (10.40)</td>
<td>37 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spend Time Child Less</td>
<td>4 (3.8)</td>
<td>1 (2.7)</td>
<td>3 (4.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Right</td>
<td>68 (64.8)</td>
<td>11 (29.7)</td>
<td>57 (83.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More</td>
<td>33 (31.4)</td>
<td>25 (67.6)</td>
<td>8 (11.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identity as father/mother</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>4.15 (.84)</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Preliminary Data Analysis

Reliability of the FRA. First, Cronbach’s alpha test was used to examine the reliability of the FRA. Cronbach’s alpha (Cronbach, 1951) is recommended for social science research in which participants are asked to indicate how much they agree or disagree with a statement (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Cronbach’s alpha is measured on a scale of zero to 1, and a coefficient alpha of 0.70 or higher is accepted as indicating reliability (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). The Japanese translation of the FRA showed high reliability (Cronbach’s alpha = .922).

Second, to test for internal consistency split-half reliability was used (Thompson, Green, & Yang, 2010). This method divides all items in the measure by odd (Cronbach’s alpha = .839) and even (Cronbach’s alpha = .859) numbers and measures the reliability of the two groups, using Cronbach’s alpha (Colton & Covert, 2007). Further internal consistency for both halves of the FRA can be demonstrated due to the high levels of Cronbach’s alpha.

Test for assumption of normality. Third, the Shapiro-Wilks test and Q-Q plots were used to test the normality assumption of the independent variable of interest (FRA). Also, standardized residual scatterplots (Q-Q-Plot) and co-linearity diagnostics were examined to make sure the variables met the regression assumption of normality.

The Q-Q Plot indicates if the data follow or does not follow a diagonal line. If the data follow a diagonal line, the data are normally distributed. Based on the normality tests, the FRA data appears to be normally distributed, as the data follow the diagonal line in the Q-Q Plot (see Figure 2).
Another indicator of normality is the Shapiro-Wilk test. This test is recommended with sample size less than 2,000 (Pallant, 2005, p. 57). The hypothesis testing with Shapiro-Wilk is based on the null hypothesis, that the data are normally distributed. Rejecting the null hypothesis (the data are normally distributed) indicates the opposite (the data are not normally distributed). In other words, not rejecting the null hypothesis (when the significance level is greater than .05, \( p > .05 \)) indicates acceptance of the null hypothesis, therefore, assuming normality. The Shapiro-Wilk results with the FRA data reflect a significant level of .634 (greater than .05). The significance level was not significant \( (p > .05) \); therefore, the assumption of normality (that the FRA data come from a normal distribution) was accepted (see Table 2).

*Figure 2. Q-Q Plot: Assumption of normality test for FRA.*
Table 2
Shapiro-Wilk Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FRA</td>
<td>.990</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Zero-order correlations. Finally, to specify whether demographic and background information variables were associated with FRA, a zero-order correlation test was conducted to examine the data for the whole sample and the sub-groups of fathers and mothers. (See Appendix P for the complete zero-order correlation table.)

The results for whole data showed there were statistically significant positive correlations between FRA and KMS ($r = .634, p = .000$), and Importance of Being a Mother or Father to Identity ($r = .265, p = .006$); and inverse correlations between FRA and Stressful Life Events Scale (SLES) ($r = -.237, p = .015$), Stress Raising Young Children in the U.S. ($r = -.249, p = .010$), and Time Spent with Child on the Weekend ($r = -.242, p = .014$).

For sojourning Japanese fathers’ group, there was a statistically significant positive correlation between FRA and KMS ($r = .541, p = .001$). (See Appendix Q for the complete zero-order correlation table for fathers.)

For sojourning Japanese mothers, there were statistically significant positive correlations between FRA and KMS ($r = .684, p = .000$), Importance of Being a Mother ($r = .340, p = .004$), and SLES ($r = -.324, p = .007$); and statistically significant negative correlations Stress Raising Young Children in the U.S. ($r = -.330, p = .006$), Length of Time Spent in the U.S. ($r = -.305, p = .011$), and Time Spent with Child on the Weekend.
(r = -.290, p = .019). (See Appendix R for the complete zero-order correlation table for mothers.)

Data Analysis

This study addressed the following research questions:

RQ1: What key processes of family resilience do sojourning Japanese mothers and fathers in the U.S. report using? Are there differences between FRA reported by mothers and fathers?

RQ2: What is the relationship between family resilience reported by Japanese fathers and mothers sojourning in the U.S. and reported impact of stressful life events and behavioral adjustment of their children?

RQ3: When examining if family resilience can predict children’s behavioral adjustment, and if family resilience can predict the impact of stressful life events as reported by mothers and fathers, are there differences between mothers and fathers? Specifically, what, if any, family resilience variables are associated with children’s behavioral adjustment and are there differences between mothers and fathers?

To examine the questions, descriptive statistics and inferential statistics (i.e., t test, zero-order correlation, partial correlation, and linear regressions, hierarchical regression) were used to analyze the data for the whole sample and for the fathers and mothers. Descriptive statistics were conducted on all items and mean differences between fathers and mothers’ reports of engaging in key processes of family resilience as measured by the FRA and reports of their children’s adjustment as measured by the SDQ were examined. Zero-order correlation was used to examine potential control variables, first with the sample as whole and then for sub-samples of fathers and mothers. Partial
correlation using control variables was used to examine the relationship between FRA and SDQ. Hierarchical regression analysis was used to examine to what extent family resilience could predict child adjustment and the impact of stressful life events. Finally, correlation analyses were used to examine whether processes of family resilience were associated with child behavioral adjustment. Finally, thematic analysis of responses to the open-ended question was conducted. With the focus of this study on resilience and stressors in mind, the analysis identified seven topics affecting parents’ lives positively and negatively. Comments were also written about the content of the questionnaire (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

**Summary**

In this chapter I described the methodology for the proposed study. The study examined three research questions: (1) (a) What key processes of family resilience (FRA) do sojourning Japanese mothers and fathers in the U.S. report using? (b) Are there differences between the family resilience processes reported by mothers and fathers? (2) (a) What is the relationship between key processes of family resilience reported by the sample of Japanese fathers and mothers sojourning in the U.S. and reported adjustment behaviors of their young children? Specifically, (b) what family resilience variables are associated with children’s adjustment? (3) (a) When examining the relationship between family resilience and child behavior, and (b) the impact of stressful life events and family resilience reported by mothers and fathers, are (c) there differences between fathers and mothers?

Measures, recruitment of sites for distributing research packets, data collection procedures, and sample characteristics were described in this chapter. Data were analyzed
using SPSS. Data analysis included using descriptive statistics, t test, zero-order correlation, partial correlation, linear regressions and hierarchical regression analyses.

The results of this study will be described at Chapter IV. Interpretation of results, limitations of this study, and implications for future research and practice are addressed in Chapter V.
CHAPTER IV
RESULTS

Overview of Purpose and Questions

This chapter presents the results from a survey study of Japanese sojourning parents in the U.S. with at least one child who was between the ages of 4 and 8. The results of this study are presented in two sections. The first section presents descriptive statistics (i.e., means, ranges and standard deviations) for the main variables of interest in this study (i.e., Family Resilience Assessment Scale [FRA], Strength and Difficulties Questionnaire [SDQ], Stressful Life Events [SLES]). The second section presents the results of the statistical analyses for each of the three research questions.

Description of Data

Descriptive statistics (including the means, standard deviations, range, median and mode or percentage) were conducted on FRA, SDQ, SLES, KMS, and amount of stress related to raising a young child in the U.S. Table 3 presents the descriptive statistics of variables.

FRA. FRA scores for the whole sample ranged from 58 to 141 with a mean of 101.318 ($SD = 17.918$). Fathers’ scores ranged from 58.00 to 130.00 with a mean of 101.16 ($SD = 16.093$). Mothers’ scores ranged from 58.00 to 141, with a mean of 101.40 ($SD = 18.92$). A $t$ test confirmed no significant difference between father and mother means ($t = -.065$, $p = .948$).
Table 3

Descriptive Statistics of Main Variables by Parent Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Whole</th>
<th>Father</th>
<th>Mother</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRA Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SDQ Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficulties</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SDQ Internalizing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SDQ Externalizing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pro-social</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SLES</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stress Raising Child</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KMS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SDQ.** Father, mother, and total sample mean scores for the SDQ scales (total, externalizing, internalizing, and pro-social) are shown in Table 3. Total children behavioral difficulties scores (a sum of scores from the emotional problems, conduct, hyperactivity, and peer problems sub-scales) in this sample ranged from 0 to 24 with a mean of 9.35 (SD = 5.02). Internalizing problems scores (a sum of the items from the emotional and peer problems sub-scales) in this sample ranged from 0 to 11 with a mean of 3.79 (SD = 2.56). Externalizing problems (a sum of the items from the conduct and hyperactivity sub-scales) in this sample ranged from 0 to 14 with a mean of 5.56 (SD = 3.44). Pro-social behavior scores in this sample ranged from 0 to 10 with a mean of 6.30
Descriptive statistics indicated no differences between fathers’ and mothers’
total children behavioral difficulties, externalizing, and internalizing scores. $t$ tests
confirmed no significant differences between fathers’ and mothers’ total children
behavioral difficulties, internalizing, and externalizing mean scores (see Table 3).

**SLES.** As presented in Table 3 the mean reported impact of stressful life events
by parents was 35.86 ($SD = 28.28$). Although fathers reported a lower impact of stressful
life events ($M = 33.65$, $SD = 23.91$) than mothers ($M = 37.06$, $SD = 30.50$), this
difference was not statistically significant. Table 4 shows the percentage of parents who
reported a specific stressor occurring in the past week. The most frequently chosen
stressor was “speaking English” (39%). Forty-seven percent of mothers and 23.5% of
fathers reported this stressor. The most frequently selected stressor for fathers was
“relationship at work” (44.1%), and for mothers was “speaking English” (47%).

Further, as Table 4 shows, parents provided specific descriptions of what 22
parents (1 father and 21 mothers) considered to be stressful life events related to
“childrearing.” The father commented as “the role of childrearing with his wife.” For
mothers, most frequent comments were related to children’s behavioral problems ($N = 9$).
Table 4 also shows 20 parents selected “other” stressful life events; 18 (10 fathers and 8
mothers) wrote what the specific “other” stressor was. The most frequent other stressful
life event was “job assignments” ($N = 7$), and written by fathers. The most frequent
comments from mothers were “relationship with non-Japanese” ($N = 2$), “spouse’s work
hours” ($N = 2$) and “health” ($N = 2$).
Table 4

Frequencies of Stressful Life Events

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Life Events</th>
<th>Total % (N)(^a)</th>
<th>Father % (n = 34)</th>
<th>Mother % (n = 66)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Speaking English</td>
<td>39 (39)</td>
<td>23.5 (8)</td>
<td>47.0 (31)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding English</td>
<td>35 (35)</td>
<td>26.5 (9)</td>
<td>39.4 (26)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Childrearing</td>
<td>28 (28)</td>
<td>5.9 (2)</td>
<td>39.4 (26)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child behavioral problems</td>
<td>(9)</td>
<td>(9)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School-related issues</td>
<td>(4)</td>
<td>(4)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-attitude (blaming themselves)</td>
<td>(3)</td>
<td>(3)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children’s academic issues</td>
<td>(2)</td>
<td>(2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High education fee for children</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children’s health issues</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role for childrearing with spouse</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>(22)</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>(21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship among Japanese community</td>
<td>19 (19)</td>
<td>2.9 (1)</td>
<td>27.3 (18)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship at work</td>
<td>18 (18)</td>
<td>44.1 (15)</td>
<td>0.5 (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of support from spouse</td>
<td>15 (15)</td>
<td>14.7 (5)</td>
<td>15.2 (10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isolation from American community</td>
<td>6 (6)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>9.1 (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of support from extended family</td>
<td>3 (3)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>4.5 (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>20 (20)</td>
<td>19.4 (10)</td>
<td>15.2 (10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job assignment</td>
<td>(7)</td>
<td>(7)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship with non-Japanese</td>
<td>(3)</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>(2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>(2)</td>
<td>(2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spouse’s spend work hours</td>
<td>(2)</td>
<td>(2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship with Japanese at work</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>place</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship with Children’s school</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic issue</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hobby (Sport)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>(18)</td>
<td>(10)</td>
<td>(8)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\)Multiple responses allowed.

Stress raising children in the U.S. As presented in Table 3, the mean reported amount of stress by parents was ranged from 1 (no stress) to 5 (a lot) with a mean of 2.62 (\(SD = 1.01\)). Fathers reported less stress related to raising young children in the U.S. (\(M = 2.30, SD = 1.02\)) than mothers (\(M = 2.80, SD = .96\)). This difference was
statistically significant ($t = 2.49, p = .014$; see Table 3). Forty-one percent of mothers reported “no stress” or “a little,” 34% reported “some” stress, and 23% reported “quite a bit” or “a lot” of stress raising young children. Fifty-nine percent of fathers reported “no stress” or “a little,” 30% reported “some” stress, and 11% reported “quite a bit” or “a lot” of stress raising young children.

**Marital satisfaction.** As presented in Table 3, the mean reported marital satisfaction scores ranged from 3 to 21 with a mean of 15.86 ($SD = 4.42$). Fathers’ scores ranged from 6.00 to 21.00 with a mean of 16.25 ($SD = 4.41$), and mothers’ scores ranged from 3.00 to 21.00 with a mean of 15.66 ($N = 67, SD = 4.44$). Descriptive statistics indicated no differences between fathers’ and mothers’ marital satisfaction scores. $t$ tests confirmed no significant differences.

**Research Question 1**

Research question 1a: What key processes of family resilience (FRA) do sojourning Japanese mothers and fathers in the U.S. report using?

Research question 1b: Are there significant differences between the family resilience key processes reported by mothers and fathers?

**Research Question 1a**

All key processes of family resilience were reported being used by at least some of the responding parents. Table 5 presents the nine key processes in order of reported use, based on means.

Of the nine key processes, the three that were most reported were positive outlook ($M = 14.95$), transcendence/spirituality ($M = 14.35$), and make meaning ($M = 14.09$). These three processes belong to the category belief system in Walsh’s (2006) family
resilience framework. The next three most reported processes were connectedness ($M = 12.32$; belonging to the domain of organizational patterns), problem solving ($M = 11.49$) and open emotional sharing ($M = 10.95$). Problem-solving and open emotional sharing belong to the domain of communication processes (Walsh, 2006). The processes reported used the least were social and economic resources ($M = 8.41$) and flexibility ($M = 7.78$), both of which belong to organizational pattern domain, and clarity ($M = 7.16$) which belongs to the communication process domain.

**Research Question 1b**

To examine the research question 1b, a $t$ test was conducted. Table 5 shows that there were no statistically significant differences between fathers’ and mothers’ reported use of the key processes.

**Table 5**

*FRA Score and Nine Key Processes Scores: Total, Fathers, and Mothers*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Fathers</th>
<th>Mothers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$N = 107$</td>
<td>$N = 37$</td>
<td>$N = 70$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>FRA</strong></td>
<td>101.32</td>
<td>101.16</td>
<td>101.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Positive Outlook</strong></td>
<td>14.95</td>
<td>14.95</td>
<td>14.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Transcendence</strong></td>
<td>14.35</td>
<td>14.08</td>
<td>14.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Make Meaning</strong></td>
<td>14.09</td>
<td>13.73</td>
<td>14.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Connectedness</strong></td>
<td>12.32</td>
<td>12.86</td>
<td>12.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Problem Solving</strong></td>
<td>11.49</td>
<td>11.54</td>
<td>11.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Share</strong></td>
<td>10.95</td>
<td>10.92</td>
<td>10.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Resource</strong></td>
<td>8.41</td>
<td>8.16</td>
<td>8.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Flexibility</strong></td>
<td>7.78</td>
<td>7.84</td>
<td>7.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Clarity</strong></td>
<td>7.16</td>
<td>7.43</td>
<td>7.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Research Question 2**

Research question 2a: What is the relationship between family resilience reported by Japanese fathers and mothers sojourning in the U.S. and their reported impact of stressful life events (SLES)?

Research question 2b: What is the relationship between family resilience reported by Japanese fathers and mothers sojourning in the U.S, and the reported behavioral adjustment of their children?

**Research Question 2a**

To examine research question 2a, zero-order correlations were first conducted on all variables in the study to determine potential control variables, first with the sample as a whole and then separately for sojourning Japanese fathers and mothers.

**Whole sample.** Table 6 shows the significant zero-order correlations for the sample as a whole (see Appendix P for the zero-order correlation table for all variables). The FRA and SLES showed a significant inverse correlation \(r = -.237, p = .015\). That is, sojourning Japanese parents who reported a higher score on the FRA reported a lower SLES score. That means parents who reported higher family resilience were likely to report a lower impact of stressful life events.

Next, to examine the relationship between FRA and SLES zero-order correlations were conducted as part of the preliminary analyses (see Chapter III). The results identified several potential control variables that significantly correlated with the FRA: KMS \((r = .634, p = .000)\), Stress Raising Young Children in the U.S. \((r = -.249, p = .010)\) \((r = .265, p = .006)\), and time spent with children during weekends \((r = -.242, p = .014)\). In this study KMS and Stress Raising Young Children in the U.S. were selected as
potential control variables. KMS had the highest coefficient than other variables that correlated with FRA. The Stress Raising Young Children variable was included as a control variable for a theoretical reason: the concept of family resilience emerges from family stress theory (Price et al., 2010). After controlling for KMS and Stress Raising Young Children, a partial correlation showed there no longer was a significant correlation between FRA and SLES ($r = .031, p = .758$).

Table 6

**Zero-order Correlations of Variables of Interest for the Whole Sample**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
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<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. FRA</td>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. SDQ Total</td>
<td>-.234*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. SDQ Internalizing</td>
<td>.067</td>
<td>.777**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. SDQ Externalizing</td>
<td>-.292**</td>
<td>.883**</td>
<td>.391**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Prosocial</td>
<td>.162</td>
<td>-.380**</td>
<td>-.219*</td>
<td>-.392**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. SLES</td>
<td>-.237*</td>
<td>.332**</td>
<td>.258**</td>
<td>.298**</td>
<td>.011</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Stress Raising Children in the U.S.</td>
<td>-.249*</td>
<td>.373**</td>
<td>.321**</td>
<td>.305**</td>
<td>.032</td>
<td>.342**</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. KMS</td>
<td>.634**</td>
<td>-.351**</td>
<td>-.160</td>
<td>-.386**</td>
<td>.120</td>
<td>-.337*</td>
<td>-.355**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Identity</td>
<td>.265**</td>
<td>-.139</td>
<td>-.028</td>
<td>-.182</td>
<td>.024</td>
<td>-.052</td>
<td>-.081</td>
<td>.217*</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Length Time in the U.S.</td>
<td>-.080</td>
<td>-.148</td>
<td>-.146</td>
<td>-.106</td>
<td>.219*</td>
<td>.047</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>-.099</td>
<td>.133</td>
<td>-</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Time with Child - Weekend</td>
<td>-.242*</td>
<td>-.054</td>
<td>-.051</td>
<td>-.042</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>-.012</td>
<td>.157</td>
<td>-.075</td>
<td>.171</td>
<td>.054</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < 0.05 level. **p < 0.01 level (2-tailed).

**Fathers.** Table 7 shows the significant zero-order correlations for the sub-sample of fathers (see Appendix Q for the zero-order-order correlation table for all variables for
fathers). No significant correlation between FRA and SLES was found for fathers 
\( r = -.007, p = .967 \). A partial correlation test was not conducted because there was no 
significant correlation between FRA and SLES.

**Table 7**

*Zero-order Correlations of Variables of Interest for the Father Sub-Sample*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
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<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. FRA</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. SDQ Total</td>
<td>-.296</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. SDQ Internalizing</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.030</td>
<td>.751**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. SDQ Externalizing</td>
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<td>-.399*</td>
<td>.879**</td>
<td>.345*</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Prosocial</td>
<td>.405*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-.187</td>
<td>-.602**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. SLES</td>
<td>-.007</td>
<td>.127</td>
<td>.142</td>
<td>.078</td>
<td>-.058</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Stress Raising Children in the U.S.</td>
<td>-.126</td>
<td>.253</td>
<td>.272</td>
<td>.163</td>
<td>.063</td>
<td>.136</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. KMS</td>
<td>.541**</td>
<td>-.111</td>
<td>.155</td>
<td>-.260</td>
<td>.200</td>
<td>-.359*</td>
<td>-.330*</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>9. Identity</td>
<td>.104</td>
<td>-.170</td>
<td>-.079</td>
<td>-.185</td>
<td>.022</td>
<td>-.144</td>
<td>-.027</td>
<td>.190</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. Length Time in the U.S.</td>
<td>.286</td>
<td>-.357*</td>
<td>-.233</td>
<td>-.339*</td>
<td>.349*</td>
<td>-.159</td>
<td>.029</td>
<td>.111</td>
<td>.201</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Time with Child - Weekend</td>
<td>-.170</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>-.054</td>
<td>.095</td>
<td>-.149</td>
<td>-.152</td>
<td>.035</td>
<td>.214</td>
<td>.492**</td>
<td>.164</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < 0.05 level. **p < 0.01 level (2-tailed).

**Mothers.** Table 8 shows the significant zero-order correlations for the sub-sample of mothers. A significant inverse correlation between FRA and SLES was found for mothers \( r = -.324, p = .007 \). Namely, sojourning Japanese mothers who reported a higher score on the FRA reported a lower impact of stressful life events score.
Table 8

Zero-order Correlations of Variables of Interest for Mothers’ Samples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
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<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. FRA</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. SDQ Total</td>
<td>-.209</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. SDQ Internalizing</td>
<td>-.084</td>
<td>.790**</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. SDQ Externalizing</td>
<td>-.246*</td>
<td>.886**</td>
<td></td>
<td>.415**</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Prosocial</td>
<td>.038</td>
<td>-.297*</td>
<td>-.240*</td>
<td>-.260*</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. SLES</td>
<td>-.324**</td>
<td>.422**</td>
<td>.307*</td>
<td>.405**</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Stress Raising Children in the U.S.</td>
<td>-.330**</td>
<td>.479**</td>
<td>.374**</td>
<td>.426**</td>
<td>-.013</td>
<td>.439**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. KMS</td>
<td>.684**</td>
<td>-.460**</td>
<td>-.303*</td>
<td>-.451**</td>
<td>.076</td>
<td>-.328**</td>
<td>-.365**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Identity</td>
<td>.340**</td>
<td>-.114</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-.169</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>-.037</td>
<td>-.217</td>
<td>.261*</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Length Time in the U.S.</td>
<td>-.305*</td>
<td>-.009</td>
<td>-.090</td>
<td>-.053</td>
<td>.119</td>
<td>.171</td>
<td>.081</td>
<td>-.258*</td>
<td>-.116</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Time with Child - Weekend</td>
<td>-.290*</td>
<td>-.059</td>
<td>-.018</td>
<td>-.072</td>
<td>.044</td>
<td>.015</td>
<td>.110</td>
<td>-.174</td>
<td>-.049</td>
<td>.022</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < 0.05 level. **p < 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Significant correlations were found for the FRA and five variables: KMS ($r = .684$, $p = .000$), Stress Raising Young Children in the U.S. ($r = -.330$, $p = .006$), importance of being a mother on identity ($r = .340$, $p = .004$), time spent with children during weekends ($r = -.290$, $p = .019$), and length of time in the U.S. ($r = -.305$, $p = .011$). (See Appendix R for the zero-order correlation table for all variables for mothers.)

As noted above, KMS was selected as a potential control variable because of the high coefficient, and the Stress Raising Young Children variable was chosen because the concept of family resilience emerges from family stress theory (Price et al., 2010).
A partial correlation test was conducted to examine if there was a relationship between FRA and SLES, controlling for the variables KMS and Stress Raising Children in the U.S. After controlling for these variables, the partial correlation showed there no longer was a significant correlation between FRA and SLES ($r = .260, p = .138$). KMS and Stress Raising Young Children in the U.S. significantly affected the relationship between FRA and SLES.

Significant correlations were found for the FRA and five variables: KMS ($r = .684, p = .000$), Stress Raising Young Children in the U.S. ($r = -.330, p = .006$), importance of being a mother on identity ($r = .340, p = .011$), time spent with children during weekends ($r = -.290, p = .019$), and length of time in the U.S. ($r = -.305, p = .011$). (See Appendix R for the zero-order correlation table for all variables for mothers.) As noted above, KMS was selected as a potential control variable because of the high coefficient, and the Stress Raising Young Children variable was chosen because the concept of family resilience emerges from family stress theory (Price et al., 2010).

A partial correlation test was conducted to examine if there was a relationship between FRA and SLES, controlling for the variables KMS and Stress Raising Children in the U.S. After controlling for these variables, the partial correlation showed there no longer was a significant correlation between FRA and SLES ($r = .260, p = .138$). KMS and Stress Raising Young Children in the U.S. significantly affected the relationship between FRA and SLES.
Research Question 2b

To examine research question 2b, a zero-order correlation was conducted on all variables in the study to determine potential control variables, first with the sample as a whole and then separately for sojourning Japanese fathers and mothers.

Whole sample. As Table 6 shows, FRA was significantly correlated with the SDQ total children behavioral difficulties score ($r = -.234, p = .015$) in the expected (i.e., inverse) direction. That is, parents who reported a higher level of family resilience rated their children lower in overall behavioral problems. When examining the internalizing and externalizing sub-scales separately, a significant inverse correlation was found only between FRA and children's externalizing behaviors ($r = -.292, p = .002$). There was no significant correlation between FRA and SDQ internalizing behaviors ($r = -.067, p = .490$). In addition, there was no significant correlation between the FRA and pro-social behaviors ($r = .162, p = .097$).

Next, to examine the relationship between the FRA and SDQ three potential control variables were selected: KMS, and the two stress variables (SLES [$r = -.237, p = .015$] and Stress Raising Young Children in the U.S. [$r = -.249, p = .010$]). KMS was selected because it had the highest coefficient ($r = .634, p = .000$) when compared with other variables (i.e., importance of being a mother or father to identity [$r = .265, p = .006$] and time spent with children during weekend [$r = -.242, p = .014$]). The two stress-related variables were included as control variables for a theoretical reason; the concept of family resilience emerges from family stress theory (Price et al., 2010).

A partial correlation test between FRA total score and SDQ total children behavioral difficulties and SDQ externalizing behavioral problems was conducted,
controlling for KMS, SLES, and Stress Raising Young Children in the U.S. After controlling for these three variables, there was no significant correlation between the FRA and SDQ total children behavioral difficulties ($r = -0.026, p = .801$) or between FRA and SDQ externalizing problems ($r = -0.107, p = .295$).

Based on the correlation between KSM and FRA ($r = 0.634, p = .000$) and the partial correlation results between FRA and SDQ total children behavioral difficulties score ($r = -0.026, p = .801$), a further analysis, testing for mediation, was conducted to examine the role of KMS and SDQ total children behavioral difficulties score.

**Testing for mediation.** Zero-order correlation analyses showed that KMS was significantly correlated with the FRA ($r = .64, p < .001$) and SDQ ($r = .23, p < .05$). Compared to the other variables, KMS was moderately strongly correlated with FRA. Therefore, to further examine the relationship between FRA and SDQ total children behavioral difficulties, a simple mediation test was conducted to examine whether the relationship between FRA and SDQ total children behavioral difficulties was mediated by marital satisfaction (KMS). Baron and Kenny (1986) explained mediator as “the mediator function of a third variable, which represents the generative mechanism through which a focal independent variable is able to influence the dependent variable of interest” (p. 1173).

This approach consists of four steps: first, a simple regression analysis was conducted with FRA predicting SDQ total children behavioral difficulties ($B = -.23, p < .0001$). The second step involves FRA predicting the intervening variable or the mediator, KSM ($B = .63, p < .0001$). Step 3 consists of conducting a simple regression analysis with KMS predicting SDQ total children behavioral difficulties score ($B = -.35,$
The final step requires conducting a multiple regression analysis with FRA and KMS predicting SDQ total children behavioral difficulties score. In this study, the results provide evidence of full mediation. That is, FRA was no longer significant \( (B = .09, p = .448) \) when KMS was controlled. Also, because KMS remains significant \( (B = -.29, p < .05) \) after controlling for FRA, mediation was supported as well (see Figure 3).

To further calculate the indirect effect, Sobel’s (1982) suggested approach was applied. This approach consists of multiplying the partial regression effect of KMS predicting SDQ (-.35), after controlling for FRA (-.29), and the simple regression coefficient of FRA predicting KMS (.63) which results in an indirect effect \( (B = -.18) \). This coefficient \( (B = -.18) \) represents the change in SDQ (children behavioral problems) for every change in FRA (process of family resilience) that was mediated by KMS (marital satisfaction).

\[
B = (-.35) \times (.63) = -.18
\]

\* \( p < .05 \). ** \( p < .001 \).

*Figure 3.* Standardized regression coefficients for the relationship between FRA and SDQ as mediated by KMS. The standardized regression coefficient between FRA and SDQ, after controlling for KMS, is in parenthesis.
**Fathers.** As Table 7 shows a significant inverse correlation between FRA total and SDQ externalizing behaviors \((r = -.399, p = .015)\), and a positive correlation with prosocial behavior \((r = .405, p = .013)\). That is, fathers who had higher FRA scores also had reported lower SDQ externalizing scores, and fathers who scored higher on the FRA, also rated their children higher on pro-social behaviors. There were no significant correlations between FRA total and SDQ total \((r = -.296, p = .076)\) and FRA and SDQ internalizing \((r = -.030, p = .862)\) scores in the father sub-group. There was a significant correlation between FRA and KMS \((r = .541, p = .001)\).

Next, to examine the relationship between FRA and SDQ externalizing behaviors and the FRA and prosocial behaviors, a partial correlation test was conducted. KMS was selected as a control variable, because it has high coefficient with FRA \((r = .541, p = .001)\). Also, there were no other significant correlations with FRA for the father sub-sample. After controlling for KMS, the correlation between FRA and SDQ externalizing behaviors no longer existed \((r = -.308, p = .072)\). On the other hand, after controlling for KMS, the correlation between FRA and prosocial behavior was still significant \((r = .349, p = .040)\).

**Mothers.** Table 8 shows the significant zero-order correlations for the sub-sample of mothers. A significant inverse correlation between FRA total and SDQ externalizing behavior \((r = -.246, p = .040)\) was found for mothers. That is, sojourning Japanese mothers who scored higher on the FRA, rated their children lower on externalizing behavioral problems. In addition, significant correlations were found for the FRA and six variables: KMS \((r = .684, p = .000)\), SLES \((r = -.324, p = .007)\), Stress Raising Young Children in the U.S. \((r = -.330, p = .006)\), importance of being a mother on identify
(r = .340, p = .011), time spent with children during weekends (r = -.290, p = .019), and length of time in the U.S. (r = -.305, p = .011). (See Appendix R for the zero-order correlation table for all variables for mothers). There were no significant correlations between FRA and SDQ, and FRA and prosocial behaviors in the sub-sample of mothers. As noted above, KMS was selected as a potential control variable because of the high coefficient, and the two stress variables were chosen because the concept of family resilience emerges from family stress theory (Price et al., 2010). The result indicated that there was no correlation between FRA total and SDQ externalize behaviors (r = .127, p = .329) after controlling for KMS, Stress Raising Children in the U.S., and SLES.

**Research Question 3**

Research question 3 was: (a) When examining if family resilience can predict children’s behavioral adjustment, and (b) if family resilience can predict the impact of stressful life events as reported by mothers and fathers, are there significant differences between mothers and fathers? Specifically, (c) what, if any, family resilience variables are associated with children’s behavioral adjustment and are there significant differences between mothers and fathers?

To answer research question 3a, a series of hierarchical regression analyses was conducted. For all of these analyses KMS was entered on the first step because when compared with other variable the KMS correlation coefficient was the highest. On the second step the stress-related variables was entered, impact of stressful life events and stress raising young children it the U.S., to examine whether they predicted parental ratings of children’s behaviors beyond marital satisfaction. On the third step, the FRA was entered because it is the main independent variable.
To answer research question 3b, a series of hierarchical regression analyses was conducted. For all of these analyses KMS was entered on the first step because when compared with other variables the KMS correlation coefficient was the highest. On the second step the stress raising young children in the U.S. was entered, to examine whether it predicted parental ratings of the impact of stressful life events beyond marital satisfaction. On the third step, FRA was entered because it is the main independent variable.

**Research Question 3a: Prediction of Parental Ratings of Child Behavior**

Table 9 shows three hierarchical regression steps or models used to investigate prediction of parental ratings of child behavior. All models were statistically significant.

**Table 9**

*Hierarchical Regression for Whole Sample: Dependent Variable SDQ*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE B</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>$R^2$ changes</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>F change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Step 1</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KMS</td>
<td>-.36</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>-.33*</td>
<td></td>
<td>.112</td>
<td>.112</td>
<td>12.43**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Step 2</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KMS</td>
<td>-.19</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>-.17</td>
<td></td>
<td>.228</td>
<td>.117</td>
<td>9.57***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stress Raising Young Children</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>.24*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SLES</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.22*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Step 3</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KMS</td>
<td>-.17</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>-.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stress Raising Young Children</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>.24*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SLES</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.22*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRA</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td></td>
<td>.229</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>7.12***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .001$, *** $p < .0001$. 
The first model ($F[1, 99] = 12.43; p = .001$) explained 11.2% of the variance in parental ratings of SDQ total children behavioral difficulties score. In other words, KMS ($\beta = -.33, p = .001$) was a statistically significant variable as a predictor of total children behavioral difficulties.

The second model ($F[3, 97] = 9.57; p = .00$) explained 22.8% of the total variance in parental ratings of SDQ total children behavioral difficulties score. In this second model, Stress Raising Young Children in the U.S. ($\beta = .24, p = .02$) and Impact of Stressful Life Events ($\beta = .22, p = .03$) were statistically significant variables as predictors of parental rating of child behaviors. Adding these two stress-related variables explained an additional 11.6% variance in parental rating of children behaviors after controlling for marital satisfaction.

The third model ($F[4, 96] = 7.12, p = .00$) explained 22.9% of the total variance in parental ratings of SDQ total children behavioral difficulties score. While the third model was statistically significant and predicted parental rating of children behaviors, the addition of the FRA ($\beta = -.03, p = .801$) did not result in any additional variance explained. Likewise, in this third model, the KMS ($\beta = -.15, p = .213$) was no longer significant. Stress Raising Young Children ($\beta = .24, p = .02$), and Impact of Stressful Life Events ($\beta = .22, p = .03$) remained statistically significant variables as predictors of parental rating of total children behavioral difficulties.

Zero-order correlations indicated that neither mothers’ nor fathers’ scores on the FRA correlated with the SDQ total children behavioral difficulties scores. Therefore, hierarchical regression analyses were not conducted to see if mothers’ and fathers’ scores on the FRA would predict SDQ total children behavioral difficulties scores.
Research Question 3b

Table 10 shows three hierarchical regression steps or models to investigate prediction of the impact of stressful life events. To answer the second question, whether FRA scores for the whole sample can be a predictor of SLES, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted. All models were statistically significant.

Whole data. The first model \((F [1, 99] = 12.67; p = .001)\) explained 11.3% of the variance in parents’ reports of the impact of stressful life events in the week (i.e., SLES score). In other words, KMS \((\beta = -.34, p = .001)\) was a statistically significant variable as a predictor of reported Impact of Stressful Life Events in the past week.

Table 10

Hierarchical Regression for Whole: Dependent Variable SLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE B</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>(R^2) changes</th>
<th>(F)</th>
<th>(F) change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KMS</td>
<td>-2.12</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td>-.34</td>
<td>.113</td>
<td>12.67**</td>
<td>12.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KMS</td>
<td>-1.54</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>-.25*</td>
<td>.168</td>
<td>9.89***</td>
<td>6.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stress Raising Young Children</td>
<td>6.82</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>.25*</td>
<td>.054</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KMS</td>
<td>-1.68</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>-.27*</td>
<td>.169</td>
<td>6.56***</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stress Raising Young Children</td>
<td>6.90</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>.25*</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRA</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\* \(p < .05\). \** \(p < .001\). \*** \(p < .0001\).

The second model \((F [2, 98] = 9.89; p = .000)\) explained 16.8% of the total variance in parents’ reports of the Impact of Stressful Life Events in the Past Week (i.e.,
SLES score). In this second model, marital satisfaction (KMS) ($\beta = -.25, p = .015$) and 
Stress Raising Young Children in the U.S. ($\beta = .25, p = .013$) were statistically 
significant variables as predictors of parental rating of Impact of Stressful Life Events in 
the Past Week (SLES). Adding these two variables explained an additional 5.4% variance 
in parental reported impact of stressful life events after controlling for marital 
satisfaction.

The third model ($F [3, 97] = 6.56, p = .000$) explained 16.9% of the total variance 
in parents’ reports of the impact of stressful life events in the week (i.e., SLES score). 
While the third model was statistically significant and predicted parents’ reports of the 
Impact of Stressful Life Events in the Past Week, the addition of the FRA ($\beta = -.04, p = 
.758$) did not result in any additional variance explained. KMS ($\beta = -.27, p = .032$) and 
Stress Raising Young Children ($\beta = .25, p = .013$) were statistically significant variables 
as predictors of parents’ reports of the impact of stressful life events.

**Fathers.** The results of zero-order correlations showed no correlation between 
fathers’ FRA and SLES scores. Therefore, no hierarchical regression analysis was 
conducted.

**Mothers.** The results of zero-order correlations showed a correlation between 
mothers’ FRA and SLES scores. Therefore, a hierarchical regression analysis was 
conducted to answer the question if mothers’ FRA scores can predict mothers’ SLES 
scores.

Table 11 shows three hierarchical regression steps or models to investigate 
prediction of the impact of stressful life events for mothers. To answer the second 
question, whether FRA scores for the whole sample can be a predictor of SLES, a
hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted. All models were statistically significant.

Table 11

*Hierarchical Regression for Mother: Dependent Variable SLES*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE B</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>R² changes</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>F change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KMS</td>
<td>-2.19</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>-.33**</td>
<td>.107</td>
<td>7.57&quot;*&quot;</td>
<td>7.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KMS</td>
<td>-1.20</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>-.18</td>
<td>.231</td>
<td>9.32***</td>
<td>9.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stress Raising Young Children</td>
<td>11.79</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>.38**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KMS</td>
<td>-1.12</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>-.17</td>
<td>.231</td>
<td>6.12**</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stress Raising Young Children</td>
<td>11.67</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>.38**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRA</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .05, ** p < .001, *** p < .0001.

The first model \(F [1, 63] = 7.57; p = .008\) explained 10.7% of the variance in mothers’ reports of the impact of stressful life events in the week (i.e., SLES score). In other words, KMS (\(β = -.33, p = .008\)) was a statistically significant variable as a predictor of reported impact of stressful life events.

The second model \(F [2, 62] = 9.32; p = .000\) explained 23.1% of the total variance in mothers’ reports of the impact of stressful life events in the week (i.e., SLES score). In this second model, KMS (\(β = -.18, p = .145\)) was not a statistically significant predictor but Stress Raising Young Children in the U.S. (\(β = .38, p = .002\)) was a statistically significant variable as a predictor of parental rating of the Impact of Stressful
Life Events in the Past Week. Adding this stress variable explained an additional 12% variance in parental reported impact of stressful life events after controlling for marital satisfaction.

The final model \( (F \ [3, \ 61] = 6.12, \ p = .001) \) explained 23% of the total variance in mothers’ reports of the impact of stressful life events in the week. In this final model, KMS \( (\beta = -.17, \ p = .287) \) and the FRA \( (\beta = .02, \ p = .905) \) were not statistically significant variables as predictors of parental rating of impact of stressful life events. Stress Raising Young Children in the U.S. \( (\beta = .38, \ p = .004) \) was a statistically significant variable as a predictor of parental rating of Impact of Stressful Life Events in the Past Week. While the third model was statistically significant and predicted mothers’ reports of the impact of stressful life events, the addition of the FRA did not result in any additional variance explained.

**Research Question 3c**

To answer the third part of Research Question 3, that is, what, if any, family resilience variables are associated with children’s behavioral adjustment and are there differences between mothers and fathers, a correlation test was conducted. As Table 12 shows, for whole sample of Japanese parents, Positive Outlook, Open Emotional Sharing, Connectedness, Flexibility and Collaborative Problem Solving were associated with SDQ total children behavioral difficulties score.

For sojourning Japanese fathers, Flexibility and Open Emotional Sharing were associated with SDQ total children behavioral difficulties score. For sojourning Japanese mothers, Problem Solving is associated with the total children behavioral difficulties score.
Table 12

**Correlations Between Processes of Family Resilience and SDQ Total Children Behavioral Difficulties Scores**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nine Key Processes</th>
<th>SDQ Total Children Behavioral Difficulties Scores</th>
<th>Whole Sample</th>
<th>Father</th>
<th>Mother</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Make Meaning</td>
<td>- .123</td>
<td>- .172</td>
<td>- .092</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive Outlook</td>
<td>- .222*</td>
<td>- .255</td>
<td>- .211</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transcendence/Spirituality</td>
<td>- .101</td>
<td>- .223</td>
<td>- .049</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td>- .248*</td>
<td>- .355*</td>
<td>- .206</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connectedness</td>
<td>- .200*</td>
<td>- .157</td>
<td>- .230</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource</td>
<td>- .142</td>
<td>- .223</td>
<td>- .097</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clarity</td>
<td>- .176</td>
<td>- .275</td>
<td>- .151</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open Emotional Sharing</td>
<td>- .258**</td>
<td>- .339*</td>
<td>- .223</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem Solving</td>
<td>- .263**</td>
<td>- .202</td>
<td>- .294*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* * p < .05. ** p < .001.

**Analysis of Written Comments**

Twenty-seven parents (25 mothers and 2 fathers) responded to the open-ended question, “please feel free to describe any other thoughts or experiences you would like us to know about living in American with young children.” Parents wrote about seven topics affecting their lives positively or negatively. Three parents also commented on the content of the questionnaire.

**Language.** Seven parents commented on challenges with English. Two mothers perceived their limited English competency negatively affecting their children. One wrote, “Sometime, I blame myself because my lack of English competency might cause my children to feel isolated” from American friends. Two other mothers reported their children having difficulty learning English in school: “I thought that he would become
accustomed to American classmates quickly, but actually his classmates could not understand why my son could not speak English at all, and they almost never talked with him.” However, three mothers reported that while children had a difficult time understanding and speaking English when they first arrived in the U.S., the children eventually adapted.

I realized that the cultural difference and lack of communication will surely be solved by time and knowledge. I understand the key points are we parents have to relax and watch our children’s development. I realized home and family can contribute to children’s problems.

**Childrearing.** Five parents addressed childrearing. Three mothers noted positive points about childrearing in the U.S. and one father noted the importance of a positive attitude on children’s development. One mother thought childcare services were reasonably priced and was thankful for an attitude she perceived in the U.S. that it was acceptable for mothers to spend time alone without children.

**Local Japanese community.** Five parents wrote about their experience of interacting with the local Japanese community. Three mothers noted the importance of language assistance and key information about living in the U.S. shared by other sojourning families. However, two mothers noted that sojourners tended to stay together most of the time and did not interact with Americans; those who could not speak English well would depend too much on those who could in order to communicate with people at the school. One mother was surprised by what she thought was a private comment being spread so quickly throughout the Japanese community.

**Culture and education.** Five mothers and one father wrote about the intersection of culture and their children’s education. Three mothers noted their struggles about which cultural expectations, Japanese or American, should be applied to their children. For
example, one mother wrote about her child wanting to play with a toy another child was already playing with. “In Japan, [we would say,] ‘Let’s play together.’ But in the U.S., [they say] ‘Borrow it, next’ or ‘I’ll borrow it after you’ve used it.’” One mother worried about the differences in educational systems and subjects between Japan and the U.S. Two other mothers reported their children having a hard time in kindergarten due to language and culture issues. However, the teachers and classmates treated their daughters very kindly and nicely, so after a while, they could overcome the hard situation. Both mothers appreciated all the American people surrounding their families with their kindness.

**Daily issues.** Two mothers experienced daily hassles related to shopping; one due to distance and both due to having to shop with children. One of them mentioned the stress related to explaining to children the difference in economic status among Japanese sojourning families; some families could afford traveling within the U.S. for vacations, while others could not.

**Children’s health.** One mother reported for about two years her children had a lot of health problems. Due to lack of information, she had a hard time finding medical support (and finding someone to listen to her story). However, after two years her children are healthy so now they are having fun in the U.S. as a family.

**Spouse’s involvement with childrearing.** One mother reported that due to her husband working too many hours, he did not have time to spend with their children which caused stress for them because they are living in an unfamiliar place. “If he had more time to interact with the children, they could live more peacefully. So, the company
should think more about young children.” The nuance in what she wrote was that raising
children is not only a responsibility for parents.

**Comments on the questionnaire.** Three mothers reported that they did not like,
or were uncomfortable with, some terms and expressions in the questionnaire. One
mother wrote,

> I did not like that there were many negative and minus expressions such as
> “bogged down living in the U.S.,” “difficulties,” and “the situation living in the
> U.S. as sojourners cannot be changed.” I do not think negatively about living in
> the U.S., so there were some questions which were hard to answer.

Another noted many questions did “not make sense to Japanese so it was difficult for me
to answer them.” A third mother wrote, “It might be difficult to raise children in the U.S.,
however, I am not having difficulties that this questionnaire is asking us about.” She went
on to explain that moving in Japan and experiencing cultural difference is the same as in
the U.S. except

> we cannot communicate in English. . . . The important thing is we have to respect
> the new friends’ customs, lifestyle, and it does not matter the nationality they
> have. I told my children this idea and say to them, “Our family thinks this is a
> good one, so we decided to do it.” So far, I never have heard my children say
> negative things about America.

**Summary**

This chapter reported the results of this study that was designed to answer three
research questions. To answer research question 1, results indicated that there were no
significant differences among sojourning Japanese parents, fathers and mothers for their
perception of what FRA nine key processes likely to use. Sojourning Japanese parents
were more likely to use processes in the domain of belief systems than other two domains
of organization pattern and communication process.
To answer research question 2, if sojourning Japanese parents’ FRA scores correlated with SDQ and SLES, the results indicated that there were correlations between them. However, when looking at the findings by gender, there were no correlations between FRA and SDQ, nor FRA and SLES for fathers’ group. For mothers’ group, there was no correlation between perceived FRA and SDQ; however, there was a statistically significant correlation between FRA and SLES. There were possible control variables for both sojourning Japanese parents, and mothers sub-sample; the Importance of Being a Mother or Father to Identity, KMS, Stress Raising Young Children in the U.S., and SLES were correlated with the FRA.

To answer research question 3, if FRA scores could predict SDQ and SLES, a hierarchical regression test was conducted using three blocks with possible variables (KMS, SLES, and Stress Raising Young Children in the U.S.) which correlated with FRA. The findings indicated only SLES and Stress Raising Young Children in the U.S. were significant variables as predictors of SDQ. Likewise, when examined the relationship between FRA and SLES, KMS and Stress Raising Young Children in the U.S. were the predictors of SLES.

When looking at the results by gender, as the findings of research question 2 showed, there were no statistically significant correlations between FRA and SDQ for either the fathers’ and mothers’ sub-sample, and FRA and SLES for sojourning Japanese fathers. For mothers, there was a statistically significant correlation between FRA and SLES. Therefore a hierarchical regression test was conducted only for mothers’ group to examine the relationships between FRA and SLES. The possible controlling variables
were the same for the whole data. The findings indicated that Stress Raising Young Children in the U.S. was the only predictor of SLES.

In addition, to examine which nine key processes were related with the Impact of Stressful Life Events score, correlation tests were conducted. The findings indicated that for whole data, Positive Outlook, Open Emotional Expression, and Problem Solving, Flexibility and Connectedness were associated with SDQ. When results were examined, Flexibility and Open Emotional Expression were associated with SDQ for fathers, and Collaborate Problem-Solving was associated with SDQ for mothers.

Chapter V includes the analysis for the findings of this study with examining previous research, limitations of this study, and implications for future studies.
CHAPTER V
DISCUSSION

Overview

This chapter presents results and interpretations of this study. A brief summary of the study is followed by a discussion of the results. Study limitations are reviewed and suggestions for future research offered. Finally, implications for sojourning Japanese families, and how companies and schools might further support them are addressed.

Summary of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the use of key processes of family resilience by sojourning Japanese parents in the U.S. so future sojourning parents of young children may know which family processes may be associated with child adjustment and a lower impact of stressful life events. This study also sought to determine the relationship between the level of family resilience, measured by the FRA (Duncan Lane, 2011), and children’s behavioral adjustment as reported by sojourning Japanese parents. Lastly, this study sought to determine if the FRA could predict children’s behavioral adjustment and stressful life events, and which nine key processes of FRA were associated with child adjustment.

This study used a survey design to gather information from sojourning Japanese parents who had at least one child, between 4 and 8 years old, attending a Japanese day or supplemental school or a juku in the U.S. Measures included the FRA, translated specifically for this present research, and three other instruments (SDQ, KMS, and SLES)
that had been translated into Japanese and used in prior research studies. Items designed and translated for this present study were also included.

**Summary of Results**

This study had a three-fold purpose. The first purpose was to determine what key processes of family resilience were reported used by sojourning Japanese parents in the U.S. The results of this study indicated that both sojourning Japanese fathers and mothers reported using the same key processes. The top three of the nine key processes used by the sojourning Japanese parents were, in order, “Positive Outlook,” “Transcendence/Spirituality,” and “Make Meaning.” These three key processes belong to category of belief system in the family reliance framework (Walsh, 2003). In contrast, sojourning Japanese parents reported using “Flexibility,” “Social and Economic Resource,” and “Open Emotional Communication” the least of the nine key processes.

The results for the second purpose indicated that there was a significant inverse relationship between sojourning Japanese parents’ reported use of processes of family resilience and the impact of stressful life events in the past week (as measured by the SLES). Analyses of father data noted no correlation between processes of family resilience and impact of stressful life events; however, analyses of mother data noted a significant inverse correlation between processes of family resilience and the impact stressful life events.

Results indicated there were significant inverse correlations between processes of family resilience (as measure by the FRA) and child behavioral problems (as measured by the SDQ total difficulties), and processes of family resilience and child externalizing behavior in the sample as a whole. In contrast, there was no significant relationship
between processes of family resilience and child behavioral problems for the sub-samples of fathers and mothers. For both father and mother sub-samples, however, there was a significant inverse relationship between processes of family resilience and child externalizing behavior. Additionally for the fathers, there was a significant positive relationship between processes of family resilience and child pro-social behaviors.

Significant positive correlations were found between processes of family resilience and marital satisfaction for the whole sample and for the father and mother sub-samples. Furthermore, there were statistically significant relationships among processes of family resilience, marital satisfaction, and children’s behavioral problems for the sample as a whole. The results of a mediator test indicated that marital satisfaction mediated the processes of family resilience and children behavioral problems.

The third purpose of this study was to determine whether processes of family resilience could predict: (1) child behavior problems, and (2) impact of stressful life events. Three control variables were used in the hierarchical regression to test the predictors of child behavior problems: (1) Marital Satisfaction, (2) Impact of Stressful Life Events and Stress Raising Young Children in the U.S., and (3) Processes of Family Resilience. The results indicated that “Impact of Stressful Life Events” and “Stress Raising Young Children” predict child behavioral adjustment. No statistically significant correlation between FRA and SDQ existed for the father and mother sub-samples so hierarchical regression tests were not conducted for the sub-samples.

Three variables were used in the hierarchical regression to test the predictors of the impact of stressful life events: (1) marital satisfaction, (2) Stress Raising Young Children in the U.S., and (3) Processes of Family Resilience. Results indicated that, for
the sample as a whole, Marital Satisfaction and Stress Raising Young Children in the U.S. were the predictors of the Impact of Stressful Life Events.

There was no statistically significant correlation between the processes of family resilience and stressful life events for the sub-sample of fathers, but there was for the sub-sample of mothers. Therefore, I conducted hierarchical regression test only for mothers, to examine if processes of family resilience can predictor the impact of stressful life events. Three control variables were used in the hierarchical regression to test the predictors of the impact of stressful life events: (1) Marital Satisfaction, (2) Stress Raising Young Children in the U.S., and (3) Processes of Family Resilience. Results indicated that Stress Raising Young Children in the U.S. predicted the impact of stressful life events for mothers.

Finally, to determine which nine key processes of family resilience were associated with child behavior problems, I conducted zero-order correlation between SDQ and the key processes of family resilience. For the whole sample, “Positive Outlook,” “Open Emotional Expression,” “Connectedness,” “Flexibility,” and “Collaborative Problem Solving” were related to child behavior outcomes. For the father sub-sample, “Open Emotional Expression” and “Flexibility” were related to child behavior outcomes. For the mother sub-sample, “Collaborative Problem Solving” was related to child behavior outcomes.
Discussion of Results

Research Question 1

What key processes of family resilience do sojourning Japanese mothers and fathers in the U.S. report using? Are there differences between FRA reported by mothers and fathers?

Sojourning Japanese parents raising young children in the U.S. reported engaging in key processes of family resilience (Walsh, 2006). No differences were found between mothers and fathers and their reported use of the key processes.

**Most frequently used key processes of family resilience.** Both fathers and mothers reported using the three processes of resilience most frequently: “Positive Outlook,” “Transcendence and Spirituality,” and “Make Meaning” (Walsh, 2003). This study confirms the results of recent resilience studies conducted in Japan that identified the importance of these processes in family life (Miyano et al., 2014; Morimoto & Sato, 2013; Ohyama & Nozue, 2013).

**Positive outlook.** Studies in Japan have noted the importance of what Walsh (2006) refers to as a positive outlook. Miyano and colleagues (2014) tested an assessment scale of resiliency with parents in a childcare support program. They found three factors in their scale: social support, problem-solving, and perception. The third factor, perception, included items such as, “I can perceive things positively.” This item is similar to FRA positive outlook items, such as “In spite of the ____ , my family and I were optimistic about our loved one’s health.”

Likewise, grandparents in Ishii and colleagues’ (2014) study shared the importance of accepting the reality of their situation (a grandchild with special needs) and
identifying what they could do to help their adult children and grandchildren. The first reflects accepting what cannot be changed and the second reflects active initiative; both are part of a positive outlook as described by Walsh (2006). Acceptance of reality and making a decision for a course of action were also reported by participants in Morimoto and Sato’s (2013) study of adults undergoing radiation treatment for breast, lung, and other cancers.

**Spirituality.** The importance of spirituality as part of resilience was found in Morimoto and Sato’s (2013) study of adults undergoing radiation treatment for breast, lung, and other cancers. The participants of this study demonstrated that through the process of the treatment, the participants realized the importance of everyday life that led them to take a more active role in their treatment and in their interactions with others. Such reassessment and reaffirmation are part of Walsh’s transcendence and spirituality key process. Further, Ohyama and Nozue’s (2013) family resilience scale (FRS) contained three items related to spirituality: “be able to obtain spiritual relaxation when communing with nature,” “be able to obtain spiritual relaxation when feeling inspired by art, music and literature,” and “the existence of people who already died can be a spiritual support” (p. 66). Ohyama and Nozue’s study supported Walsh’s (2006) concept of spirituality in which envisioning new possibilities enhances family resilience.

As noted above, Miyano and colleagues’ (2014) study of an assessment scale of resiliency included the item, “I do not give up to deal with difficulties and can deal with them in some creative ways.” This item was identified as part of the “problem solving” factor by Miyano and colleagues. While the FRA also has a similar item, “My family and I developed creative ways for dealing with the ______,” Duncan Lane’s (2011) study
placed this item in Walsh’s (2006) key process of “transcendence and spirituality” because it addresses new possibilities and creativity.

**Making meaning.** Morimoto and Sato’s (2013) qualitative study of patients who were diagnosed with cancer noted the importance of reflecting on the meaning of life and death in helping those undergoing radiation therapy to better withstand the treatment’s side effects.

The third factor identified in Miyano and colleagues’ (2014) assessment was “perception” and it included the item, “I can manage any difficulties I face.” This item reflects “making meaning” by considering the challenge as manageable (Walsh, 2006, p. 55).

**Least frequently used key processes of family resilience.** Both sojourning Japanese fathers and mothers were less likely to report using “Social and Economic Resource,” “Flexibility,” and “Clarity.” Existing studies offer possible explanations for less frequent use of these processes.

**Social and economic resources.** Walsh (2006) noted that in many traditional cultures in times of crisis or hardship, kin and social community networks provide practical and emotional support to families, such as offering information, concrete services, companionship, and respite. They also contribute to promoting a sense of security and solidarity. However, with moving to a new host country, immigrant families often lose contact and access to supportive kin and community networks in their home country.

Japan is a country with a unique cultural background that when Japanese need help, they primarily ask close family members; if they must ask for help from outside of
their close family, they tend to experience shame (Arnault, 2002). This cultural background may affect sojourning Japanese families. That is, sojourning Japanese families in the U.S. often live within small Japanese community, consisting mainly of Japanese companies’ employees and their family members. The community may follow a hierarchical order, determined by age and social status. Members keep harmony in the group and follow the expectations associated with their status in the intimate social circle. The cultural background of focusing support-seeking behaviors to close family means that while sojourning families receive social and emotional support from the local Japanese community, it may be limited. Sojourners may be reluctant to seek resources from non-family members for personal or serious concerns (Arnault, 2002; Toyokawa, 2006).

While some sojourning wives may express reluctance to seek support within a local Japanese community, some also express feeling isolated from the local U.S. community. This sense of isolation has been attributed to limited language skills and cultural differences (Ozeki & Mizuguchi, 2007). Consequently, some sojourning Japanese wives may have limited access to social support beyond immediate family members and the local Japanese community.

**Flexibility.** Fewer participants reported use of the key process of flexibility. Previous studies have reported that many immigrant families tend to experience conflict between keeping their own culture from their home country and accepting the new culture of their host country. Immigrant families who find a balance between adapting to the host country’s culture and maintaining their own culture tend to adapt to life in the
host country, contributing to their children’s positive adjustment (Haslberger & Brewster, 2008; Kim & Honing, 1998; Honig & Wang, 1997; Sanagavarapu, 2010).

Previous research on sojourning Japanese fathers in the U.S. indicated fathers engaged in “situational adjustment” when responding to their American co-workers’ expectations of fathering (Abe, 2006). However, this adjustment to fathering did not change their basic adherence to Japanese cultural expectations of fathering due to minimal assimilation into American culture. While fathers worked with Americans, it was in the context of a Japanese company. They socialized with other Japanese while in the U.S., and often struggled with English (Abe, 2006). Living in a “bubble” of Japanese culture limited interaction with Americans, and sojourning rather than immigrating reduced the need to be flexible, that is, adapt to the host culture (Abe, 2006, p. 59).

Also, sojourning Japanese mothers in the U.S. also experience a cultural “bubble.” Studies have documented that Japanese mothers tend to stay in the Japanese community and are less likely to interact with people from the host country. They often follow Japanese cultural expectations about childrearing and educational choices for their children, because they are concerned about their children fitting into Japanese culture once they return to their home country (Arnault, 2002; Ishizaki & Ishizaki, 2001; Nukaga, 2012).

A majority of participants of this present study were expecting to complete their assignment and go back to Japan in 3 to 5 years (Abe, 2006). Thus, they knew that they would live in Japan again and perceived a low possibility of them and their children living in the U.S. permanently. It can be assumed that this situation may decrease
adaptation, or the need for adaptation, to a new culture in the host country (Ozeki, 2008). As a result, the need for flexibility may be low.

**Clarity.** Arnault (2002) reported that even in communication between sojourning Japanese husbands and wives, wives tend not to express their feelings to their husbands directly or to ask for any help or support with housework or children. Rather, their communication is indirect. Because wives know that their husbands are having a hard time at work, they do not want to burden their husbands with direct requests. Indirect communication within couple relationships reflects the Japanese cultural norm of indirect expression of feelings and wants. For example, Matsunaga and Imahori (2009) reported that Japanese college students in Japan used indirect expression when communicating when compared to the U.S. college students. Regardless of gender and place where they live, Japanese people are more likely to use indirect communication rather than direct communication.

Walsh (2003) emphasizes the need to take cultural norms of expression into account when considering family functioning and resilience (p. 108). She has illustrated this point by noting Japanese people’s indirect communication. Within a Japanese cultural context, open and clear communication is not necessarily an effective way to promote family resilience. Therefore, she cautions that we have to be careful when considering resilience in Japanese families.

**Research Question 2**

(a) What is the relationship between family resilience reported by Japanese fathers and mothers sojourning in the U.S. and their reported impact of stressful life events (SLES)?
(b) What is the relationship between family resilience reported by Japanese fathers and mothers sojourning in the U.S, and the reported behavioral adjustment of their children?

**Processes of family resilience and child total difficulties, child externalizing behaviors, and child pro-social behaviors.** The findings of this study showed that for the whole sample there are correlations between processes of family resilience and child total difficulties, and processes of family resilience and child externalizing behavior. A zero-order correlation test by gender indicated no significant correlation between processes of family resilience and child behavior problems for fathers or mothers. However, for fathers there was an inverse correlation between processes of family resilience and child externalizing behavior, and a positive correlation between processes of family resilience and child pro-social behaviors. For mothers there was an inverse correlation between processes of family resilience and child externalizing behavior for mothers’ group. No relationship was found between processes of family resilience and child internalizing behaviors, perhaps because this relationship is harder to identify that externalizing behaviors. Previous studies of American children indicate that children’s externalizing behavior problems are more easily identified than internalizing behavior problems during the preschool years and are likely to persist after children enter school and into adolescence. However, internalizing problems such as anxiety or depression are more difficult to detect during early childhood and are not as stable into later childhood (Schoppe et al., 2001).

Partial correlations indicated the relationship between processes of family resilience and child total difficulties for the whole sample no longer existed when
controlled for Marital Satisfaction, Impact of Stressful Life Events, and Stress Related to Raising Young Children in the U.S. Likewise, when controlled for marital satisfaction, the relationship between family resilience and child externalizing behavior no longer existed for the sub-sample of fathers; however, the relationship between family resilience and child pro-social behavior remained for the sub-sample of fathers even after controlling for marital satisfaction. Finally, the relationship between family resilience and child externalizing behaviors for the sub-sample of mothers no longer remained significant when marital satisfaction, impact of stressful life events, and stress related to raising young children in the U.S. were taken into account. The results of this study suggest there is not a link between processes of family resilience and child behavioral adjustment.

For fathers there was a statistically significant correlation between FRA and pro-social behavior even after controlling for marital satisfaction. While research on resilience is growing in Japan (Shoji, 2009), studies of family resilience have focused on developing instruments to measure the concept (see Ohyama & Nozue, 2013; Tokutsu 2003; Tokutsu & Kusaka, 2006). Most studies of child behavior in Japan rely on reports from mothers. For example, Onishi and colleagues’ (2013) sample was 96.3% mothers. They used the SDQ to measure child total behavioral difficulties and social development of 5- and 6-year-old Japanese children sojourning in China with Japanese children in two cities in Japan. The results indicated that there was no difference between Japanese children in China and Japan for children’s total difficulties. Although social development of children was the same across locations, factors related to pro-social behavior differed between sojourning Japanese children and Japanese children in Japan. Sojourning
children’s pro-social behavior was related to their parents’ reported anxiety or loss of enthusiasm for parenting when children were recalcitrant.

The test for mediation showed marital satisfaction mediated the relationship between family resilience and child total difficulties. Researchers in the U.S. have reported both direct and indirect relationships between marital satisfaction and children’s adjustment (Fishman & Meyers, 2000), including internalizing and externalizing disorders, and peer problems associated with marital distress (Fishman & Meyers, 2000; Katz & Gottman, 1993). However, no studies were found that specifically examined parents’ marital satisfaction and child behavior outcomes in Japan. Researchers are calling for studies that examine the relationship among the marital relationship, child problematic behaviors, and mental health (Sugawara & Takuma, 1997) and the relationship between marital quality and children’s development (Shi & Katsurada, 2008). Meanwhile, researchers have compared determinants of marital satisfaction in Japan and the U.S. (Kamo, 1993), developed marital relationship assessments (Sugawara & Takuma 1997), and examined marital communication and empathy and parents’ attitude toward childrearing (Mizota, 2002).

Results of one qualitative study conducted in Japan suggest marital processes can affect mothers’ interactions with their children (Mizota, 2002). Japanese mothers who reported even limited communication with their husband and empathy from fathers for mothers’ childrearing, also reported appreciating their husbands’ contribution to childrearing and having a positive attitude toward childrearing. In contrast, mothers who reported having enough communication their husband reported negative feelings toward
their husband and sometimes directing their dissatisfaction toward their children if their husband did not also show empathy toward them for childrearing (Mizota, 2002).

According to these previous studies, although Japanese fathers who have young children today tend not to spend as much time in childrearing as their wives or they wish, they hold positive perspective about being involved in childrearing (Mizota, 2002). Fathers’ attitude toward involvement in childrearing is significantly associated with marital satisfaction for both fathers and mothers. Also, the situation of living in the U.S. may lead participants in this present study to consider their spouse as the only family member who can share the responsibility of childrearing in the U.S. Thus, if parents in this study defined “family” as limited to the spouse in the U.S., it could at least partially explain the significant correlation found in this study between processes of family resilience and marital satisfaction for Japanese fathers and mothers.

Results of this study also indicated that a significant relationship between marital satisfaction and child behavior outcomes existed for the whole sample and for mothers. As noted above, Mizota’s (2002) study suggests that mothers who do not sense empathy from their husbands regarding their childrearing are more likely to direct their dissatisfaction to their children. It is unclear why for fathers there was no significant relationship between marital satisfaction and child total difficulties.

Next, there was a statistically significant correlation between the FRA and the SLES for parents (whole data) and mothers, but not for fathers. The family resilience framework (Walsh, 2003) builds on McCubbin and Patterson’s (1983b) family crisis framework which was grounded in Hill’s (1949) family stress theory. These theories emphasize how families who face adversities that result in stress perceive and make
meaning of the events, and how they use their resources to deal with the events make a difference between families who could withstand the events and families who did not. The results of this study indicated that there were inverse correlations between processes of family resilience and Impact of Stressful Life Events and Stress Raising Young Children in the U.S. for the whole data and for mothers. That is, parents who reported more frequent use of processes of family resilience were more likely to report lower impact of stressful life events and lower levels of stress related to raising young children in the U.S.

Sixty-eight percent of fathers in this present study reported wanting to spend more time with their children, confirming prior research that Japanese fathers wish they could spend more time with their children (Sagara et al., 2008). While fathers and mothers did not differ in their rating of the impact of stressful life events, mothers reported significantly more stress raising children than fathers. These results confirm other studies on sojourning Japanese families in which mothers report spending more time with children than fathers and having most of the responsibility for childrearing (Ishizaki & Ishizaki, 2001; Ozeki & Mizumiguch, 2007).

Previous research reported that sojourning Japanese mothers who have young children tend to report stress or mental distress when raising young children abroad (Ishizaki & Ishizaki, 2001; Ozeki, 2008; Ozeki & Knowles, 2009; Ozeki & Mizuguchi, 2007). While this distress can affect children’s level of depression and anxiety, it is important to note that a child’s psychological status can also affect parental distress. Ishizaki and Ishizaki (2001) suggested that isolation from the community and husbands’ long work hours are important factors when considering distressed mothers and children.
Sojourning fathers’ time away from home is a common theme in studies of sojourning Japanese families (Abe, 2006; Arnault, 2002; Nukaga, 2012). Other researchers have also pointed out the social support, in particular marital support, is important to sojourning mother’s well-being and mother-child relationships (Nakagawa, Teti, & Lamb, 1992; Ozeki & Mizumiguch, 2007)

**Predictors of child behavior.** The hierarchical regression model that best fit the data indicated two variables predicted child behavior (total difficulties): impact of stressful life events and stress related to raising young children. Family resilience and marital satisfaction did not predict child behavior outcomes when the other two stress related factors were taken into account.

Correlational analyses identified a relationship between the two stress variables and child behavior problems for mothers but not for fathers; this study supports results of prior studies of sojourning Japanese families. Sojourning Japanese mothers have primary responsibility for childrearing (Nukaga, 2012), and time spent with their children is greater than that of sojourning Japanese fathers. Even when sojourning Japanese parents believe both fathers and mothers should have responsibility for childrearing, the demands of work limit the amount of time sojourning Japanese fathers can spend with their children. Raising children was a primary stressor noted by mothers in this study. One participant wrote comments noting she felt as though they were raising their children alone.

**Predictors of the Impact of Stressful Life Events.** Marital Satisfaction and Stress Raising Young Children in the U.S. predicted the Impact of Stressful Life Events, rather than the FRA for the sample as a whole and for the sub-sample of mothers.
Marital satisfaction was one of the predictors of impact of stressful life events for the whole sample and for mothers. This result confirms prior research on sojourning families. For example, Ozeki and Mizuguchi (2007) indicated that in their quantitative study, sojourning Japanese mothers in the U.S. who needed mental health support reported dissatisfaction with their husbands’ contribution to child rearing. Also, Taniguchi and Baruffi (2007) reported a study with mixed methods about sojourning Japanese mothers who gave birth in Hawaii. This study indicated that poor marital adjustment was one of the significant factors which caused postpartum distress for the sojourning Japanese mothers.

Limited competency in a local language can make daily tasks (e.g., shopping, talking with teachers) challenging. In the case of sojourning Japanese mothers, they can feel isolated from the local community in the U.S. and, at times feel reluctant to seek help from the Japanese community (Ishizaki & Ishizaki, 2001; Nakagawa et al., 1992; Takeuchi et al., 2007; Toyokawa, 2006). Also, because of their visa status, most cannot be employed in the U.S. (Nukaga, 2012; Ozeki & Mizuguchi, 2007; Toyokawa, 2006). Further, Arnault (2002) reported that Japanese husbands work long hours; however, sojourning Japanese mothers may still look to their husbands for emotional and social support.

Current research in Japan has reported that for Japanese fathers who are raising young children, marital satisfaction significantly affects their mental health more than satisfaction with their work place. (Sagara et al., 2008). Fathers of young children are more likely to spend time at home when compared to fathers who are not raising young
children. This time at home contributes to husbands sensing their wives’ feelings directly when compared to fathers who are not raising young children (Sagara et al., 2008).

Stress Raising Young Children in the U.S. is another predictor of the Impact of Stressful Life Events for the whole sample of sojourning parents and for mothers. As mentioned above, mothers have the main responsibility for childrearing, and results of this study indicated that they spend more time with their children than fathers. This study confirms prior research that sojourning Japanese mothers’ stress is related to raising children in the U.S. For example, in an earlier study, when their life stress was high, mothers had more parenting stress if they had less social support (Nakagawa et al., 1992).

Processes of family resilience associated with child behavior outcomes (total difficulties). Results indicated that for the whole data, “Positive Outlook,” “Connectedness,” “Open Emotional Expression,” and “Collaborative Problem Solving” were associated with child behavior problems. For fathers, “Flexibility” and “Open Emotional Expression” were associated with child adjustment. For mothers, only “Problem-Solving” was associated with child adjustment.

Although no prior research was located that examined the relationship between parents’ perceived “Positive Outlook” and child behavioral outcomes for sojourning Japanese families in the U.S., a study of 96 Korean immigrant families with preschoolers and school-aged children identified its importance (Kim & Honing, 1998). Researchers reported that mothers who perceived things positively such as degree of husband’s support, satisfaction with child care, and employment status were more likely to report their children as resilient. Likewise, Buchanan (2008) examined the relationship between family resilience and child adjustment of international adoptees in the U.S. The findings
indicated that there was a significant relationship between parents’ “Positive Outlook” and positive child adjustments. “Connectedness” significantly correlated with child behavior for the whole sample. The participants in this present study may be focused on their spouse as they respond to FRA items that ask about supporting one another, deepening the connection with one another, and being helped to grow while in the U.S. Sojourning can result in a lack of social support from extended family members (Ozeki & Mizuguchi, 2007) and some isolation from the surrounding host community (Foss, 1996). Sojourning Japanese wives also have reported a language barrier (Ozeki & Mizuguchi, 2007) and a hesitation to ask for help (Arnault, 2002). This context may contribute to a tighter bond among family members, resulting in less difficult child behavior.

“Open Emotional Expression” correlated with the child behavior problems for the whole sample and sub-sample of fathers. In the FRA parents were asked about using clear, specific, and honest communication in their family and being able to say whatever they want to one another. The association between open emotional expression and child behavior in this present study was also reported by American parents who adopted internationally. Parents who reported they “openly communicate and problem solve” reported better child adjustment (Buchanan, 2008).

Sojourning Japanese parents, and mothers who reported higher “Collaborative Problem Solving” were more likely to report lower child behavior problems. This relationship can be understood as mothers, who have primary responsibility for raising children, also have primary responsibility to solve problems related to their children (Arnault, 2002; Ishizaki & Ishizaki, 2001; Nukaga, 2012). In Buchanan’s (2008) study of parents who adopted international children, parents who scored higher on, “we discuss
problems and feel good about solutions,” “we discuss things until we reach a resolution,” and “we try new ways of working with problems” were more likely to report better child adjustment (p. 72).

Finally, sojourning Japanese parents and fathers who reported higher “Flexibility” were less likely to report child total difficulties. In the FRA, participants were asked about being flexible when dealing with experiences in the U.S. and continuing with family conventions (e.g., traditions and rituals). Balancing change with family conventions, which often are cultural, can be a challenge for immigrant families. Immigrant families who can find a good balance between both cultures are more likely to report better child adjustment in the host country (Haslberger & Brewster, 2008; Kim & Honing, 1998; Sanagavarapu, 2010).

**Limitations**

There are several possible limitations in this study. First, the findings of this study cannot be generalized to all sojourning Japanese families in the United States because the sample was a convenience sample. While parents from six locations in three U.S. states participated in the study, the sample was not randomly selected and not representative of the population.

Second, the response rate for this study was 9.7%. This response rate is low when compared to other survey studies of sojourning Japanese families. However, this present study used a different data collection strategy than other studies by primarily distributing anonymous questionnaires to parents through day and supplemental Japanese schools and juku. Other studies requested mothers to indicate initial interest in possibly participating and then distributing questionnaires (Nakagawa et al., 1992; Ozeki & Mizuguchi, 2007),
using a contact to distribute questionnaires in a mother’s group as well as to teachers in a supplemental school (Ishizaki & Ishizaki, 2001), and going through a professional association (Takeuchi et al., 2007). Additionally, other studies of sojourning Japanese families collected data through observation and field work (Nukaga, 2012), informal and semi-structured interviewing and observations (Arnault, 2002), and snowball and quota sampling (Abe, 2006).

Third, this study relied on self-report and the conditions under which the participants responded were not controlled. Further, this survey study relied on participants’ perceptions, not direct measures. Social desirability, parental fatigue, and parents completing the questionnaire together could have affected the responses.

Fourth, the current study did not use a matched-pair design to allow comparison of the responses of mothers and fathers in the same household.

Fifth, the FRA was developed by Dr. Duncan Lane in English; it showed high reliability and validity. For this present study the FRA was translated. Although the Japanese translation of the FRA had high reliability, a few participants commented that some words or expressions did not fit a Japanese sense. Additional work may be necessary to produce a translation with stronger validity.

Sixth, as Walsh (2006) emphasized, family resilience is an ability that can be continuously improved till the end of life and that it cannot be thoroughly assessed by one snap-shot moment. The current study was a cross-sectional study, so it could not assess the Japanese sojourning families’ processes of resilience across time.
Implications for Future Research

Further study of family resilience is warranted. While study of individual resilience is growing in Japan, more can be done to examine processes of family resilience. A future study could include a matched-pair design to compare parents’ assessment of the same child.

Results of this present study suggest that at least for some parents raising young children in the U.S. is not experienced as an adversity; however studies, including this present one, suggest a minority of families may find it highly stressful. To better examine the processes of family resilience, future studies could focus on those highly stressed sojourning families to better understand how families cope and what factors are associated with positive child and adult outcomes. Likewise, futures studies could focus on adversity experienced in Japan, such as families experiencing natural disasters.

Future studies could use stratified random sampling. Although there is no comprehensive list of sojourning Japanese in the U.S. that would be accessible to allow a random selection of participants, stratified random sampling could be used to randomly select Japanese schools and/or jukus in a region in the U.S. and then random sampling of parents could be used within each institution. A Japanese government grant that funds a country-wide study may increase response rates for an anonymous survey. With such an endorsement, Japanese parents may be more likely to respond to a survey.

Additional studies are needed of the Japanese translation of the FRA. A first step could be determining whether the reliability and validity of the Japanese translation of the FRA is improved with word changes and/or additional items. For this present study, Dr. Duncan Lane’s 29 items of original FRA, translated in Japanese, was used as the
measurement of processes of family resilience. Eleven additional items were included in the questionnaire but not analyzed as part of this dissertation study but could be in a future study. Given the FRA and KMS were correlated \((r = .634; p < .01)\), and KMS mediated the relationship between FRA and SDQ for a sojourning sample, future studies of families in Japan are needed to explore whether this relationship remains. In this present study, when responding to items about raising young children in the U.S., participants may have considered their “family” to be primarily their spouse.

A longitudinal study using mixed-methods would allow a more in-depth understanding of how sojourning Japanese families respond to stress related to childrearing and use processes of family resilience. Future studies could include measures of teachers’ reports of children’s behaviors and other measures of child adjustment. Samples could include older children who could provide self-reports of their own behaviors and family processes.

**Implications for Practice**

This study has implications for sojourning Japanese parents, Japanese and American schools that serve sojourning children in the U.S., and the companies that employ sojourners.

**Sojourning Japanese Parents**

For the sojourning Japanese parents, the results of this present study indicated that stress-related factors were significant predictors of child behavioral adjustment. To buffer their stress, especially for mothers, it may be important to learn English and gain the sufficient skills to deal with daily issues, including childrearing, while in the U.S. For fathers, as mentioned above, job-related issues were the reported stressors and most
fathers wanted more time with their children. Fathers who face such stressors may wish to negotiate with their employers for more flexibility in their work hours to allow them to spend more time with their young children.

In addition, as the results of this present study indicated, marital satisfaction is the mediator of the relationship between process of family resilience and child behavioral adjustment. It may be important for both fathers and mothers to enhance their marital satisfaction. Also, for Japanese mothers, marital satisfaction is related to their spouse showing empathy for childrearing (Mizota, 2002). Therefore, it may be important for fathers to show empathy to their wives for their contribution to childrearing.

**Schools/Teachers**

This study confirms that, for a sub-group of the mothers in this study, raising young children in the U.S. is stressful. Twenty-three percent reported quite a bit or a lot of stress raising young children, and 10% noted their child’s education was a primary stressor. Also, as noted in the written comments, American schoolteachers’ and classmates’ supportive responses to sojourning Japanese children’s language and cultural challenges can help or hinder children’s adjustment, confirming that the relationship with American school teachers and friends is a significant factor for children to become used to the host culture (Miyamoto & Kuhlman, 2001). Given these results, schools and teachers are encouraged to build good relationships with the sojourning children and their families. Some sojourning children and families may have limited English proficiency. These cases, in particular, call for principals, teachers, and classmates to show friendliness and kindness. If the children feel accepted in school, they adjust better (Miyamoto & Kuhlman, 2001). Schools may also need to use the services of an
interpreter to best understand what parents want to say about their children and differences between Japanese and American educational practices.

Given cultural expectations, sojourning Japanese parents may not directly talk about the challenges they or their children are facing. Principals and teachers in Japanese schools in the U.S. may wish to share resource lists (e.g., English classes for adults, child care, tutoring options for children). The results of this present study indicated that most commonly reported processes used during their sojourn in the U.S were positive outlook, transcendence/spirituality, and meaning making. Also, parents’ perception of their child’s adjustment was associated with 5 key processes of family resilience: positive outlook, connectedness, flexibility, open emotional expression, and collaborative problem-solving (Walsh, 2006). School principals and teachers may wish to convey to parents the possible importance between family processes and children’s behaviors.

Furthermore, some of the participants commented that due to their language barrier they felt isolated from the American community (e.g., children’s American school friends’ parents). To support these sojourning parents, it may be helpful for both American and Japanese schools to provide opportunities for Japanese and American parents to interact each other to increase their mutual understanding of one another. For instance, they may wish to have international festival in their schools that they could plan and do together. Also, they may wish to offer cultural and language classes, taught by Japanese and American parents as volunteers. These types of events are already held at some schools or districts. However, there may still be some sojourning Japanese parents, especially mothers, who feel isolated from the American community. So, schools,
teachers, and school districts may need to endorse the events and encourage sojourning parents to join these events.

**Employers/Government**

One of the participants commented that Japanese companies should consider childrearing issues not only as a parental issue, but also a social issue. Additionally, nearly 70% of fathers in this present study reported that they wished to spend more time with their children. Companies may need to take into account the work hours of fathers who have young children to allow them to spend more time with their family. Also, the most frequently reported stressors by fathers in this study were job-related. Shaffer and colleagues’ (2001) study indicated the importance of expatriate employees’ perception of organizational (i.e., company) support when they were faced with clashing work and family demands. Researchers suggested companies use time-management techniques that permit employees to decline tasks that detract from their primary focus of work, and offer practical support to family members.

In addition, some participants in this present study reported that they were having a hard time due to language and cultural barriers and lacked information about childrearing and daily issues. Also, some of the mothers commented that both they and their children did not have the chance to have training in English before they moved to the U.S., and this lack of training resulted in problems (e.g., child not making friends). While some employers of sojourning Japanese parents provide English and cultural classes to expatriates and their families, additional employers may also wish to do so. Employers could include educational materials about childrearing, education, and guidance on practical issues (e.g., transportation system, child care, health care). Such
training and information could be offered before families move to the U.S. and after they arrive.

Further, one of the participants reported she could not find support when faced with children’s health problems and school-related issues. An embassy or consulate of Japan, and employers of sojourning Japanese expatriates may wish to offer helpline services in Japanese to provide sojourners with appropriate suggestions for dealing with stressors of daily life, guidance on how to approach cultural situations, counseling or advice on challenging situations, and referrals to local resources (e.g., ESL classes, transportation options, counselors and therapists who understand Japanese culture and can speak Japanese). There are some non-profit organizations and private companies that offer this kind of support to sojourning Japanese families; however, more families need to know of this option. Japanese government and employers could provide resource lists with this information to families (e.g., web-based and print information about culture, raising children in the U.S., education practices in the U.S., obtaining medical services for children and adults; location of ESL classes and web-based alternatives). Also, if the budget allows, they may wish to contract with these kinds of support organizations to offer services to sojourning Japanese families.

**Summary**

This chapter reviewed the result of this study in light of prior research. The results of this study support previous studies that sojourning Japanese parents more likely to use positive outlook, transcendence/spirituality, and meaning making in Walsh’s (2006) family resilience framework. Also, the results of this study support previous research that note the importance of these family processes and the stress sojourning Japanese mothers
experience raising children in the U.S. It adds to knowledge of these families by noting fathers’ desire to spend more time with their young children. For parents, their perceived stress predicted child behavioral adjustment, and perceived stress raising young children and marital satisfaction predicted the impact of stressful life events. Further, for mothers, perceived stress raising young children predicted the impact of stressful life events.

Limitations to the study and implications for future research and practice were noted. For instance, future studies could include random sampling, a longitudinal design using mixed methods, and focus on highly stressed sojourning Japanese parents. As for practical implications, based on the results of this study, it is important for sojourning parents to know their perceived stress may affect their children’s adjustment and consider way to lessen their stress. Furthermore, schools and companies may wish to provide, or provide more, information and opportunities for sojourning Japanese parents to facilitate their adjustment in the U.S.
REFERENCES


Appendix A

Human Subjects Institutional Review Board
Letter of Approval
Date: February 27, 2014

To: Karen Blaisure, Principal Investigator
    Mitsuyo Izurai, Student Investigator for dissertation
    Patricia Reeves, Co-Principal Investigator
    Angel Guillon-Rivera, Co-Principal Investigator

From: Amy Naugle, Ph.D., Chair

Re: HSIRB Project Number 14-02-35

This letter will serve as confirmation that your research project titled “Family Resilience and Sojourning Japanese Families in the U.S.” has been approved under the expedited category of review by the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board. The conditions and duration of this approval are specified in the Policies of Western Michigan University. You may now begin to implement the research as described in the application.

Please note: This research may only be conducted exactly in the form it was approved. You must seek specific board approval for any changes in this project (e.g., you must request a post approval change to enroll subjects beyond the number stated in your application under “Number of subjects you want to complete the study”). Failure to obtain approval for changes will result in a protocol deviation. In addition, if there are any unanticipated adverse reactions or unanticipated events associated with the conduct of this research, you should immediately suspend the project and contact the Chair of the HSIRB for consultation.

Reapproval of the project is required if it extends beyond the termination date stated below.

The Board wishes you success in the pursuit of your research goals.

Approval Termination: February 27, 2015
Appendix B

Letters and Emails of Permission
December 2, 2013

Mitsuyo Izumi

c/o Karen Blassure
Department of Family & Consumer Sciences
1923 West Michigan Avenue
Western Michigan University
Kalamazoo, MI  49008-5322

RE: Permission to use and edit the Family Resilience Assessment (FRA)

Dear Ms. Izumi,

It is with pleasure that I give you permission to use the Family Resilience Assessment (FRA) in your dissertation research. Specifically, you have permission to:

- Edit the wording of the FRA to accommodate Japanese culture and heritage
- Ask additional questions that may be useful in a future version of the FRA for Japanese
- Remove "Undecided," from the response list
- Translate the FRA into Japanese
- Collect data
- Reproduce the FRA to send to decision makers (principals, directors, leaders at Japanese schools, jukus, preschools, religious organizations, and others at your discretion)
- Reproduce the FRA in the appendix of your dissertation
- Reproduce the FRA for data collection packets
- Reproduce items from the FRA in the body of your dissertation
- Reproduce items from the FRA in presentations and publications resulting from your dissertation

I look forward to seeing the results of this study and being a part of your progress. If I may be of further assistance, please do not hesitate to contact me at 217-581-3653 or clduncnlane@eiu.edu. I wish you my very best!

Sincerely,

Crystal Duncan Lane, Ph.D., CFLE
Assistant Professor
February 20, 2015

Kitamura Institute of Mental Health Tokyo
101 Akebono 8-5-13, Minato
Tokyo, Japan 107-0052

Dear Dr. Kitamura:

I would like to request your permission to include the following item in my dissertation:

**Stressful Life Events Scale**


I used this scale in my survey of sojourning Japanese parents in the U.S. The source will receive full credit in the manuscript.

For your convenience, I am including a space for your signature on bottom of the page to indicate your permission for my use of the above-mentioned material. By signing below, you give ProQuest Information and Learning (UMI) the right to supply copies of this material on demand as part of my doctoral dissertation.

Please attach any other terms and conditions for the proposed use of this item below. If you no longer hold the copyright to this work, please indicate to whom I should direct my request on the bottom of this page and return it to me.

\[\text{Ishikawa}\]

Name

21 FEB 2015

Date

Thank you for your time and attention to this matter.

Sincerely,

Mitsuyo Shin

c/o Karen Blaising, PhD
1903 West Michigan Avenue
Western Michigan University
Kalamazoo, MI 49008-5322
Appendix C

Step 1: Telephone Recruitment Script
(English and Japanese)
Telephone Recruitment Script for Face Validity Study (English)

“Hello, ______. It’s Mitsuyo Izumi. I am calling to see if you would be interested in perhaps reviewing a questionnaire on family resilience that was developed in English and has been translated into Japanese. I am looking for a few people who are Japanese and parents and currently live in the United States.”

For persons living outside of the region:

“I would send you a hardcopy of the questionnaire in Japanese, a consent document, and a postage-paid return envelope. If, after reading the consent document, you are interested in reviewing the questionnaire you would sign and return the consent document. Then after you sign consent document, we can talk by phone about the questionnaire in Japanese. I am interested in your assessment of the translation, that is, the grammar, word choice, and cultural fit. I would also ask basic demographic information: length of time in the US, age, and number and ages of children. Our conversation would take about 60 minutes, and you would receive a $5 gift card as a thank you for your time. Would you be willing to review this questionnaire?”

If yes, “Thank you. I will mail it to you. What is your address?” [Write down address.] “I will put it in the mail today (or tomorrow). Good-bye.”
If no, “Thank you for considering it. I appreciate your time. Good-bye.”

For persons living in the region:

“We would meet so that you can read and comment and consider if you want to review the questionnaire. If so, after you sign the consent document, you would read and comment on the questionnaire. I am interested in your assessment of the translation, that is, the grammar, word choice, and cultural fit. I would also ask basic demographic information: length of time in the US, age, and number and ages of children. Our conversation would take about 60 minutes, and you would receive a $5 gift card as a thank you for your time. Would you be willing to review this questionnaire?”

If yes, “Thank you. When would be a good time and location to meet? [Schedule the meeting.]”
If no, “Thank you for considering it. I appreciate your time. Good-bye.”
Telephone Recruitment Script for Face Validity Study (Japanese)

“もしもし、______さん。泉 光世です。今日は、______さんが原本が英語で書かれたもので、日本語に翻訳されたファミリーレジリエンス（家族の回復力）の質問項目を吟味していただくことにご興味がないかどうかお聞きしたく、お電話しました。アメリカに現在在住しているお子さんをお持ちの日本人の方を数人探しています。”

近隣に住んでいない人に対して:

“お電話か、直接お会いしてお話しさす前に印刷した日本語版の質問項目を郵送します。I わたしは、あなたの翻訳に対する評価に興味があります。（文法、言葉の選び方、文化的に適した表現かなど）。さらに、基本的属性の質問についてもお聞きしたいと思います：アメリカでの滞在期間、年齢、お子さんの数と年齢など。約1時間ほどお時間をいただくことになると思います。謝礼として5ドルのギフトカードを差し上げたいと思っております。この質問項目の評価をしていただけませんでしょうか。

もし、了承していただけたら、“ありがとうございます。質問項目をお送りさせていただきます。住所を教えていただけませんでしょうか。” 住所を書き留める}{住所を書き留める}“今日（または明日）郵送いたします。失礼します。”

もし、了承していただけなければ、“ご思案いただきありがとうございました。お時間を頂き感謝しております。失礼いたします。”

For persons living in the region:

“直接お会いしてお話しして、日本語版の質問項目を読んで意見を言っていただきます。わたしは、あなたの翻訳に対する評価に興味があります。（文法、言葉の選び方、文化的に適した表現かなど）。さらに、基本的属性の質問についてもお聞きしたいと思います：アメリカでの滞在期間、年齢、お子さんの数と年齢など。約1時間ほどお時間をいただくことになると思います。謝礼として5ドルのギフトカードを差し上げたいと思っております。この質問項目の評価をしていたけませんでしょうか。″
もし、了承していただければ“ありがとうございます。お会いする時間と場所はいつがよろしいでしょうか。”[日程を決める]
もし、了承していただけなければ“ご思案いただきありがとうございます。お時間を頂き感謝しております。失礼いたします。”
Appendix D

Step 1: Research Script, Demographic Items and Data Collection Form (Includes Draft FRA)
(English and Japanese)
Step 1 Introduction to Data Collection Form (English)

On the phone, “Hello, (name of person). I received your signed consent document in the mail. Thank you very much for your willingness to review the questionnaire. I want to know your opinion whether each item makes sense to you grammatically and culturally. Please share with me your ideas and opinion about each item. Let’s go through each item together and please tell me your thoughts. I will then ask you the demographic questions.”

Each participant’s comments will be recorded on the Face Validity Data Collection Form. After the review is completed, “I appreciate your thoughts about this questionnaire. I will mail some Michigan food items to you. Thank you very much for your time today.”

In-person, “Hello, (name of person). Thank you very much for your willingness to review the questionnaire. I know we discussed a gift card as a thank-you gift; however, we would like to thank you in another way. We would like to offer you Michigan food items. Please read the consent document and ask me any questions. If you agree to participate in the study your signature is needed at the end.

If the person agrees to participate, “I want to know your opinion whether each item makes sense to you grammatically and culturally. Please share with me your ideas and opinion about each item. Let’s go through each item together and please tell me your thoughts. I will then ask you the demographic questions.”

Each participant’s comments will be recorded on the Face Validity Data Collection Form. After the review is completed, “I appreciate your thoughts about this questionnaire. Here are some Michigan food items. Thank you very much for your time today.”

If the person does not agree to participate, “Thank you for considering this request. I appreciate your time.”
Step 1 Introduction to Data Collection Form (Japanese)

電話での対応　“もしもし、________。私は、あなたがサインした調査同意書を受け取りました。この度は、質問紙の評価を快くお引き受けいただきありがとうございます。一つ一つの項目が、日本語の文法的に、また、文化的に意味が通じるかどうか、御意見をお伺いしたいと思います。一つ一つの項目についてのお考えをお聞かせください。私と一緒に目を通していただき、御意見をお聞かせいただければともいいます。また、属性についての質問項目についても、ご意見いただければと思います。“

調査参加者の意見は、the Face Validity Data Collection Formに書き留められています。全ての質問項目に目を通した後に、“質問項目についてのご意見をいただき、感謝しております。私は、ミシガン特産物食品を郵送させていただいています。今日は貴重なお時間を頂きありがとうございます。対面する際の対応、“もしもし、この度は、質問紙の評価を快くお引き受けいただきありがとうございました。謝礼についてお話しさせていただきましたことは承知しておりますが、別の形でお礼をさせていただきたいと思います。

ミシガン特産物食品を進呈させていただきたいと思います。調査説明同意書に目を通していただいて、御質問があれば、お聞きください。もし、参加に同意していただけるようでしたら、同意書の最期にサインをしていただくことが必要です。

もし、その人が、参加に同意してくだされば、一つ一つの項目が、日本語の文法的に、また、文化的に意味が通じるかどうか、御意見をお伺いしたいと思います。一つ一つの項目についてのお考えをお聞かせください。私と一緒に目を通していただき、御意見をお聞かせいただければともいいます。また、属性についての質問項目についても、ご意見いただければと思います。“

調査参加者の意見は、the Face Validity Data Collection Formに書き留められています。全ての質問項目に目を通した後に、
“質問項目についてのご意見をいただき、感謝しております。これが、ミシガン特産物食品です。今日は貴重なお時間を頂きありがとうございます。

もし、その人が同意していただけないようなら、”この依頼についてお考えいただきましてありがとうございました。
お時間いただいたこと感謝しております。
Data Collection Form for Face Validity Study (English)

Demographics of Participant in Face Validity Study
(Write the participant number in the corner of this form.)
Age:
Male or Female
Level of Education:
Time in US: _____ years _____ months

[The student investigator will write notes about what the participant says about the translation of the FRA and 11 additional items in the space below each paragraph or item.]

Family Resilience Assessment
Duncan Lane, C. L., 2011

The Family Resilience Assessment can only be reproduced with the permission of Dr. Crystal Duncan Lane.

Hello! Thank you so much for being willing to fill out this survey. Your responses will be used to inform research on family resilience and Japanese families sojourning in the U.S. The following survey items focus on the experience that you and your family have had with raising young children while living in the U.S. Please rate how often or how much each of the following statements apply to your experience by checking the appropriate box.—

Not at All Very Little Sometimes A Lot All the Time

1. The support of my family helps me when I feel overwhelmed with living in America with young children.

2. My family sees living in America with young children as our challenge instead of just my challenge.

3. The experience of having shared past challenges helps my family and I cope with living in America with young children.

4. I feel encouraged by my child’s teacher to face the challenge of living in America with young children.

5. In spite of living in America my family and I are optimistic about the well-being of our young children.

6. My family and I encourage one another when we feel overwhelmed by living in America with young children.

7. My family and I struggle well with any problems we encounter living in America with young children.

8. We realize that living in America with young children cannot be changed and make the best of the situation
9. Our future goals and purpose in life help us cope with living in America with young children.

10. Spirituality is a positive resource in the way my family and I cope with living in America with young children.

11. Spiritual rituals (such as prayer, meditation, attending services, etc.) help us cope with the living in America with young children.

12. My family and I develop creative ways for dealing with living in America with young children.

13. The experience of living in America with young children allows my family and I to grow closer together.

14. My family and I are flexible in how we deal with living in America with small children.

15. My family and I continue with family rituals, traditions, and activities in spite of living in America with young children.

16. My family and I support one another while living in America with young children.

17. My family nurtures me while living in America with young children.

18. My family and I seek reconnection while experiencing living in America with young children.

19. My family and I find support from extended family and friends to face the challenge of living in America with young children.

20. While living in America with young children, my family and I feel supported by my child care provider or my child’s teacher.

21. My family and I sought out support groups to assist with living in America with young children.

22. When my family and I communicate with one another about living in America with young children, it is clear, specific, and honest.

23. My family and I talk openly with one another about living in America with young children.

24. My family and I share our feelings associated with living in America with young children with one another.

25. My family and I respect our differences of opinion about living in America with young children.
26. My family and I are able to find humor in dealing with the difficulties of the living in America with young children.

27. My family and I work together as a team to brainstorm solutions about living in America with young children.

28. My family and I focus more on the positives about living in America with young children than on the negatives.

29. The experience with living in America with young children will help us be prepared for dealing with difficult situations in the future.

30. Experiencing nature (that is, feeling a power beyond human beings) is a positive resource in the way my family and I cope with living in America with young children.

31. Artistic or musical expression (that is, feeling a power beyond human beings) is a positive resource in the way my family and I cope with living in America with young children.

32. My family and I seek out and find support from Japanese friends and/or acquaintances inside of our local community in the US to assist with living in America with young children.

33. My family and I seek out and find support from Japanese friends and/or acquaintances outside of our local community in the US to assist with living in America with young children.

34. My family and I find support from American friends and/or acquaintances in America to assist with living in the US with young children.

35. My family and I find support from friends and family in Japan to assist with living in America with young children.

36. My family and I feel financially secure while living in America with young children.

37. I feel empathy from my spouse about the challenges of living in America with young children.

38. My spouse tries to make life easier for me while living in America with young children.

39. I have empathy for my spouse about the challenges of living in America with young children.

40. I try to make life easier for my spouse while living in America with young children.
フェイスヴァリディティーの調査参加者の属性

学生調査員が回答者の氏名の変わりに番号を書く

年齢
男・女
学歴：
アメリカでの滞在期間： _______年_______ヶ月

ファミリーレジリエンス（家族の回復力）評価尺度
ダンカン・レインC. L. 、 2 0 1 1

ファミリーレジリエンス（家族の回復力）評価尺度はクリスタル・ダンカン・レイン博士の許可を得たもののみリプロデュースできる。

こんにちは。この調査に協力していただき、どうもありがとうございます。あなたの回答は、家族の回復力、およびアメリカに駐在している日本人家族に関する研究のために利用いたします。以下の調査の項目は、あなたとあなたの家族がアメリカに住みながら幼いお子様を育てることについて持った経験に焦点を当てています。以下の文があなたの経験にどのくらいの頻度で、あるいは、どの程度当てはまるかを、適当な答えをチェックしながら評価してください

全くない ほとんどない 時々ある よくある 常にある

1. 幼い子供たちとアメリカに住むことに参ってしまったとき、家族の支えは助けとなっている。

2. 私の家族は、幼い子供たちとアメリカに住むことを「私」だけの挑戦ではなく、「私たち」の挑戦と見ている。

3. 過去の挑戦を分かち合ったという経験は、幼い子供たちとアメリカに住むことに家族と私が対処する際に助けとなっている。
4. 私は、幼い子供たちとアメリカに住むという試練に向き合うよう、私の子供の教師に励まされているように感じている。

5. アメリカに住んでいるにもかかわらず、家族と私は幼い子供たちの幸せに関して楽観的だ。

6. 私たちが幼い子供たちとアメリカに住むことに参ってしまったとき、家族と私は互いに励まし合っている。

7. 家族と私は、幼い子供たちとアメリカに住むときに出くわす問題とうまく闘っている。

8. 私たちは、幼い子供たちとアメリカに住んでいることは変えられないということを自覚しており、この状況を最大限に利用している。

9. 人生における将来の私たちの目標と目的は、幼い子供たちとアメリカに住むことに私たちが対処する際に助けとなっている。

10. スピリチュアリティは、幼い子供たちとアメリカに住むことに家族と私が対処する際に、有益である。

11. スピリチュアルな儀式（祈り、瞑想、礼拝への出席など）は、幼い子供たちとアメリカに住むことに私たちが対処する際に助けとなっている。

12. 家族と私は、幼い子供たちとアメリカに住むことに対処するために様々な創造的な方法を開拓している。

13. 幼い子供たちとアメリカに住むという経験は、家族と私の関係をより親密にしてくれている。

14. 家族と私は、幼い子供たちとアメリカに住むことに臨機応變に対応している。

15. 幼い子供たちとアメリカに住んでいるにもかかわらず、家族と私は家族の儀式、伝統、行動を続けている。

16. 家族と私は、幼い子供たちとアメリカに住んでいる間互いを支え合っている。
17. 幼い子供たちとアメリカに住んでいる間、家族は私をはぐくんでくれている。

18. 幼い子供たちとアメリカに住むということを経験しながら、家族と私は絆を再び深めようとしている。

19. 幼い子供たちとアメリカに住むという挑戦に立ち向かうため、家族と私は親戚と友人からの支援を見つけている。

20. 幼い子供たちとアメリカに住んでいる間、家族と私は保育士、または子供の先生に支えられているように感じている。

21. 家族と私は、幼い子供たちとアメリカに住むことに関して援助をしてくれる支援団体を探した。

22. 家族と私が幼い子供たちとアメリカに住むことについて互いにコミュニケーションを取るときには、それは明確で具体的で誠実だ。

23. 家族と私は、幼い子供たちとアメリカに住むことについて率直に話し合っている。

24. 家族と私は、幼い子供たちとアメリカに住むことに連関した感情をお互いに分かち合っている。

25. 家族と私は、幼い子供たちとアメリカに住むことについて意見の相違を尊重している。

26. 家族と私は、幼い子供たちとアメリカに住むことの中での困難に対処する際、ユーモアを見つけることができる。

27. 家族と私は、幼い子供たちとアメリカに住むことに関して様々な解決策を引き出すためにチームとして取り組んでいる。

28. 家族と私は、幼い子供たちとアメリカに住むことについて、否定的なことより肯定的なことに注目している。
29. 幼い子供たちとアメリカに住むという経験は、私たちが将来困難な状況に対処するのに備える際に助けとなるだろう。

30. 自然（つまり、人間を超えた力を感じること）を経験することは、幼い子供たちとアメリカに住むことに家族と私が対処する際に有益な資源となっている。

31. 芸術的、または音楽的な表現（つまり、人間を超えた力を感じること）は、幼い子供たちとアメリカに住むことに家族と私が対処する際に有益な資源となっている。

32. 家族と私は、幼い子供たちとアメリカに住むことに関して力を貸してくれる、アメリカの私たちの地域に住む日本人の友人および、または知り合いからの支援を探し見つけている。

33. 家族と私は、幼い子供たちとアメリカに住むことに関して力を貸してくれる、アメリカの私たちの地域の外の日本人の友人および、または知り合いからの支援を探し見つけている。

34. 家族と私は、幼い子供たちとアメリカに住むことに関して力を貸してくれる、アメリカに住むアメリカ人の友人および、または知り合いからの支援を見つけていている。

35. と私は、幼い子供たちとアメリカに住むことに関して力を貸してくれる、日本に住む友人や家族からの支援を見つけていている。

36. 幼い子供たちとアメリカに住んでいる間、家族と私は経済的に安定している。

37. 幼い子供たちとアメリカに住むという挑戦について、私は配偶者からの共感を感じている。

38. 幼い子供たちとアメリカに住んでいる間、私の配偶者は私が暮らしやすくなるように気遣ってくれる。

39. 幼い子供たちとアメリカに住むという挑戦について、私は配偶者に共感を感じている。
４０．幼い子供たちとアメリカに住んでいる間、私は配偶者が暮らしやすくなるように気遣っている。
Appendix E

Step 2: Phase 1 Telephone Script Used with First School Principal
(English and Japanese)
Telephone Script Used with First School Principal (English)

A telephone call will be made to a large Japanese school to request the school be a site to distribute questionnaires to parents of children who are in kindergarten classes, first grade classes, and second grade classes.

“Hello, my name is Izumi, a doctoral student of Western Michigan University. Today I want to ask you if you are interested in my dissertation research project and are willing to receive an invitation to be a distribution site for the research. May I speak to the principal?”

The person who answered the telephone will transfer the telephone call to a principal. When the responsible person is on the phone, the student investigator will say:

“Hello, my name is Izumi, a doctoral student of Western Michigan University. I talked with you last September about whether you would be interested in receiving an invitation for your school to participate in research. You said yes, and we agreed that I would call you after my study was approved by the university’s human subject institutional review board.

Today, I would like to tell you details about my dissertation research study and see if it is possible for me to send you an invitation for your school to be a distribution site for my research. Please let me explain my research. My research topic is the relationship between Japanese sojourning families’ resilience, impact of stress, and children’s adjustment. The purpose for this research is to clarify what key processes of family resilience Japanese sojourning families use, and examine the relationship between the key processes of family resilience and impact of stress and child adjustment. My final goal is to offer useful information to Japanese sojourning families, Japanese families who will become sojourners in their future, Japanese and American school teachers, Japanese government in the US, and social workers all who are responsible for supporting Japanese sojourning families and children. The target population is parents/guardians of students between the ages of 4 and 8. If it possible, I would like the homeroom teachers or administrative staff to distribute research packets to the parents/guardians. If parents/guardians have more than one child between the ages of 4 and 8, the parents/guardians would be asked to take only one research packet. Would you be willing to receive an invitation for the school to be a distribution site?”

If the person says, “No,” then I will say “Okay, thank you very much for your time. Good bye.”

If the person says, “Yes, I am interested in your research project.”

Then I will say, “Thank you very much. I will send you a formal request letter by mail. Would you like to see a copy of the questionnaire?”

If the person says “yes,” I will say, “Okay. I will send a copy of the questionnaire. Please read over the formal letter. If you agree that your school can be a distribution site
for this research, please sign the letter and return it in the stamped, return envelope addressed to the co-chair of my research committee. Thank you very much again for your cooperation and kindness. And please feel free to contact me either by phone or e-mail if you have any question after you receive a formal request letter. Please take care and good bye.”

If the person says “no, you do not have to” I will say, “Okay. I will send the formal letter. If you agree that your school can be a distribution site for this research, please sign the letter and return it in the stamped, return envelope addressed to the co-chair of my research committee. Thank you very much again for your cooperation and kindness. And please feel free to contact me either by phone or e-mail if you have any question after you receive a formal request letter. Please take care and good bye.”
Telephone Script for Used with School Principals (Japanese)

大規模日本人学校に 幼稚園、小学1年生、2年生のお子さんを持つ保護者の方へ、質問紙を配布する場所として承認していただけるよう依頼する際の電話の対応:

“こんにちは。泉 光世と申します。ウエスタンミシガン大学の博士課程に在籍しております。今日は、貴校に私の博士論文の調査研究にご興味をお持ちいただき、調査用紙を配布場所としてご協力をお願いする調査依頼書をお受け取りいただけるようお願いしたくご連絡させていただきました。校長先生とお話させていただいてよろしいでしょうか。”

電話に対応された方から、校長先生にかわっていたときに、私は:

“こんにちは。泉 光世と申します。ウエスタンミシガン大学の博士課程に在籍しております。

私の調査研究に、貴校が参加することについての依頼状を受け取ることに、ご興味があるかどうか、昨年9月にお電話させていただきました。その際に、前向きに検討していただけることとで、私の通う大学の倫理委員会に調査実施についての承認を得た後、再度ご連絡させていただくということでしたので、今回その調査依頼書をお受け取りいただけますよう、お願いをするためにご連絡させていただきました。

本日は、その調査依頼書をお受け取りいただけるよう、私の研究について再度、ご説明させていただければと思います。研究テーマは、日本人駐在員のファミリーレジリエンス（家族の回復力）と、ストレスの印象と子どもの適応との関係性についてです。この研究の目的は、日本人駐在員家族がどのファミリーレジリエンス（家族の回復力）のキープロセスを使っているのかを明らかにし、また、そのキープロセスがストレスの印象と、子どもの適応とどのような関係性があるかを調べることです。最終目標としては、日本人駐在員、これから駐在員になる日本人家族、そしてそのひとつに責任のある 日米双方の学校の先生方、駐在員の雇用者、在米日本政府機関、ソーシャルワーカー、に日本人駐在家族と子供たちをサポートするために有益な情報を提供することです。調査対象は4歳から8歳までのお子様の保護者の方または、父兄の方です。もし、可能でしたら、対象年齢の子供たちのクラス担任または、職員の方に調査用紙の入ったパッケージを保護者／父兄の方に配布していただけると幸いと思っております。もし、保護者／父兄の方に4歳から8歳の子どもが1人以上いらっしゃるようでしたら、ひとつのパッケージをお取りいただくようお願いします。できましたら、私の調査研究にご協力いただけるように、お考えいただけないでしょうか?

もし、校長先生が：
“できません。” と、おっしゃられたら、“了解しました。お時間ありがとうございました。失礼します。”
もし、校長先生が“いや、ちょっと、あなたの調査研究に興味あります。”とおっしゃれば、

“どうもありがとうございます。正式な調査の依頼状を郵送します。もし、よろしければ、質問紙のコピーとお送りさせていただきますが、お送りしましょうか?”
もし、校長先生が“はい、送ってください。”とおっしゃければ、“了解いたしました。質問紙のコピーをお送りいたします。”と答え、“質問項目に目を通してください。依頼状をお読みいただいて、もし、貴校が調査用紙配布場所としてお引き受けいただけますようなら、同意書にサインをしていただいて、共同主任調査者のオフィスに切手の張ってある返信用封筒で返信していただけますようお願いいたします。ご協力いただけますこと、改めて感謝いたします。質問紙のサンプルと正式な調査の依頼状をお読みになって、何かご質問がありましたら、ご遠慮なくe-mailまたは電話でご連絡ください。では、失礼いたします。”
もしその人が、“お送りいただかなくて結構です。”とおっしゃったら、“了解しました。では、正式な依頼状をお送りします。もし、貴校が調査用紙配布場所としてお引き受けいただけますようなら、同意書にサインをしていただいて、共同主任調査者のオフィスに切手の張ってある返信用封筒で返信していただけますようお願いいたします。ご協力いただけますこと、改めて感謝いたします。質問紙のサンプルと正式な調査の依頼状をお読みになって、何かご質問がありましたら、ご遠慮なくe-mailまたは電話でご連絡ください。では、失礼いたします。”
Appendix F

Step 2: Letter to Principals and Juku Director of Sites Visited
(English and Japanese)
Invitation Letter

School Address

Date

Dear (title and name of contact)
I appreciate your interest in the research study of sojourning parents in the United States. As I mentioned by phone, the research purpose is to examine what key processes of family resilience are used by Japanese sojourning mothers and fathers, and how they relate to the perceived impact of stress and their children’s adjustment. My final goal is to offer useful information to Japanese sojourning families, Japanese families who will become sojourners in their future, Japanese and American school teachers, Japanese government in the US, and social workers all who are responsible for supporting Japanese sojourning families and children.

This survey research is anonymous. That means parents’ names will not be collected. Also, we will not use the name of the school or schools that agree to distribute research packets to parents. In publications we will only refer to this school as a Japanese school in large city in the U.S. A copy of the questionnaire is attached to this letter. The research packet to parents includes two envelopes (one for a mother and one for a father) and a note thanking the parents for considering the invitation to participate in the study and two thank-you gifts: notecards for the parents and stickers for the children. In each parent envelope there are the consent document describing the study, a list of resources, the questionnaire, and a stamped-return envelope addressed to the student investigator and primary investigator.

If it possible, we would like the homeroom teachers or administrative staff to distribute research packets to the parents/guardians of children who are in kindergarten, first grade and second grade.

Attached to this letter is a sample questionnaire for your review. The content of the questionnaire is copyrighted, so please do not make copies or distribute it. If you agree that your school can be a distribution site, please sign below and send this letter and sample questionnaire back to us in the stamped-returned envelope. You may wish to make a copy of the signed letter before returning the original.

Upon receiving the signed letter, we will contact you to set up a time to deliver the research packets to you in person. At that time we will need about 30 minutes to review the procedures for distributing the questionnaires.

If you do not wish the school to be a distribution site, please return the sample questionnaire and this letter unsigned in the return envelope.
If you have any question about our research, please feel free to contact Dr. Karen Blaisure (e-mail: karen.blaisure@wmich.edu, phone: 269-387-3663) or Ms. Izumi (e-mail: mitsuyo.izumi@wmich.edu, phone: 269-993-7189).

Sincerely,

Professor: Dr. Karen Blaisure
Western Michigan University
Department of Family and Consumer Science

Student Investigator: Ms. Mitsuyo Izumi
Western Michigan University
Department of Educational Leadership

I agree that ___________ will be a distribution site for your study of Japanese sojourning families, “Family Resilience and Sojourning Japanese Families in the U.S.”

(Printed Name) __________________________________________

(Signature) _____________________________________________

Date ___________
学校名
住所
日付
代表者氏名　殿
拝啓

アメリカにおける駐在員の親についての研究にご興味をお持ちい
tだきたき、誠にありがとうございます。お電話でお話しさせていただ
きましたように、私どもの研究の目的は日本人駐在員の父親、母親
が、それぞれどのファミリーレジリエンス（家族の回復力）のキープロセスを使い、また、ファミリーレジリエンス（家族の回
復力）のキープロセスとストレスのインパクト、子供の適応がい
かに関係しているのかを調査することです。最終目標としまして
は、日本人駐在員家族、これから駐在員になる日本人家族、そし
てその人たちに責任のある、日米双方の学校の先生方、在米日
本政府機関、ソーシャルワーカーの方々に、日本人駐在家族と子
供たちをサポートするために有益な情報を提供することです。
この調査は無記名です。つまり、保護者・父兄の方の名前を収集
することはありません。また、本研究のためのデータ収集のため
にご協力いただいた学校の名前を利用することはありません。この
調査に関する出版物を出す際には、アメリカ国内の大都市のひと
つの中の学校ということだけ明記します。質問項目のコピーを同
封いたします。調査の参加者にお配りする、調査パッケージには
二つの封筒が入っており（母親用、父親用）ご興味を持ってい
ただいたことへの感謝の手紙と、二つの謝礼の品が入っています。
一つは、保護者・父兄の方へのノートカードと、もうひと
つはお子さまへのシールです。 倫理審査委員の承認書、調査説明書、情報源リスト、質問紙、学生調査員と主任調査員宛てに切手を貼った返信用封筒がそれぞれの封筒に入っています。
もし、可能でしたら、上記調査パッケージを、幼児部、小学1年生、2年生までのクラス担任の先生または、職員の方から、クラスの子供たちの保護者の方で調査にご協力いただける方に配布していただければと思っております。
この手紙に同封してある質問用紙が貴校に確認していただくための質問項目です。質問紙の内容は著作権の問題がありますので、複製したり、他者に譲渡したりしないようお願い申し上げます。もし、貴校を調査用紙の配布場所として承認していただけますようでしたら、下記に署名していただいたものと、質問用紙を切手を貼った返信用封筒で返送していただけますようお願い申し上げます。署名した用紙をお送りいただく前に、コピーをお取りになり保管していただいても結構です。
同意書がこちらに届きましたら、こちらからご連絡させていただき、質問用紙を直接お届けする日時について決めたいと思います。質問用紙を配布する手順について確認するために30分ほどお時間がかかると思います。
もしも、ご同意いただけないようでしたら、お送りした質問用紙と、この同意書の用紙にサインしないで、返信用封筒に入れて返信していただけますようお願い申し上げます。
もし、何かご質問があるようでしたら、カレン・ブレイジャー博士(e-mail: karen.blaisure@wmich.edu, phone: 269-387-3663)または、泉 光世(e-mail: mitsuyo.izumi@wmich.edu, phone: 269-993-7189)まで、ご連絡ください。
敬具
教授：カレン・ブレジャー博士
ウエスタンミシガン大学
ファミリー＆コンシューマーサイエンス学部

学生調査員：泉 光世修士
ウエスタンミシガン大学
エデュケーショナルリーダーシップ学部

私は、______________________を日本人駐在員家族のファミリーレジリエンスのキープロセスとこどもの適応についての調査研究の調査用紙配布場所として承認します。

楷書氏名 ________________________________

署名 ________________________________

日付 ____________
Appendix G

Step 2: Flyer for First School, Juku, and Last School
(English and Japanese)
Flyer for First School, Juku, and Last School (English)

Dear Guardians of Kindergarteners, First Graders, and Second Graders

Western Michigan University Graduate Student
Mitsuyo Izumi

About the research “Family Resilience in Sojourning Japanese Families in the U.S.”

My name is Mitsuyo Izumi and currently I am studying in a doctoral program at Western Michigan University. At the university I am studying sojourning Japanese families in the United States, focusing on the relationship between families’ strengths when facing difficulties and child behavior.

Therefore, I would like to invite you to learn more about my survey research project about sojourning Japanese families who have children ages from 4 to 8 (kindergartener, first grader, and second grader).

The prepared packet includes an explanation of the project, the questionnaire for each parent, a return envelope, and a small gift of appreciation. This survey research is anonymous. The information which I obtain will only be used for this project. Please take a packet as you leave and consider it.

I will try my best to do this research project so your important response which I obtain may be useful for future sojourning Japanese families.

After I complete this project I will share a summary of the results with the school.
幼稚部、小学部1〜2粘性の保護者の皆様

ウエスタンミシガン大学大学院生

泉 光世

ファミリーレジリエンス（家族が困難に立ち向かう力）とアメリカに駐在している家族

の調査について

現在、ウエスタンミシガン大学の博士課程で学んでいる泉 光世と申します。大学では、アメリカに駐在されている御家庭を対象に、御家族の困難に立ち向かうとする力とお子さまの成長との関連についてのプロジェクト研究を行っております。

そのため、アメリカで生活されている駐在員のうち、4歳から8歳（幼稚部、小学1〜2年生）のお子さまのいらっしゃるご家庭に私のプロジェクトのアンケート調査のお願いをしたいと思います。

用意いたしましたパッケージには、プロジェクトの趣旨、御両親それぞれへのアンケート調査用紙、返信用封筒、そしてごことばかりのお礼の粗品を同封させていただきました。なお、この調査は無記名とし、皆様からいただいた情報は本プロジェクトのみに限って使用させていただきます。お帰りの際にパッケージをお持ちいただき、御検討をいただけますよう、何卒よろしくお願い申し上げます。

なお、いただきました皆様の貴重な回答が、これからの駐在員の御家庭に役立つものとなるよう、プロジェクト研究に全力を尽くしたいと思います。また、プロジェクトが終わった段階で、成果をまとめたものを学校に情報提供させていただきます。
Appendix H

Step 2: Telephone Script for Other School Principals and Juku Director
Telephone Script for Schools with Kindergartens/ Jukus/ Religious Organizations (English)

Telephone calls will be made to Japanese schools, jukus, kindergartens, and religious organizations to request that they be a site to distribute questionnaires to parents of children ages 4 to 8.

"Hello, my name is Izumi, a doctoral student of Western Michigan University. This is my first time to contact you. Today I want to ask you if you are interested in my dissertation research project and to be a distribution site for the research. May I speak to a responsible person about this issue?"

The person who answered the phone will transfer the phone to the responsible person. When the responsible person on the phone, the student investigator will say:

"Hello, my name is Izumi, a doctoral student of Western Michigan University. Today, I want to ask you if you would consider your school (or juku, kindergarten, or religious group) to be a distribution site for my research. My research topic is the relationship between sojourning Japanese families’ resilience, impact of stress, and children’s adjustment. My final goal is to offer useful information to Japanese sojourning families, Japanese families who will become sojourners in their future, Japanese and American school teachers, Japanese government in the US, and social workers all who are responsible for supporting Japanese sojourning families and children. I am interested in learning from parents/guardians of students between the ages of 4 and 8. If it possible, I would like research packets to be distributed to the parents/guardians. If parents/guardians have more than one child between the ages of 4 and 8, the parents/guardians would be asked to take only one research packet. Would you be willing to consider the school to be a distribution site?"

If the person say “No” then I will say “Okay, thank you very much for your time. Good bye.”

If the person says “Yes, I am interested in your research project.”

Then I will say, “Thank you very much. I will send you a formal request letter by mail. Would you like to see a copy of the questionnaire?”

If the person says “yes,” I will say, “Okay. I will send a copy of questionnaire. Please read over the copy of questionnaire and the formal letter. If you agree that your school can be a distribution site for this research, please sign the letter and return it in the stamped, return envelope addressed to the co-chair of my research committee. Thank you very much again for your cooperation and kindness. And please feel free to contact me if you have any question after you receive a formal request letter either by phone or e-mail. Please take care and good bye.”
If the person says “no, you do not have to” I will say, “Okay. I will send the formal letter. If you agree that your school can be a distribution site for this research, please sign the letter and return it in the stamped, return envelope addressed to the co-chair of my research committee. Thank you very much again for your cooperation and kindness. And please feel free to contact me if you have any question after you receive a formal request letter either by phone or e-mail. Please take care and good bye.”
電話対応された方から、責任者の方にかわっていたとき
に、私は:

“こんにちは。泉 光世と申します。ウエスタンミシガン大学の
博士課程に在籍しております。今日は、貴校（塾、宗教団体）に
私の博士論文の調査研究にご興味をお持ちいただき、調査用紙を
配布場所としてご協力いただけないかお願いしたくご連絡させて
いただきました。私の研究のテーマは、日本人駐在員の家族のファミリーレジリエンス（家族の回復力）のキープロセスと、ストレスに対するインパクト、子供の適応との関係についてです。私の最終目標を
しでない、現在駐在している日本人家族、また将来駐在される
日本人家族、またその人たちに責任のある、日米双方の学校の教諭、在米日本政府機関、ソーシャルウォーカーの方々に日本人駐在員家族と子供たちをサポートするために有益な情報を提供することです。調査対象は4歳から8歳までのお子様の保護者の方または、父兄の方からの御意見をいただき、学ばせていただきたいと思っております。もしも、可能でしたら、調査用紙の入ったパッケージを保護者の方または父兄の方に配布してい
ただければと思っております。4歳から8歳までの子供が複数いらっしゃるようでしたら、1つだけパッケージをお取りいただければと思います。できましたら、私の調査研究にご協力いただけるように、お考えいただけないでしょうか？
もし、担当者の方が：“できません。”とおっしゃられたら、“了解しました。お時間ありがとうございました。失礼します。”と答えます。
もし、担当者の方が“いいですよ、あなたの調査研究に興味あります。”とおっしゃれば、「どうもありがとうございます。正式な調査の依頼状を郵送させていただきます。もし、よろしければ、実際の質問項目のコピーをお送りさせていただきますか？“
もし、その人が“実際の質問項目のコピーをお送りください。”と答えたら、“承知しました。実際の質問項目のコピーと正式な依頼状をお送りします。実際の質問項目のコピーと依頼状に目を通してください、もし、貴校が調査用紙配布場所としてお引き受けいただけますようなら、調査を受け入れの同意書にサインをしていただいて、共同主任調査者のオフィスに切手の張ってある返信用封筒で返信していただけますようお願いいたします。ご協力いただければ、改めて感謝いたします。実際の質問項目のコピーと正式な調査の依頼状をお受け取りになってから、何かご質問がありましたら、お電話またはe-mailで御連絡ください。
もし、その人が“いいえ、お送りいただかなくて結構です”と答えられたら、“承知しました。正式な依頼状をお送りします。もし、貴校が調査用紙配布場所としてお引き受けいただけますようなら、調査受け入れの同意書にサインをしていただいて、共同主任調査者のオフィスに切手の張ってある返信用封筒で返信していたら、……
だけますようお願いいたします。ご協力いただけますこと、改めて感謝いたします。正式な調査の依頼状をお受け取りになってから、何かご質問がありましたら、ご遠慮なくe-mailまたはお電話でご連絡ください。では、失礼します。
Appendix I

Step 2: Flyer for Second School  
(English and Japanese)
Flyer for Second School (English)

[location and name of school]] Supplemental School
Dear Guardians of Kindergarteners, First Graders, and Second Graders

Western Michigan University Graduate Student
Mitsuyo Izumi

About the research “Family Resilience in Sojourning Japanese Families in the U.S.”
My name is Mitsuyo Izumi and currently I am studying in a doctoral program at Western Michigan University. At the university I am studying sojourning Japanese families in the United States, focusing on the relationship between families’ strengths when facing difficulties and child behavior.
Therefore, I would like to invite you to learn more about my survey research project about sojourning Japanese families who have children ages from 4 to 8 (kindergartener, first grader, and second grader). At this time, I have permission from the ___[location and name of school]; I would like the research packet to be distributed at the Parents/Teachers Conference.

The prepared packet includes an explanation of the project, the questionnaire for each parent, a return envelope, and a small gift of appreciation. This survey research is anonymous. The information which I obtain will only be used for this project. Please take a packet as you leave and consider it.

I will try my best to do this research project so your important response which I obtain may be useful for future sojourning Japanese families.

After I complete this project I will share a summary of the results with the ___[location and name of school] ____ [name of principal]. I appreciate the Principal’s, teachers’, and staff’s understanding and cooperation.
Flyer for Second School (Japanese)

補習校
幼稚部、小学部1～2年生の保護者の皆様

ウエスタンミシガン
大学大学院生

泉 光世

ファミリーレジリエンス（家族が困難に立ち向かう力）とアメリカに駐在している家族

の調査 について
現在、ウエスタンミシガン大学の博士課程で学んでいる泉 光世と申します。大学では、アメリカに駐在されている御家庭を対象に、御家族の困難に立ち向かう力とお子さまの成長との関連についてのプロジェクト研究を行っております。

そのため、アメリカで生活されている駐在員のうち、4歳から8歳（幼稚部、小学1～2年生）のお子さまのいらっしゃるご家庭に私のプロジェクトのアンケート調査のお願いをしたいと思います。この度、[location and name of school]の許可を頂き、参観日の折に調査用紙をお配りさせていただくことといたしました。

用意いたしましたパッケージには、プロジェクトの趣旨、御両親それぞれへのアンケート調査用紙、返信用封筒、そしてここことばかりのお礼の粗品を同封させていただきました。なお、この調査は無記名とし、皆様からいただいた情報は本プロジェクトのみに限って使用させていただきます。お帰りの際にパッケージをお持ちいただき、御検討をいただけますよう、何卒よろしくお願い申し上げます。
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なお、いただきました皆様の貴重な回答が、これからの駐在員の御家庭に役立つ
ものとなるよう、プロジェクト研究に全力を尽くしたいと思います。また、プロ
ジェクトが終わった段階で、成果をまとめたものを_____ [location and name of
school]に情報提供させていただきます。
末筆となりましたが、御理解と御協力を賜りました___[Location and name of

school] ___ [Name of principal]、並びに教職員の皆様に心から感謝申し上げま
す。


Appendix J

Step 2: Telephone Script for Personal Contact to Use When Telephoning Schools with Kindergartens and Jukus (English and Japanese)
Telephone Script for Personal Contact to Use When Telephoning Schools with Kindergarten and Jukus (Japanese)

Personal Contact:
“Hello. This is _____. I am calling to ask if an acquaintance of mine who is a doctoral student at Western Michigan University may call you to let you know about a research project she is doing? Her name is Mitusyo Izumi and she is studying the resilience of Japanese families who sojourning in the United States for a few years and needs a way to distribute the questionnaire to parents. If you are interested in learning more about this research and receiving an invitation to be a distribution site for questionnaires, may she telephone you?

Telephone Script for Personal Contact to Use When Telephoning Schools with Kindergarten and Jukus (Japanese)

個人的連絡：
“こんにちは。_____です。お電話させていただいているのは、わたしたしの知り合いでウエスタンミシガン大学の博士課程の学生がかの上の取り組んでいる調査プロジェクトのことについて、あなたにお電話させていただいてよいかどうかお聞きするためです。彼女の名前は泉光世で、アメリカに数年駐在している家族の回復力について研究していて、その日本人家族の親に調査用紙を配布する場所を探しています。もし、この調査についてもっと知りたいと思われ、また、調査用紙の配布場所として承認いただく依頼書をお受け取りいただけることに御興味があるようでしたら彼女からお電話させていただいてよろしいでしょうか。
Appendix K

Step 2: Script to Use with Personal Contacts to Ask to Distribute Research Packets to Parents (English and Japanese) and Script for Personal Contact to Use When Contacting Parents (English and Japanese)
Script to use with Personal Contacts to Ask to Distribute Research Packets to Parents (English)

The student investigator will email or talk by phone or in-person with her acquaintances whom she knows has connections with some sojourning Japanese parents who have young children in the U.S.

[IN-PERSON OR BY PHONE] “Hello, _____ this is Izumi. May I talk with you now for a few minutes?”

If no, “Thank you.”

If the person say, yes, then I will say, [THE EMAIL WOULD BEGIN “This is Izumi.” AND CONTINUE WITH THE FOLLOWING] “I would like to ask you if you are willing to distribute research packets to acquaintances for my dissertation research project. I would like research packets given to Japanese parents sojourning in America and who have a child who is in kindergarten, first grade, or second grade. Would you be willing to give research packets to parents you know?”

If the person says “no”, then I will say [OR WRITE IN AN EMAIL], “Thank you very much for your time. Good-Bye.”

If person say “yes”, then I will say [OR WRITE IN AN EMAIL], “Thank you very much. How many research packets do you think you can distribute? Also please let me know when I can give you the research packets?”

Script to use with Personal Contacts to Ask to Distribute Research Packets to Parents (English)

学生調査者が電話をかける、又は、直接話し相手は彼女の知り合いおよび幼い子どもを持つ日本人の親とのコネクションがあることはすでに知っています。

[対面、又は電話] “もしもし、泉です。今、数分お話してもいいですか？”

もし、その人が“いいえ”と答えたら、“わかりました。ありがとうございました。”

もし、そのひとが“はい”と答えたら、[E-mailの場合はここから始まる。]“こんにちは、泉と申します。’

プロジェクトの調査用紙の配布可能な小さいお子さんを持つ日本人の方に調査用紙をお渡しいただけないかお願いします。アメリカに駐在している日本人の親御さんで、幼稚園、小学一年生、小学二年生のお子さんを持つ方に調査のパッケージをお渡ししたいと思っています。お知り合いの方に、この調査パッケージを渡していただけませんか？”
もし、その人が“いいえ”と答えたら、[又は、E-mail を書く。]“わかりました。ありがとうございます。”と、答えます。
もし、その人が “はい”と答えたら、[又は、E-mail を書く。]“どうも、ありがとうございます。何人の方に、お渡しいただけると思われますか？いつ、調査用紙の入ったパッケージをお渡しすればよいでしょうか教えていただけませんでしょうか？”と、言います

Script for Personal Contact to Use When Contacting Parents (English)

Personal Contact:
“Hello. I want to let you know that an acquaintance of mine who is a doctoral student at Western Michigan University is looking for people to participate her dissertation research project. Her name is Mitsuyo Izumi and she is studying Japanese families who are sojourning in America for a few years and who have children in kindergarten, first grade, or second grade. If you are willing to read it, would you please take this research packet that includes questionnaires?
If yes, “Thank you!”
If no, “Thank you.”

Script for Personal Contact to Use When Contacting Parents (Japanese)

個人的連絡：
“こんにちは。わたしの知り合いでウエスタンミシガン大学の博士課程の学生が彼女の取り組んでいる調査プロジェクトの調査に御協力いただける方を探していることをお伝えしたいと思います。彼女の名前は泉光世で、アメリカに数年駐在している家族で、幼稚園、小学一年生、小学二年生のお子さんがいらっしゃる方について研究しています。もし、よろしければ、この調査用紙の入ったこのパッケージを受け取って読んでいただけませんか？”
もし、「はい」と答えられたら「ありがとうございます。」
もし、「いいえ」と答えられたら「ありがとうございます。」
Appendix L

Step 2: Letter for Distribution Sites Sending Research Packets Home with Children
(Letter Mailed with Research Packets)
(English and Japanese)
Letter for Distribution Sites Sending Research Packets Home with Children (Letter Mailed with Research Packets) (English) [On Letterhead]

Date
Name
Address

Dear (Title and Name of Principal/Director/Pastor or Priest):

We are very grateful for your interest in our research. We know we should visit you to show our appreciation and explain our research project in person. We apologize for any inconvenience.

Thank you for agreeing to distribute [a copy of a flyer or letter and the research packet, OR a copy of the research packet] to parents of children in kindergarten, first grade, and second grade. Please find copies of [a flyer or letter and the research packet, OR a copy of the research packet] in this box.

On the outside of the research packet, the following information is written in Japanese and English: «Dear Parents/Guardians: This packet is for a Japanese employee assigned to work in the U.S. temporarily and a spouse who are guardians of a child in kindergarten, first grade and second grade (ages 4 to 8). If you have more than one child in school between kindergarten and second grade, please only one take one packet. If you receive more than one, please return the others to a classroom teacher or the administration office. Thank you very much.»

Inside are two envelopes: one for the mother and for the father. Each envelope has a questionnaire, a Human Subject Institutional Review Board-approved a consent document, a list of resources, and an addressed and stamped return envelope. In addition to the two envelopes, the research packet contains a thank-you note, notecards in recognition of their time, and stickers for the children.

Guardians will indicate their consent to participate in the study by returning the questionnaire. No signed consent document will be requested as participation in this study is anonymous. Guardians will be directed to avoid writing their name or their child’s name on the questionnaire or on the return envelope. Participants can return their questionnaires to the co-chair committee’s office by mailing the stamped-return envelope.

If you have any questions for the process above please contact us by e-mail or phone: Dr. Karen Blaisure at Karen.blaisure@wmich.edu or 269-387-3663, or Mitsuyo Izumi at mitsuyo.izumi@wmich.edu or 269-993-7189).

Lastly, please accept our small gift in this package for you and your staff. We hope you will like them.

Sincerely,

Professor: Karen Blaisure, PhD
Department of Family & Consumer Science
Western Michigan University

Student Investigator: Mitsuyo Izumi, MA
Department of Educational Leadership, Research & Technology
Western Michigan University
拝啓
殿
この度は、私どもの調査研究にご協力いただけること、大変感謝しております。本来ならば、直接お伺いして、調査についての説明とご挨拶させていただくべきなのですが書面でのご挨拶となりますことお詫び申し上げます。
幼稚園、1年生、2年生のお子さまの保護者の方に（チラシ、又はお手紙とアンケートの入ったパッケージ、又はアンケートの入ったパッケージのコピーを）配布していただいたことに同意いただきましたこと、感謝しております。この箱の中の、（チラシ、またはお手紙とアンケート用紙の入ったパッケージ、又はアンケート用紙の入ったパッケージのコピー）の書類を御確認ください。
各封筒の表紙には、以下の事項が日本語と英語で書かれてあります：
“保護者の方へ：このパッケージは、幼稚園、小学1年、2年生（4歳から8歳）までのお子様を持つ日本人駐在員とその配偶者の方にお渡ししております。もし、この学年の間で1人以上お子さんがいらっしゃるようでしたら、ひとつだけパッケージをお取りになり、他のパッケージは担任または事務員の方にお返しください。よろしくお願いします。"パッケージの中身は、二つの封筒が入っています。ひとつは母親用、もうひとつは父親用です。それぞれの封筒には、質問用紙、Human Subject Review Board に承認された調査説明書、情報源リスト、切手が貼って住所の書かれてある返信用封筒が入っています。その二つの封筒に加えてそのパッケージの中には、感謝の手紙と、お時間をいただいた御礼としてノートカード、そしてお子さまへのシールを同封させていただいております。
保護者の方または、父兄の方には、質問用紙を返却していただくことで、調査への参加の意思表示をしていただくことになります。また、この調査は無記名なので、同意のサインを必要としないコンセントドキュメント（調査説明書）を御提示させていただきます。保護者の方は、ご本人また、お子様のお名前をお渡しする調査用紙や返信
用封筒に記入しなくてもすむようになっております。調査に参加する方は、各自調査用紙を共同主任調査者のオフィスに同封の切手を貼った返信用封筒で返信していただけるようお願いしております。
何かご質問がありましたら、遠慮なくe-mailまたは電話でご連絡ください。
カレン・ブレジャー博士: e-mail: Karen.blaisure@wmich.edu/ phone: 泉 光世: e-mail: mitsuyo.izumi@wmich.edu/ phone: 269-993-7189).
最後になりましたが、この書面と一緒に送付した、貴校と諸先生方への粗品をお受け取りいただければと思います。お気に召していただければ幸いです。
敬具

教授：カレン・ブレジャー博士 学生調査員：泉 光世修士
ファミリー＆コンシューマーサイエンス 学部エデュケーショナルリーダーシップ学部
ウエスタンミシガン 大学 ウエスタンミシガン 大学
Appendix M

Step 2: Script When Visiting Distribution Sites
(English and Japanese)
Script When Visiting Distribution Sites (English)
The student investigator and primary investigator (or contact person) will meet a principal of a school (or a director of a juku or kindergarten, or a leader of a religious organization) and will say,

“Hello. Thank you very much for your precious time today. We appreciate your willingness to be a distribution site for our research. Here is a business card with our contact information. Today we would like to review the steps to take to distribute the research packets with you. We brought research packets with us. Here is an example we will show you. On the outside of the research packet, the following information is written in Japanese and English: ‘Dear Parents/Guardians: This packet is for a Japanese employee assigned to work in the U.S. temporarily and a spouse who are guardians of a child in kindergarten, first grade, second grade (ages 4 to 8). If you have more than one child in school between kindergarten and second grade, please only one take one packet. If you receive more than one, please return the others to a classroom teacher or the administration office. Thank you very much.’

Inside are two envelopes: one for the mother and for the father. Each envelope has a questionnaire, a Human Subject Institutional Review Board-approved consent document, a list of resources, and an addressed and stamped return envelope. In addition to the two envelopes, the research packet contains a thank-you note, notecards in recognition of their time, and stickers for the children.

We would like the research packet to be distributed to the guardians of kindergarten to second grade students by each homeroom teacher or staff of your school. We want the teachers or staff to say to the guardian: ‘Hello, this research packet comes from a doctoral student and her professors at Western Michigan University. If you would like, consider taking a research packet. I would like you to read its contents at home.’ If the guardian takes the packet, please say, ‘thank you.’ If the guardian declines, please say ‘Okay. Thank you.’

Guardians/parents who take the research packet will indicate their consent to participate in the study by returning the questionnaire. No signed consent document will be requested as participation in this study is anonymous. Guardians will be directed to avoid writing their name or their child’s name on the questionnaire or on the return envelope. Guardians may choose to accept or not to accept the research packet. Participants can return their questionnaires to the co-chair committee’s office by mailing the stamped-return envelope. If you have any questions about the process above please feel free to ask any questions.”

If the principal ask questions we will answer the questions. If the principal has no question or after we answer all the questions, we will say: “Thank you very much again for your cooperation. These are small gifts for you and the staff of the school. I hope you like them.”

To end the interaction, we will say, “If you have any questions after we leave here, please feel free to contact either of us anytime with e-mail or phone. It was nice to meeting you today, and good bye.”
博士課程の学生と主任調査員（又は、仲介人が）が校長先生（塾、宗教団体の責任者）にお会いしたら、

“こんにちは。本日は貴重なお時間を頂き、ありがとうございます。また調査へのご協力感謝しております。これが、私どもの連絡先が書いてある名刺です。本日は、調査用紙の配布する際の行程について、ご一緒に確認させていただきたいと思います。これが、サンプルです。各封筒の表紙には、以下の事項が日本語と英語で書かれてあります：保護者の方へ：このパッケージは、幼稚園、小学1年、2年生（4歳から8歳）までのお子様を持つ日本人駐在員とその配偶者の方にお渡ししております。もし、この学年の間で1人以上お子さんがいらっしゃるようでしたら、ひとつのパッケージをお取りになり、他のパッケージは担任または事務員の方にお返しください。よろしくお願いします。パッケージの中身は、二つの封筒が入っています。ひとつは母親用、もうひとつは父親用です。それぞれの封筒には、質問用紙、Human Subject Review Boardに承認された調査説明書、情報源リスト、切手が貼って住所の書かれてある返信用封筒が入っています。その二つの封筒に加えてパッケージの中には、感謝の手紙と、お時間をいただいた御礼としてノートカード、そしてお子さまへのシールを同封させていただいております。この封筒に入ったパッケージを幼児部から小学2年生のクラス担任または、職員の方からクラスの子供たちの保護者の方にお渡しいただければと思っております。その際に、クラス担任、または職員の方に以下の台本の通りに保護者の方に伝えていただければと思います。“こんにちは。このパッケージは、ウエスタンミシガン大学の博士課程の学生と、その指導教官からです。もし、よろしければこのパッケージをとることを検討してください。中身についてはご自宅に帰られてから読んでいただければと思います。もし、保護者の方にパッケージを受け取っていただけだったら、“ありがとうございました。”もしも、受け取っていたなかった場合にも“わかりました。ありがとうございました。と言って頂けるよう、お願いいたします。この調査パッケージを受け取った保護者の方または、父兄の方には、質問用紙を返信していただくことで、調査への参加の意思表示をしていただくことになります。また、こ
の調査は無記名なので、同意のサインを必要としないコンセントドキュメント（調査説明書）を御提示させていただきます。保護者の方は、ご本人または、お子様のお名前をお渡しする調査用紙や返信用封筒に記入しなくてもすむようになっております。保護者の方は調査パッケージを受け取るか否かを選択することができます。保護者の方は、各自調査用紙を共同主任調査者のオフィスに同封の切手を貼った返信用封筒で返信していただけるようお願いしております。何かご質問がありましたら、ご遠慮なくお聞きください。” と、言います。
もし、校長先生からの質問があれば、その全ての質問に答えます。もし、質問がない場合、及び全ての質問に答え終えた後、“改めて、調査へのご協力ありがとうございます。最後になりましたが、校長先生と諸先生方への粗品をお受け取りいただければと思います。お気に召していただければ幸いです。”
粗品を校長先生に手渡した後最後に、“もし、後日、何かご質問がある場合は、ご遠慮なくe-mailか、お電話でご連絡ください。今日はお会いできて本当にありがとうございました。失礼いたします。” と、言います。
Appendix N

Step 2: Directions to Parents on the Outside of the Research Packet
Dear Parents/Guardians: This packet is for a Japanese employee assigned to work in the U.S. temporarily and a spouse who are guardians of a child in kindergarten, first grade, second grade (ages 4 to 8). If you have more than one child in school between kindergarten and second grade, please only one take one packet. If you receive more than one, please return the others to a classroom teacher or the administration office. Thank you very much.

保護者の方へ：このパッケージは、幼稚園、小学1年、2年生（4歳から8歳）までのお子様を持つ日本人駐在員とその配偶者の方にお渡ししております。もし、この学年の間で1人以上お子さんがいらっしゃるようでしたら、ひとつだけパッケージをお取りになり、他のパッケージは担任または事務員の方にお返しください。よろしくお願いします。
Appendix O

Step 2: Research Questionnaire
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Circle an Answer or Fill in the Blank Spaces</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Are you male or female?</td>
<td>1. Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. How old are you?</td>
<td>_______ Years old</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. How long have you been in the U.S.?</td>
<td>_______ Years and _______ Months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. How many times have you lived outside of Japan?</td>
<td>1. Once (more)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I understand and speak English.</td>
<td>Not at all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. What is your education level?</td>
<td>1. High School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. On average, how many hours do you work at paid employment each week?</td>
<td>_______ hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. How many children do you have?</td>
<td>_______ children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Please list their ages from the youngest to the oldest.</td>
<td>Years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. How important is your identity as being a Japanese mother?</td>
<td>Not at all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Consider times beginning in the last year that were undesirable, upsetting, unhappy, awful, or saddening, and estimate the impact that they had on you. Rate the impact as &quot;0&quot; points if there were no negative effects and 100 points if there were the worst effects.</td>
<td>_______ points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. How much stress do you feel raising young children in America?</td>
<td>Not at all</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Family Resilience Assessment
Duncan Lane, C. L., 2011

The Family Resilience Assessment can only be reproduced with the permission of Dr. Crystal Duncan Lane.

Hello! Thank you so much for being willing to fill out this survey. Your responses will be used to inform research on family resilience and Japanese families adjusting in the U.S. The following survey items focus on the experience that you and your family have had with raising young children while living in the U.S. Please rate how often or how much each of the following statements apply to your experience by checking the appropriate box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Not at All</th>
<th>Very Little</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>A Lot</th>
<th>All the Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The support of my family helps me when I feel bogged down with living in America with young children.</td>
<td></td>
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<td>2. My family sees living in America with young children as our challenge instead of just my challenge.</td>
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<td>3. The experience of working hard together in the past helps my family and I cope with living in America with young children.</td>
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<td>4. I feel encouraged by my child's teacher to face the experience of living in America with young children.</td>
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<td>5. Even though we're living in a foreign country, America, my family and I are optimistic about the well-being of our young children.</td>
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<td>6. My family and I encourage one another when we feel bogged down by living in America with young children.</td>
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<td>7. My family and I struggle well with any problems we encounter living in America with young children.</td>
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<td>8. We realize that living in America with young children cannot be changed and we keep in mind to live with a positive outlook.</td>
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<td>9. Our future goals and purpose in life help us cope with living in America with young children.</td>
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<td>10. Spirituality (religion, meditation, attending services, etc.) helps us cope with the difficulties we face while living in America with young children.</td>
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<tr>
<td>11. Spiritual rituals (such as prayer, meditation, attending services, etc.) help us cope with the difficulties we face while living in America with young children.</td>
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<td>12. My family and I develop creative ways for dealing with living in America with young children.</td>
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<td>13. The experience of living in America with young children allows my family and I to grow closer together.</td>
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<td>14. My family and I are flexible in how we deal with the experience of living in America with young children.</td>
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<td>15. &quot;My family and I continue with family traditions and activities although living in America with young children.&quot;</td>
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<td>16. My family and I support one another while living in America with young children.</td>
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<td>17. My family helps me grow while living in America with young children.</td>
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<td>18. My family and I deepen our connection while experiencing living in America with young children.</td>
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<td>19. My family and I are supported by extended family and friends to deal with living in America with young children.</td>
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<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>A Lot</td>
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</table>
A hard copy of the Kansas Parental Involvement Scale (Schumm et al., 1986) went here.

For the purpose of answering the following questions, please think about your child who is between ages 4 and 8. If you have more than one child between the ages of 4 and 8, please select the child who is 4 years old or who is closest to the age of 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Circle an Answer or Fill in the Blank Spaces</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What is the age and gender your child you have selected?</td>
<td>_____ Years and _____ Months Male or Female</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thinking about this child, please answer the following questions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Circle which school your child attends.</th>
<th>1. Supplemental</th>
<th>2. Full-time</th>
<th>3. None</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My child understands and speaks English</td>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>A little</td>
<td>Some</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How much time do you spend with your child (including all activities such as feeding, bathing, playing, and studying)?</td>
<td>Per day during the week (Monday through Friday)? About _____ hours per day</td>
<td>On the weekend (Saturday and Sunday combined)? About _____ hours over the weekend</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Please circle one of the numbers (below) that is closest to your experience.</td>
<td>1. I would like to spend less time with my child.</td>
<td>2. I think I spend the right amount of time with my child.</td>
<td>3. I would like to spend more time with my child.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(continued on the following page)
A hard copy of the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ) was placed here. For a copy of the SDQ, please visit http://www.sdqinfo.com/ for translations in English and Japanese.
Please feel free to describe any other thoughts or experiences you would like us to know about living in America with young children.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>質問</th>
<th>□をつけてください</th>
<th>□をつけてください</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>当別を含めてください。</td>
<td>1. 男性</td>
<td>2. 女性</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ご年齢をお答えください。</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>アメリカの滞在期間をお答えください</td>
<td>年</td>
<td>月</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>日本以外の国に、何回住んだことがありますか</td>
<td>1. 1 回（現在の在日は含めて）</td>
<td>2. 2 回以上</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>日経国が___理解でき（かなり、消去）できるか。</td>
<td>全く</td>
<td>少し</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>最終学歴をお答えください。</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>進路申請の際に必要な期間に時間を使っていますか？</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>お子さんは何人いらっしゃいますか？</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>お子さんの年齢を下から順に挙げてください。</td>
<td>人</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>あなたが親・母親としてのアイデンティティ－（存在意識）はどのくらいありますか？</td>
<td>金くわ</td>
<td>少し</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>あなたが親としてのアイデンティティ－（存在意識）はどのくらいありますか？</td>
<td>1. 父親</td>
<td>2. 母親</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>あなたが親としてのアイデンティティ－（存在意識）はどのくらいありますか？</td>
<td>3. 母親</td>
<td>4. 両親</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>あなたが親としてのアイデンティティ－（存在意識）はどのくらいありますか？</td>
<td>5. 両親</td>
<td>6. 両親</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>あなたが親としてのアイデンティティ－（存在意識）はどのくらいありますか？</td>
<td>7. 両親</td>
<td>8. 両親</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>あなたが親としてのアイデンティティ－（存在意識）はどのくらいありますか？</td>
<td>9. 両親</td>
<td>10. 両親</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>あなたが親としてのアイデンティティ－（存在意識）はどのくらいありますか？</td>
<td>11. 両親</td>
<td>12. 両親</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>あなたが親としてのアイデンティティ－（存在意識）はどのくらいありますか？</td>
<td>13. 両親</td>
<td>14. 両親</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>あなたが親としてのアイデンティティ－（存在意識）はどのくらいありますか？</td>
<td>15. 両親</td>
<td>16. 両親</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>あなたが親としてのアイデンティティ－（存在意識）はどのくらいありますか？</td>
<td>17. 両親</td>
<td>18. 両親</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>アメリカで何回子供を育てることに、どのくらいストレスを感じていますか？</td>
<td>全く</td>
<td>少し</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>アメリカで何回子供を育てることに、どのくらいストレスを感じていますか？</td>
<td>1. 父親</td>
<td>2. 母親</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>アメリカで何回子供を育てることに、どのくらいストレスを感じていますか？</td>
<td>3. 母親</td>
<td>4. 両親</td>
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<tr>
<td>アメリカで何回子供を育てることに、どのくらいストレスを感じていますか？</td>
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</tr>
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<td>9. 両親</td>
<td>10. 両親</td>
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霖風 レジリエンス

### Family Resilience Assessment

ファミリーレジリエンス

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</table>

1. ある時、若い子供たちとアメリカに住むことに行き詰まったとき、家族の支えは助けとなっている。
2. 私の家族は、若い子供たちとアメリカに住むことを「私たちの選択ではなく「生きる」選択」を意識している。
3. ある時、ある特定の問題に直面したときの援助は、ある子供たちとアメリカに住むことに家族の支えは助けとなっている。
4. 私たちは、若い子供たちとアメリカに住むことに対する支援を提供し、私の子供たちとアメリカに住むことに対する支援を提供している。
5. アメリカと日本の両国においても、家族との関係は私の子供たちの学びに対する支えである。
6. ある時、若い子供たちとアメリカに住むことに行き詰まったとき、家族は子供たちを支えている。
7. 家族と私は、若い子供たちとアメリカに住むことの伴う問題に直面している。
8. 私たちは、若い子供たちとアメリカに住むことに対する支援を提供し、私の子供たちとアメリカに住むことに対する支援を提供している。
9. スピリチュアルな側面（宗教的、哲学的、芸術的）においても、若い子供たちとアメリカに住むことに対する支援を提供するため、私たちの子供たちを支えている。
10. 家族と私は、若い子供たちとアメリカに住むことに対する支援を提供し、私の子供たちとアメリカに住むことに対する支援を提供している。
11. 家族と私は、若い子供たちとアメリカに住むことに対する支援を提供し、私の子供たちとアメリカに住むことに対する支援を提供している。
12. 家族と私は、若い子供たちとアメリカに住むことに対する支援を提供し、私の子供たちとアメリカに住むことに対する支援を提供している。
13. 家族と私は、若い子供たちとアメリカに住むことに対する支援を提供し、私の子供たちとアメリカに住むことに対する支援を提供している。
14. 家族と私は、若い子供たちとアメリカに住むことに対する支援を提供し、私の子供たちとアメリカに住むことに対する支援を提供している。
15. 家族と私は、若い子供たちとアメリカに住むことに対する支援を提供し、私の子供たちとアメリカに住むことに対する支援を提供している。
16. 家族と私は、若い子供たちとアメリカに住むことに対する支援を提供し、私の子供たちとアメリカに住むことに対する支援を提供している。
17. 家族と私は、若い子供たちとアメリカに住むことに対する支援を提供し、私の子供たちとアメリカに住むことに対する支援を提供している。
18. 家族と私は、若い子供たちとアメリカに住むことに対する支援を提供し、私の子供たちとアメリカに住むことに対する支援を提供している。
| 19. 嫌い子としましょうにアメリカに在住することに\n| 対応するために、家族の私と親近を\n| 売らし出すためにもしている。 |
| 20. 嫌い子たちとアメリカに在住している間、家族と私は使役士、または\n| 子供の先生ともなっているよう\n| に感じている。 |
| 21. 家族に気をつける、子供たちとアメリカに在住している間、家族に\|\n| 対応するために、使役士ともなっている感覚をもって、家族を守っている。 |
| 22. 家族と私、嫌い子たちとアメリカに在住することについて\|\n| コミュニケーションを取ることには、それは相対的に具体的で\|\n| 藤達である。 |
| 23. 家族と私、嫌い子たちとアメリカに在住することについて\|\n| は、特に相対的に具体的で\|\n| 藤達である。 |
| 24. 家族と私、嫌い子たちとアメリカに在住することについて\|\n| は、特に相対的に具体的で\|\n| 藤達である。 |
| 25. 家族と私、嫌い子たちとアメリカに在住することについて\|\n| は、特に相対的に具体的で\|\n| 藤達である。 |
| 26. 家族と私、嫌い子たちとアメリカに在住することについて\|\n| は、特に相対的に具体的で\|\n| 藤達である。 |
| 27. 家族と私、嫌い子たちとアメリカに在住することについて\|\n| は、特に相対的に具体的で\|\n| 藤達である。 |
| 28. 家族と私、嫌い子たちとアメリカに在住することについて\|\n| は、特に相対的に具体的で\|\n| 藤達である。 |
| 29. 家族と私、嫌い子たちとアメリカに在住することについて\|\n| は、特に相対的に具体的で\|\n| 藤達である。 |
| 30. 嫌い子たちとアメリカに在住することについて\|\n| は、特に相対的に具体的で\|\n| 藤達である。 |
| 31. 嫌い子たちとアメリカに在住することについて\|\n| は、特に相対的に具体的で\|\n| 藤達である。 |
| 32. 嫌い子たちとアメリカに在住することについて\|\n| は、特に相対的に具体的で\|\n| 藤達である。 |
| 33. 嫌い子たちとアメリカに在住することについて\|\n| は、特に相対的に具体的で\|\n| 藤達である。 |
| 34. 嫌い子たちとアメリカに在住することについて\|\n| は、特に相対的に具体的で\|\n| 藤達である。 |
| 35. 嫌い子たちとアメリカに在住することについて\|\n| は、特に相対的に具体的で\|\n| 藤達である。 |
| 36. 嫌い子たちとアメリカに在住することについて\|\n| は、特に相対的に具体的で\|\n| 藤達である。 |
| 37. 嫌い子たちとアメリカに在住することについて\|\n| は、特に相対的に具体的で\|\n| 藤達である。 |
| 38. 嫌い子たちとアメリカに在住することについて\|\n| は、特に相対的に具体的で\|\n| 藤達である。 |
| 39. 嫌い子たちとアメリカに在住することについて\|\n| は、特に相対的に具体的で\|\n| 藤達である。 |
| 40. 嫌い子たちとアメリカに在住することについて\|\n| は、特に相対的に具体的で\|\n| 藤達である。 |
以下の質問に答える前に、あなたの4歳から8歳までのお子さんのことについて、お考えください。4歳から8歳までのお子さんが1人以上いらっしゃる際には、4歳のお子さん、または4歳に一番近い年齢のお子様についてお答えください。

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>あなたが、週に何日お子さんの年齢と</th>
<th>男・女</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>週に何日お子さんを服を着てく</td>
<td>男・女</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

以下の質問に答える前に、週に何日お子さんのことについて、お考えください。

| お子さんの週に服を着ている日を | 全日 | 1日 |
| にけてください。 | | |
| あなたはお子さんと一緒の時間をどのように | 全日 | 1日 |
| お過ごしいですか（食べ物を食べさせる、入浴 | なし | なし |
| させて、お風呂、お風呂など） | する | をする |
| あなたとお子さんと一緒の時間をどのように | 全日 | 1日 |
| お過ごしいですか（食べ物を食べさせる、入浴 | する | をする |
| させて、お風呂、お風呂など） | する | をする |

以下の質問について、お子さんのことについて、お答えください。

| あなたは週に何回 | 週に何回 | 週に何回 |
| お子さんと過ごす | お子さんと過ごす | お子さんと過ごす |
| 常に | 週に何回 | 週に何回 |
| あなたの項目 | あなたの項目 | あなたの項目 |

今までお答えいただきた同じお子様のことについて、以下の質問にもお答えください。
印刷された Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ) がここに挿入される予定です。SDQの英語と日本語のコピーについては http://www.sdqinfo.com/ に掲載していただく。
あなたがアメリカで話合いを離ることについて、何か申し上げるかご機嫌など、私どもに
知らせたいことがありましたら、御自身にお寄りください。
Appendix P

Zero-order Correlation Table (Whole Data)
### Zero-order Correlation for Whole

|                | 1  | 2  | 3  | 4  | 5  | 6  | 7  | 8  | 9  | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 |
|----------------|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| 1. FRA         | -  | -  |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| 2. SGO         | -21 | -  | -  |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| 3. SOQ         |    | -  | -  | -  |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| 4. SOQ         |    | -  | -  | -  | -  |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| 5. SOQ         | -07 | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| 6. SGO         |    | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| 7. SOQ         |    | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| 8. SOQ         |    | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| 9. SOQ         |    | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| 10. SOQ        |    | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| 11. SOQ        |    | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| 12. SOQ        |    | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| 13. SOQ        |    | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| 14. SOQ        |    | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  |    |    |    |    |    |    |
| 15. SOQ        |    | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  |    |    |    |    |    |
| 16. SOQ        |    | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  |    |    |    |    |
| 17. SOQ        |    | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  |    |    |    |
| 18. SOQ        |    | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  |    |    |
| 19. SOQ        |    | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  |    |
| 20. SOQ        |    | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  |
| 21. SOQ        |    | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  |
| 22. SOQ        |    | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  |

**Note:** The table shows the correlation coefficients between various variables, with significance levels indicated by asterisks: 
- *p < .05
- **p < .01
- ***p < .001
Appendix Q

Zero-order Correlation Table (Father Data)
### Zero-order Correlation Fathers

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Zero-order Correlation for Mothers