CrossMark

Annual Review of Applied Linguistics (2014), **34**, 233–255.
© Cambridge University Press, 2014, 0267-1905/14 $16.00
doi: 10.1017/S0267190514000051

Case Study Research on Language Learning and Use

Patricia A. Duff

Case study research has played a very important role in applied linguistics since the field was established, particularly in studies of language teaching, learning, and use. The case in such studies generally has been a person (e.g., a teacher, learner, speaker, writer, or interlocutor) or a small number of individuals on their own or in a group (e.g., a family, a class, a work team, or a community of practice). The cases are normally studied in depth in order to provide an understanding of individuals' experiences, issues, insights, developmental pathways, or performance within a particular linguistic, social, or educational context. Rather than discuss constructs, hypotheses, and findings in terms of statistical patterns or trends derived from a larger sample or survey of a population of language learners, as in some quantitative research, a qualitative case study of a person presents a contextualized human profile. Case study has contributed substantially to theory development, generating new perspectives or offering a refutation or refinement of earlier theories in applied linguistics by analyzing linguistic, cultural, and social phenomena associated with children, adolescents, young adults, and older adults.

In recent years, the purview of case studies in applied linguistics has expanded to include many previously underrepresented topics, linguistic situations, theoretical perspectives, and populations. This article provides an overview of some traditional areas of coverage and then newer foci in terms of methodology, thematic areas, and findings pertaining to language learners in transnational, multilingual, and diaspora contexts especially.

In an era dominated by big data and technological advancements that enable researchers to mine, organize, quantify, track, share, analyze, and visually display millions of data points with great efficiency and speed, case study or small-N research might seem rather quaint—a throwback to simpler, less complicated times perhaps, when researchers could focus on the here and now: readily observable, accessible, multidimensional individuals, events, and sites,[1] often in researchers' immediate environments. Yet case study continues to be widely used in research in the health sciences, social sciences, and humanities despite the obvious advances being made with other methods and tools of inquiry and on a much larger scale.[2] The study of individual cases is also a

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000051 Published online by Cambridge University Press

powerful and pervasive educational and clinical tool in many disciplines and professions.

Case studies in applied linguistics have contributed substantially to theories and models in such areas as language development, learner motivation and identity, teacher cognition and development, language attrition and shift, acculturation and socialization, and familial or workplace multilingualism and pragmatics (see, e.g., Casanave, 2010; Duff, 2008a, 2012a, 2012b; Harklau, 2008; K. Richards, 2011; other topics are reviewed in the following sections). In addition to contributing to theory, findings from such studies have often influenced educational policies and practices. They have helped practitioners and stakeholders better understand the experiences and issues affecting people in various socioeducational and linguistic settings. This attention to individual cases has thus raised awareness of the complexities associated with multilingualism and language teaching, learning, and use internationally, particularly in increasingly mobile, transnational, and multilingual societies impacted by globalization (e.g., cases in Benson & Cooker, 2013).

In this review article, I briefly describe the history, significance, contributions, and recent advances being made in case study research in applied linguistics. After providing a methodological overview in the first part of the article, I present examples of interpretive qualitative case studies of additional-language learners and users in four thematic areas.

FOUNDATIONS OF CASE STUDIES OF LANGUAGE LEARNING AND USE

Case study, as a research approach or strategy, has its origins in sociology, psychology, linguistics, and other subject areas that have informed theory, methodology, and practice in our field since its earliest days (see Duff, 2008a). Whereas case studies in psychology and related clinical fields usually examine individuals, in sociology the case is often a family, a community, an institution or organization, a city, or an incident. Case studies in anthropology, often described as *ethnographies* or *ethnographic case studies*,[3] usually pay more attention to *cultural patterns*, meanings, and socialization in sociocultural groups and communities as observed and documented over a period of time. Case studies in applied linguistics share many features with approaches in these other disciplines, with individuals, families, communities, and cultural groups frequently selected as cases.

Important early second language (L2) case studies (e.g., Hatch, 1978; Schmidt, 1983; Schmidt & Frota, 1986; Schumann, 1978) often examined linguistic and interactional aspects of L2 development (or lack of development) in a single case. Predominantly linguistic single- or multiple-case studies are still being conducted. Lardiere's (2007) longitudinal single-case study, for example, provides a detailed linguistic description and analysis (based on generative linguistics) of the challenges faced by a Chinese woman who had immigrated to the United States as a young adult. Despite her many years of successful immersion, acculturation, higher education, and employment in English-speaking contexts, the

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000051 Published online by Cambridge University Press

woman's grammar reportedly diverged from Standard English in marked and persistent ways for which the author provided a linguistic explanation.

Contemporary linguistically oriented case study research associated with other theories (e.g., emergentist, dynamic, and complex systems approaches) also takes a longitudinal case-based approach to analyzing L2 development, use, and variability in an individual learner's performance, by examining (among other things) the accuracy and complexity of the learner's oral or written production at different points in time (e.g., Larsen-Freeman, 2006). The analyses are usually more quantitative than qualitative (though both types of analysis may be included), and feature one or several L2 learners. This productive new line of research reveals that data based on means from larger numbers of learners often obscure meaningful intraindividual variation at any given time and over time (e.g., months), as well as significant variation across individuals in terms of developmental patterns and processes.

Some case studies (but not nearly enough), often as part of mixed-methods research designs in study-abroad and other transnational contexts (e.g., Duff et al., 2013; Kinginger, 2008), combine an analysis of both *linguistic* dimensions of learning/use (measured quantitatively) and *sociocultural* aspects (described in various qualitative terms drawing on different analytic approaches). This more balanced description of subjects' oral and written linguistic performance and their personal perspectives on their learning or use of languages is much less common than either a primarily linguistic or a sociocultural account, but offers promising possibilities for future research.

A much larger proportion of recently published case studies in applied linguistics, including many studies reviewed in this article, foregrounds sociocultural, discursive, and personal (affective) aspects of experience and learning, without detailed linguistic descriptions. Much of this emerging research examines the changing identities and communities of language learners (multilinguals) in contexts affected increasingly by globalization (Norton, 2013). Furthermore, a growing number of these qualitative L2 studies examine the learning and retention of languages other than English (e.g., Chinese; Duff et al., 2013), a very positive trend in applied linguistics.

Because case study research represents such a broad approach to knowledge construction and mobilization in L2 learning and use, it is impossible to present a comprehensive survey of the many hundreds of recent studies reported in books, journal articles, and dissertations or the many thematic and theoretical areas they represent. For that reason, I focus here on research I am most familiar with that is also well represented in recent publications and which extends the survey of L2 case studies found in Duff (2008a). The studies described in the following paragraphs involve children, adolescents, and adults learning and using languages in their current or desired repertoires (e.g., involving heritage and indigenous minority languages, societally dominant "global" languages, and additional languages or dialects). Their learning and use of these languages is often constrained by social pressures, ideologies, policies, and educational practices impacting the status of the languages and communities in question; alternatively, in some settings, multilingualism is enabled when the learners are encouraged to draw liberally and creatively on their linguistic and other semiotic resources.

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000051 Published online by Cambridge University Press

Across these various transcultural and translingual contexts, people must negotiate the linguistic marketplace where certain languages and literacies, ideologies, cultures, practices, and knowledge are privileged over others. It is therefore helpful to examine learners' linguistic and related identities, dispositions, behaviors, and performance in relation to their current or prospective communities of practice and social networks, and in terms of their learning trajectories (past, present, and future) within their sociopolitical contexts.

CASE STUDY: KEY COMPONENTS AND CONSIDERATIONS

Qualitative, Interpretive Case Study

Qualitative case studies, the main focus of this review, typically include participants and sites that are described in rich detail. There may also be a nesting of cases: a phenomenon (e.g., language loss or shift) is studied in individuals within larger social units (a family, a classroom, an institution), which are in turn nested within and indeed constitutive of a larger socioeducational context (e.g., communities affected by immigration, colonization and decolonization, new language policies, or curriculum changes). The case, even when examined on its own in relative isolation, is therefore always in interaction with other humans (including the researcher) and other elements in its social, physical, and ideological ecology, regardless of whether those interactions and influences are acknowledged or studied. That is, researchers may refer explicitly to macro-micro or researcher-researched interactions and intersubjectivity; alternatively, the work may be presented in a more ostensibly objective, detached, and decontextualized manner, reflecting distinct epistemologies and genres of conducting and reporting research.

Most current qualitative case study research in first and second language and literacy education is *interpretive* as opposed to *realist* or positivist. It also tends to be *social-constructivist*[4] and *sociocultural* in orientation, paying attention to the various ways in which learning and performance are mediated, performed, and understood. It views reality and meaning as coconstructed through the dynamic processes of interacting with others and with the wider social, material, and symbolic world. The research attempts to understand the meanings underlying human knowledge, thought, and action, sometimes but not always by also explicitly seeking the insights and perspectives of case study subjects (participants) themselves or others they engage with.

Defining and Delimiting the Case

At the core of case study is the case itself—the individual entity—which, as noted earlier, for the purposes of this article constitutes one or more persons learning and using language in such settings as homes, educational institutions, community settings, virtual worlds, and peer groups, in a manner and context that is considered theoretically and descriptively interesting. But case study is more than just the description of a person or linguistic site. The main goal of

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000051 Published online by Cambridge University Press

case study research is to gain a thorough understanding of the phenomenon being studied, of which the case is an exemplar. Thus, the case is a *case of something* (Dyson & Genishi, 2005)—of learning another language, code-switching, engaging in intercultural communication or language play, performing a multilingual identity—and it is that phenomenon that is being examined closely within the context of the case-in-context and against the backdrop of existing theory and research. Because case study research seeks to provide a thorough documentation and exploration of the phenomenon under investigation, it can be important to examine the interplay of linguistic, social, cultural, political, and affective dimensions of experience and performance.

The case offers both the researcher and reader a window into another person's experiences with language. Yet the case is usually presented from the perspective of the researcher, who conducts the research for a particular reason, recruits and chooses the participants, selects interview transcripts and observations to include, and decides how best to characterize the individual's situation in writing and other forms of representation, even when claiming to include the participant's emic (insider) perspective or voice. Therefore, the case study cannot really be considered complete without understanding why the study was undertaken and what it is a case of. Description, interpretation, and, in some studies, explanations are offered for the observed phenomena as well as implications for pedagogical, programmatic, or policy development and for generating more abstract conceptual insights when warranted. Whether the focus of the study is descriptive, exploratory, explanatory, or designed to develop new models by means of analytic generalization, or a combination of all of these, depends a great deal on the given study and its goals (Duff, 2008a; Yin, 2014).

Generating a detailed description of the case, which often includes its history and sociocultural and linguistic environment and a discussion of other individuals with whom the case interacts, is only one aspect of case study. The researcher's findings or insights based on the case might pertain to any number of possible topics (e.g., developmental processes; issues of affect, identity, culture, agency and autonomy; the role of teachers, peers and digital technologies in socializing learners; transnational migration and education; or the development of grammar, vocabulary, or other linguistic elements at very advanced levels). The presentation of cases is expected to lead to new levels of understanding, awareness, empathy, and possibly intervention, and further research on the part of readers and researchers and even among participants themselves.

Case Selection: Single Versus Multiple Cases and Other Decisions

As the studies reviewed in this article illustrate, case studies may focus holistically on just one case (e.g., a person, family, or social group), although multiple cases (e.g., 2–10) are becoming more common. Four to six cases can be ideal for doctoral research especially, permitting multiple ways of reporting the findings (e.g., in pairs, as individual cases, or according to themes that cut across the cases rather than case-by-case and cross-case analysis; cf. Duff, 2008a; Stake, 2006). Including multiple cases can also mitigate against possible attrition among

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000051 Published online by Cambridge University Press

participants. Decisions about numbers depend a great deal on the topic being investigated and whether multiple candidates meeting recruitment criteria exist and agree to participate. To some extent, the choice is therefore determined by the preferences of the researcher or writer, how much there is to report about a single case, and the existence of exemplary, willing subjects (Duff, 2008a, 2012a, 2012b).

Some research lends itself better to the study of a single intriguing case, whether relatively typical or atypical, rather than multiple cases. Besides being logistically less complicated (usually) than dealing with more than one site or participant concurrently, single-case studies permit elaboration on the complexity and characteristics of that one case, much as biographies allow readers to understand the fullness of a single subject's life.

The space available or word limits (e.g., in a short journal article vs. a dissertation or book) is another factor influencing the number of cases that can be included in a report, as two recent book-length accounts of L2 Japanese language learning illustrate. Pasfield-Neofitou (2012) examined the online communication and social networks of learners of L2 Japanese supporting their language learning and relationship-building. The study included as many as 12 Australian focal participants and their Japanese interlocutors. The learners' computer-mediated Japanese-based communication was investigated longitudinally for frequency of use of various electronic communication tools, and for the nature of their language choice, code- and orthography-switching, translation, and medium choice (e.g., email, Facebook, MSN). Using discourse analysis and frequency counts, the analysis of messages was supplemented with several interviews per participant over the multiyear study. Perhaps most reflective of typical L2 case study reporting, one chapter then provided a detailed analysis of just two participants, a 19-year-old male student and a 28-year-old female student (the latter more proficient in Japanese), and considered important contextual information about each one.

In another related Australian multiple-case study of L2 learners of Japanese, Kurata (2011) examined the informal social networks that helped support six students' learning and use of Japanese over a 9-month period. She analyzed the different means and languages by which they communicated with members in their bilingual networks, both in Australia and Japan. Having six cases meant that Kurata could devote more space to each one than in a study with twice as many cases, and this too was likely only feasible in a book-length monograph.

A related matter in multiple-case studies is the research design issue of whether cases are to be selected and researched more or less concurrently or, rather, sequentially, meaning that the research on subsequent cases (e.g., obtained through snowball sampling) will be informed by research on prior cases. There is often some flexibility in case study research as compared with more experimental and controlled research, but a recruitment strategy should be planned in advance and then modified as needed.

In addition to providing details about the number and characteristics of the cases (participants), information about how cases were selected (e.g., for typicality or representativeness, for maximum variation or diversity, or as critical, extreme or deviant cases), and over what time period, and how data were

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000051 Published online by Cambridge University Press

obtained and analyzed becomes very important in helping readers interpret findings judiciously and consider their relevance, significance, and transferability to other contexts (Duff, 2008a).

Duration of Case Studies and Timescales

Many qualitative (and quantitative) case studies, including several studies described above and in what follows, are longitudinal, tracking the cases over time, particularly when the object of study is development or change (e.g., in skill areas, identity formation, migration, and learning trajectories). Attention to transformations in dispositions, thinking processes, and practices also presupposes a longitudinal perspective across different possible timescales (Duff, 2008a, 2012b; Harklau, 2008).

However, not all case studies involve active, systematic, longitudinal data generation and analysis. Studies may instead involve intensive interviews, observations, or other sources of data at one primary point in time or within a fairly limited time frame, or may include retrospective life history interviews or written narratives, or earlier documents to obtain a sense of learning development or pathway or changes in language use. Such texts may then be complemented by the analysis of other kinds of data, from policy documents, tests, participant journals, or observations, for example. Because of the nature of language learning (being a process that unfolds over time and across different social and geographical spaces), a longitudinal perspective on the person's life or trajectory (past, present, and future) is often apparent or assumed, if not part of the research design itself.

Critical Reflexivity, Positionality, and Ethics

It is now expected that in reports of interpretive qualitative case study, scholars will include some evidence of reflexivity and positionality (Pillow, 2003) with respect to various aspects of the research, such as their roles and involvement in the study, their relationship to participants and the wider community and context (language, culture, institution), and to the phenomenon under investigation, as well as their ways of managing ethical challenges and other practical decisions prior to, during, and after the study (e.g., issues connected with protecting the privacy and identity of participants; Duff & Abdi, in press).

There is also growing recognition in qualitative research that data are coconstructed (not simply collected), particularly in case studies using interviews, observations, and other approaches where the researcher's presence and role in the study is not only visible but also shapes the data in very obvious discursive and symbolic ways (e.g., Talmy & Richards, 2011). The qualitative researcher is therefore sometimes referred to as a kind of research instrument, that is, a mediating coparticipant or actor in the research process with a certain amount of power. Thus, case study researchers should reflect carefully on the social, situated process of generating meanings and insights. This is often done through researchers' journals or logs documenting the research process,

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000051 Published online by Cambridge University Press

decisions made, issues or questions that arise, or areas for potential follow up. It is also done by means of careful, nuanced reporting.

Diary studies involving narrative inquiry into researchers' and others' language learning experiences have been used in qualitative case studies in applied linguistics for generations. They have often contained candid reflection by the participants and researchers about their stances, motives, dilemmas, misgivings, challenges, and in some cases triumphs. With the rise in auto-ethnographic research in our field resulting in lengthy memoirs of individuals' language learning, as in Simon-Maeda's (2011) auto-ethnography of her 35 years of learning and using Japanese in Japan in a variety of social roles, in Duff et al.'s (2013) study and narratives of five focal participants' learning of L2 Chinese, and in indigenous research presented in the second half of this article (in the section on Case Studies of Contemporary Language Learning in Multilingual Contexts), reflexivity and positionality are often foregrounded.

Explicit Discussion of Analysis Protocols, Techniques, or Principles

A common weakness in qualitative case study research, from the proposal stage to eventual publication, can be a lack of information about how the researcher has engaged with data, the logic of decision-making and data analysis, the overall corpus of episodes or instances or participants, how or why particular cases or examples were selected for fuller discussion, and the representativeness of observations (as reflected in excerpts of interviews, classroom language use, or discourse in other oral, written, or multimodal contexts). Case study research proposals or articles often state that the case study data are (to be) analyzed iteratively or using the constant comparative method, for example, with no elaboration of what the analysis entails operationally.

There are now many resources to guide case study data analysis and many published models. Methods for systematically conducting case studies and for analyzing data and for presenting and writing up findings are outlined by a number of qualitative researchers in applied linguistics (Casanave, 2010; Duff, 2008a, 2012a, 2012b; K. Richards, 2003, 2011), as well as in nursing, education, political science, management, and other fields (e.g., Bryman, Teevan, & Bell, 2009; Flyvbjerg, 2011; L. Richards, 2009; Yin, 2014). In interpretive case studies, data may include (a) L1 or L2 narratives and life histories produced by research participants themselves (e.g., through journals, diaries, or memoirs, as noted earlier) with limited direct involvement by researchers; (b) narratives or accounts elicited interactively through interviews with researchers; (c) nonnarrative data elicited by interviews, questionnaires, researcher logs or journals, tests, observations (digitally recorded or not); and (d) other documents and media (e.g., tests, census data, homework assignments). Each data source needs to be managed and analyzed and then integrated appropriately with other sources of data and analyses.

L. Richards (2009) provides advice to researchers about keeping good records of their data (i.e., records that are accurate, contextualized, detailed, useful, and reflexive); suggestions for data reduction; and methods for coding, modeling, and then theorizing or drawing analytic generalizations or insights from the

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000051 Published online by Cambridge University Press

analysis of data, particularly in content or thematic analyses. Saldaña (2009) also illustrates many options for memoing and coding textual data, using both manual and digital tools, and provides advice about how to proceed from coding with prewriting strategies and finally producing a written report of findings. Similarly, Bryman et al. (2009) provide details about multiple approaches to coding or indexing textual data by means of computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS) such as NVivo, and some of the pros and cons of using such tools (see also Dörnyei, 2007). Finally, numerous reference materials exist for narrative and discourse analysis in applied linguistics (e.g., De Fina & Georgakopoulou, 2012; Paltridge, 2012).

Triangulation

Triangulation usually entails bringing together multiple sources and types of data for analytical purposes (Denzin, 1970), including, potentially, multiple participants, researchers, time periods, and conceptual frameworks; interviews, observations, researcher and/or participant journals, archival or documentary data, assessments, and other information that is relevant (e.g., feedback from participants on transcripts or early drafts and interpretations, known as member checks) (Duff, 2012c). Triangulation is generally felt to enhance a qualitative case study when it is conducted and reported well and when the relationship between data and interpretations is made clear and is well warranted. Although not all data or analyses will lead to the same interpretations or findings, triangulation involving multiple sources can add to the texture and multidimensionality of the study, providing different vantage points from which to consider the phenomenon in question. In many short articles reporting on case studies, however, and in mixed-methods research, even with considerable triangulation and multiple cases, researchers may simply provide summary profiles of a small number (1–3) of focal cases exemplifying the phenomenon being investigated and may not be able to incorporate many additional types of data or cases due to space constraints.

Generalizability and Theory Building

The degree to which one can or should arrive at general principles or knowledge of wider significance based on case studies continues to be hotly debated in literature on research methodology (e.g., Duff, 2008a; Ercikan & Roth, 2009; Flyvbjerg, 2011; George & Bennett, 2005). Many (but certainly not all) qualitative researchers believe that some degree of generalization may be both warranted and desirable in case studies under the appropriate conditions (Duff, 2008a; Eisenhart, 2009). Yet case study research is often misconstrued by researchers from other methodological traditions (and even by case study researchers themselves), and especially by those seeking universal laws or truths and predictable outcomes deriving from the manipulation of particular variables. There may be undue emphasis on the impossibility of statistical generalization of findings to wider populations even from carefully selected and representative samples (cases). For some researchers, this is considered a fatal weakness of case study.

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000051 Published online by Cambridge University Press

For them, case studies are merely exploratory, comparable to pilot studies whose primary function is to generate hypotheses for future larger-scale research. Another common critique is that case studies are too subjective and biased toward the verification of researchers' own beliefs, and too limited in number, to have any validity or to be able to contribute to general theories or models. Statements of this sort—and interesting refutations—are found in Duff (2008a), Eisenhart (2009), and Flyvbjerg (2011).

One response to such concerns is that it is only natural for researchers and readers to draw inferences from studies and to consider their wider relevance, a process described as *analytic* (or *theoretical*) *generalization* as opposed to *statistical generalization*. As Yin (2014) notes, generalization in relation to a case is "the opportunity to shed empirical light about some theoretical concepts or principles ... that go beyond the setting for the specific case" (p. 40). Simply put, this kind of generalization refers to the "lessons learned" (p. 40). These inferences or insights, according to Yin, may involve "(a) corroborating, modifying, rejecting, or otherwise advancing theoretical concepts that you referenced in designing your case study or (b) new concepts that arose upon the completion of your case study" (p. 41).

Flyvbjerg (2011) also addresses such misconceptions about case study, emphasizing that the status of "context-dependent knowledge and experience" (p. 303) associated with case study is often contentious and thus downplayed or dismissed in conventional (quantitative) research approaches. He argues that this represents a serious disservice to the development of research, researchers, knowledge, and practitioners in the social and natural sciences. Case study has, in fact, been highly influential in the past, notwithstanding such concerns, both in generating theory and critiquing, contesting, or falsifying theory (e.g., by finding deviant or nonconforming cases, that is, those at odds with existing principles or observations; Duff, 2008a). Echoing George and Bennett (2005) and others, Flyvbjerg argues that "formal generalization is overvalued as a source of scientific development, whereas 'the force of example [i.e., cases]' and transferability are underestimated" (p. 305). He encourages critical reflexivity among researchers, whatever their approach, in confronting their biases, and suggests that the risks of unacknowledged subjectivity are no greater in case study than in other work. Cases that offer contradictory or disconfirming evidence or otherwise seem problematic can be valuable precisely because they reveal the complexity of the phenomenon being studied and the multiple possible interpretations that may exist or the inadequacy of existing theory to account for such cases.

CASE STUDIES OF CONTEMPORARY LANGUAGE LEARNING IN MULTILINGUAL CONTEXTS

Not all case study research is exploratory, but it can generate new understandings of emerging, changing, or previously ill-understood populations, situations, and processes. Knowledge also accumulates by aggregating case studies in the same or similar topic areas. In the remainder of this article, case studies are surveyed in four general areas of growing interest in applied linguistics involving

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000051 Published online by Cambridge University Press

contemporary transnational or otherwise nontraditional, previously underresearched multilinguals learning and using languages: (a) generation 1.5 learners; (b) heritage-language learners; (c) indigenous language learners; and (d) (other) transnational language learners and sojourners. These are also overlapping categories to some extent. Generation 1.5 learners of English, for example, may also be learners or users of a heritage language such as Chinese or Korean and may have very transnational identities, social networks, and trajectories.

Generation 1.5 Linguistic Minority Students and Higher Education

Immigrant children and young adolescents who arrive in another linguistic milieu with their first-generation-immigrant parents, often after receiving some education in their first language (L1) and country of origin, and then go on to receive the remainder of their education in their L2 in their postimmigration setting, are referred to as generation 1.5 (G1.5) students. As a group, G1.5 students may share certain features with generation 2.0 peers (i.e., those born in the country of settlement after their parents' immigration). Similarities may include L2 oral (especially vernacular) fluency and aspects of L2 and cultural identity, especially if they arrived as young children. They may also share linguistic and cultural features with generation 1.0 (G1.0) members (their parents' generation), again depending on the age of their immigration, their cultural and educational background, and their proficiency in their L1 and L2 prior to immigration. *G1.5* is thus a contested category that tends to essentialize or categorize together as homogeneous a population that is extremely diverse in terms of histories, investments, resources (e.g., social and economic capital), and achievements. Furthermore, the label often betrays a deficit perspective regarding the students' knowledge, capability, and L2 proficiency. However, case studies of G1.5 students can help illustrate the diversity and heterogeneity behind such a label.

The term *linguistic minority* (LM) students, a broader label, is used by some scholars instead (e.g., Kanno & Harklau, 2012) to refer to students who speak a societally nondominant language at home yet may be highly proficient (even native speakers) of English, possibly generation 2.0. Their educational trajectories are often vastly different from one another as well. G1.5/LM students nonetheless represent a surging demographic in high schools and universities in many immigrant-receiving countries that tend to be ill-equipped and underresourced to attend to their specific needs, abilities, and histories.

Some aspects of the G1.5/LM students' linguistic and literacy development, challenges, experiences, needs, and identities have been examined through case studies of their academic writing, which may bear traces of vernacular oral language and genres. Studies also examine how language ideologies cultivated in their homes and classrooms may be contradictory, or how speaking one or another language (or dialect) is valorized or shunned, with particular social and affective consequences.

Several recent volumes in Canada and the United States include case studies of G1.5 students, underscoring how they differ both from one another and from (traditional) international and domestic students (e.g., Frodesen, 2009, and studies in Kanno & Harklau, 2012, and Roessingh & Douglas, 2012). Kim

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000051 Published online by Cambridge University Press

and Duff (2012) in the latter-mentioned collection, for example, described the experiences of two Korean-Canadian G1.5 women (from a larger set of seven students) who, over a one-year period, narrated and reflected on their histories of negotiating bicultural and bilingual (Korean and English) practices, identities, and communities in English-Canadian high school and university settings. There they straddled the distinct cultures and expectations (social, cultural, and linguistic) of their Korean-Canadian peers and family members, and those of the English institutional mainstream. Close affiliation and engagement with one linguistic community seemed to take a toll on their (perceived) proficiency in the other language, their social networks, their pop cultural knowledge, and their academic performance. This then had an impact on their imagined future possibilities.

Three of the chapters in Kanno and Harklau (2012) also feature case studies of LM students in U.S. postsecondary institutions. Those studies focus especially on the enactment of individual students' agency to attain college admission, mediated by key mentors and resource people in their social worlds, and various other forms of capital at their disposal. Each documented the perseverance and resilience of the focal participants to complete high school successfully despite a host of obstacles (e.g., transnational and within-state migration, family instability, limited income). One of the studies, by Harklau and McClanahan (2012), followed a young Latina named Paola over 4 years (through 35 interviews, the collection of Paola's schoolwork, class observations, and researcher field notes), documenting her progress and constraints from the eighth grade through to successful graduation from high school, college admission, and the completion of an associate degree from a community college.

Varghese (2012), in the same volume, takes a discursive approach to examining a Somali student's narratives of her own agency, her personal resources (especially her family), and her self-efficacy in relation to her educational journey against the backdrop of her status as being "disadvantaged" (i.e., a low income racial minority), from the institution's perspective. This case was drawn from a larger study by the author and her colleagues of 33 immigrant and freshmen in their first year at a U.S. university who were taking English as a second language (ESL) courses.

Finally, using narrative inquiry, Fuentes (2012) describes the linguistic and educational experiences of an Azeri student named Nasim at university following her immigration from Iran. Fuentes especially noted Nasim's resentment of the heavy emphasis on English at the university and her oppositional stance to other aspects of her education there. The researcher collected many kinds of data related to Nasim's perspectives, from interviews accounts, observations in and out of class over a 1-year period, and from other documents and personnel. Despite experiencing some social isolation at university, Nasim's agency (in the form of resistance) was, according to Fuentes, one reason she succeeded in obtaining her bachelor's degree.

In the area of academic writing more specifically, Riazantseva (2012) described circumstances and dispositions demonstrated in the academic English writing of three middle-class G1.5 Russian college students who, despite not being excellent academic writers in English, did well because of what was described

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000051 Published online by Cambridge University Press

as their "assertiveness, self-confidence and ambition"—again, manifestations of agency and self-efficacy.

In a case study of a Somali generation 1.5 student who had arrived in the United States 2 years earlier at an American university, Bloch (2007) reported that blogging proved instrumental in helping him bridge oral vernacular and academic print literacies, providing a social and textual forum for developing rhetorical strategies, generating ideas, and displaying and internalizing the identities of blogger and writer.

Collectively, therefore, these studies and many others now being undertaken emphasize the linguistic, social, and textual challenges and resources of G1.5/LM students, particularly those who may be struggling at the outset of the studies. They also examine the learners' (and their mentors') agentive behaviors and stances. Less commonly studied perhaps are the academically high-achieving and highly proficient bilingual or multilingual G1.5 students who excel educationally and are socially and culturally well-adjusted and integrated.

Heritage-Language Learners

Heritage language (HL) learners, as multilingual research subjects and students, are currently receiving considerable attention in applied linguistics (e.g., Brinton, Kagan & Bauckus, 2008; He & Xiao, 2008; Trifonas & Aravossitas, 2014; and the *Heritage Language Journal*). HL learners often have some latent (inactive) knowledge of their ancestral languages from having heard them in the home when younger or from having taken formal coursework in the HL in after-school or weekend programs as children or young adults. Many report rejecting the HL in late childhood and shifting to the dominant language of mainstream education and society, even at home, but later may return to the formal study of their HL at university or use of the language in other contexts (Duff, 2008b; He, 2008; Li & Duff, 2008). Issues of identity, multilingual socialization, ideologies, and the positioning of HL speakers by themselves and by others (e.g., as ethnically authentic, "legitimate," and proficient) in their social worlds at home, at school, and in the wider community have been investigated in relation to the learners' HL development, life pathways, identities, code-switching, and language retention and use (e.g., He, 2008). Because a HL is often nurtured within homes, the case is often a family with one or more children negotiating family language policies. As in studies of G1.5 (LM) students and their experiences, the case studies of HL learners demonstrate a wide range of home languages, practices, experiences, and outcomes that are far from homogeneous.

Fogle (2012) conducted an illuminating study of Eastern European children adopted by American parents, identifying bidirectional socialization strategies in their new adoptive families (i.e., children socializing parents into their preferred language/discourse practices; and parents socializing children into theirs). Three families and their respective children were selected to illustrate different ways in which language socialization, narrative activity, and code-switching in Russian and English occurred or were resisted by certain family members (especially children). The children's *agency* (capacity to take actions or adopt dispositions exerting some degree of discursive control) was very

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000051 Published online by Cambridge University Press

salient, as it often is in HL research (and in the G1.5 research in the previous section), where there may be ambivalence or opposition on the part of youth toward HL retention, use, and cultural identities and routines associated with older generations.

Guardado's (2009) study also featured the family (and community group) as a unit of analysis in an examination of HL use among children in Spanish-speaking homes and community groups in Canada. From his larger qualitative study involving multiple families in distinct community cultural groups, he focused in that article on the language ideologies and practices inculcated within a Spanish Scouts group and, more specifically, within one family whose children participated in the group.

Torrez's (2013) case study of rural farmworkers of Mexican descent in rural Michigan and issues of Spanish language (and especially *Mexicano*) retention, bilingualism and biculturalism, and identity also takes the family as the unit of analysis. Torrez examined three focal farmworker families' experiences and concerns (and her own auto-ethnographic historical narrative) about the loss of language, culture, a strong sense of family (*familia*), and other aspects of collective and personal identity. Framed by language socialization and Latina/o critical race theory, Torrez drew upon oral history methods (interview-generated narratives) and observations over a five year period.

In another case study of Spanish HL learners, Abdi (2011) focused not on families but on individual students in Canadian high school Spanish courses comprising both HL and non-HL students. She observed that the (non-Hispanic) teacher and other students made assumptions about their classmates' heritage and proficiency in Spanish and thus their legitimacy as linguistic models, illustrated by her case study of Pat, one of four focal participants in Abdi's larger study. Thus, students who were identified–sometimes erroneously–as HL speakers were conferred a privileged status in the course as role models. However, students such as Pat not recognized as such (but from a HL background) were denied opportunities to validate their abilities and backgrounds and chances to speak more Spanish in class.

Several HL case studies on Chinese language and literacy socialization and learning (or nonlearning) have been conducted in recent years as well (see reviews in Duff, 2014; Li & Duff, 2014). These make salient the many options for "being Chinese" and participating in Chinese language/literacy education and negotiating discourses of "Chineseness" in relation to non-Chinese languages, identities, and cultures (especially those connected with English).

Japanese and Korean heritage languages and contexts have also been the focus of case studies of HL learning and socialization. Examples include Doerr and Lee (2013) for Japanese, and Kang (2013) for Korean. The former was a multiyear study of a weekend Japanese language school for children in the United States (for both "native" and "heritage" learners of Japanese, both contested categories); and the latter examined eight (second-generation) Korean American college students' negotiation of languages and identities in their Korean foreign language courses over the period of a year.

The HL case studies reviewed here, and many others, bring to the fore tensions related to (multicultural or hybrid) identities, bi- and multilingual

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000051 Published online by Cambridge University Press

proficiency (or language rejection and loss), and community affiliation (or disaffiliation) often experienced by HL youth in diaspora contexts.

Indigenous Language Learning and Revitalization

Although some scholars place *indigenous* language learning under the umbrella category of *heritage* or *community* language learning, there are major contextual differences worth noting. First, HL learners are usually situated in diaspora postimmigration contexts with vital communities of speakers of their HL somewhere in the world, possibly in their country or region of origin, if not in the immediate diaspora environment. For indigenous learners, conversely, there may be relatively few living fluent speakers of their languages due to devastating legacies of colonization, oppression, and assimilation. The languages are often vulnerable to obsolescence when intergenerational transfer declines or is forcibly obstructed.

Making matters even more complicated, the indigenous language being learned may not have a written form and there may be limited documentation of it, few teaching materials or trained, certified, and proficient teachers, and limited opportunities for people to hear, learn, or use it. Multiple dialects of the language spoken in different communities may further confound people's attempts to learn the language.

Against this very challenging and sometimes traumatic recent history, informative case studies are now being undertaken of indigenous language learning, socialization, and revitalization or reclamation on the part of individual learners and their families. Some of these studies are auto-ethnographic, conducted by Indigenous researchers studying their own language and culture learning. Others are conducted by university researchers in partnership with local community members or learners. Here I describe four such studies, two conducted in Canada and two in the United States.

McIvor's (2012) auto-ethnographic study documented her history and her attempts to (re)learn Cree, her maternal language, by means of the master-apprentice model, self-study, and other activities. Similarly, Rosborough (2012) reflected on her own engagements with and strategies for learning her ancestral language (Kwak'wala) in the same province (British Columbia), also over many years. Both provided poignant narratives of the experience. Embracing Indigenous research methodologies and narrative devices, they described and analyzed their learning cycle using culturally significant metaphors and symbols, such as those of a six-pointed star blanket and corresponding seasons in Cree, and those connected with making button blankets for ceremonies among the Kwakwaka'wakw people. Despite their strong motivation and access to indigenous resources and supports, however, both encountered various obstacles to developing more proficiency in their respective ancestral languages (reporting rather modest gains in conversation, formal greetings and prayers, and songs). And yet they found the process itself profoundly worthwhile and rewarding and remained committed to the cause.

Case studies by researchers not investigating their own but rather others' indigenous language learning include those by Hermes and King (2013) and

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000051 Published online by Cambridge University Press

Basham and Fathman (2008). The former explored Ojibwe (or Chippewa or Anishinaabem) language revitalization in the Minnesota area in eight families with school-aged children. Two of the families were described in depth in their article. The researchers were especially interested in exploring the affordances of multimedia technology creating a "simulated language-immersion experience" (p. 128) through short movies, computer flash cards, games, and other interactive tools for the purpose of language revitalization among interested urban families. The study lasted 8 weeks, during which researchers visited the homes, interviewed participants, recorded (and also had families record) their use of the software and language, and also captured the dynamics of how mothers and their sons in both families engaged with, and also demonstrated and discussed, their use and views of the media. Most of their observed discussions, apart from when they interacted directly with the software, were heavily managed by the mothers and English was the main language used. Their use of Ojibwe tended to be formulaic, based on the software phrases, with limited extension to everyday communication in the home. However, the members of the two families who had most successfully instilled a disciplined and planned approach to use of the materials maintained positive attitudes toward continuing to learn the language, whereas many of the other families initially participating in the study dropped out before the end, an outcome certainly not unique to indigenous language learning.

Basham and Fathman's (2008) study involved indigenous adult learners in Alaska seeking to revitalize endangered Athabascan languages. The first phase of this 2-year, two-phase study was a case study of two so-called latent learners (who had heard the indigenous language when growing up but were not speakers of the language until later in life), each with high levels of education and metalinguistic knowledge, who now had proficiency in their ancestral language. The second phase included 15 beginning-level adult learners. Data included a language use survey, language autobiographies, individual interviews, and formal oral assessment of receptive and productive skills (for a subset of participants).

The first two cases (of latent learners) were exceptional in many ways, principally because of their linguistic training and success in first learning and then teaching the languages. Unfortunately, readers do not gain a very vivid, complete sense of the first two cases (or the other participants), perhaps because of the way the data are represented and the small number of excerpts from interviews or autobiographies, and limited narratives of their lives. This is sometimes a shortcoming in other case studies as well. Nevertheless, decolonizing language revitalization work such as this can be very significant for participants and for program developers, and case studies can reveal possible avenues for further research and education.

Transnational Sojourners' and Migrants' Language and Literacy Learning

This final section concerns the experiences of immigrant and migrant transnational adults, families, and youth, including their settlement, educational and employment opportunities, integration into new (L1 and L2) communities, and their language and literacy practices. Abundant research is being conducted on

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000051 Published online by Cambridge University Press

this now, but several case studies of note include those by De Costa (2010), Han (2009, 2012), King (2013), Ricento (2013), and Song (2012). A number of these studies explore the ideologies and identities circulating in participants' own ethnolinguistic communities as well as in the target-language and host communities that influence their experiences of gaining proficiency and status in the communities.

Ricento (2013), for example, in a special issue of the *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education* on *dis-citizenship*, described the case of one middle-aged (G1.0) Hispanic refugee to Canada, Fernando, a Colombian pediatric surgeon who had fled his home country due to kidnapping and extortion experiences. Postimmigration, however, he encountered significant downward professional and social mobility due to English language and professional licensure issues. As a result, Fernando experienced severe challenges in terms of his employment, meaningful citizenship, social participation, and dignity. Ricento's larger multiyear study involved 30 families, comprising 120 refugees, from which six focal families from different geographic and linguistic source countries were chosen for closer study, one of which was the aforementioned Colombian family.

In immigrant contexts in which transnational youth are the focus there is some overlap with issues taken up in generation 1.5 studies. Most of the articles in Warriner's (2007) special double-issue of *Linguistics and Education* on transnationalism and language learning and use feature case studies of immigrant and transnational youth in U.S. communities, and exemplify the phenomenon in question with one to three cases.

With respect to studies of L2-learner sojourners, Yi (2013), from a larger study of five such learners, reported on a 2-year study of one Korean adolescent international student. The student was an educational sojourner abroad (sometimes referred to as a *satellite* or *parachute kid* in research literature and media) whose parents remained in their home country (Korea). The student, Hoon, appeared to be reasonably strong academically but was required to repeat his advanced ESL literacy class three times. According to Yi, he felt stigmatized and distressed because of his precarious and face-threatening ESL status, a common complaint among longtime sojourners and immigrant students alike. To compensate, he worked hard to achieve a high academic grade point average by taking various electives with light literacy requirements and by enrolling in summer courses with cooperative Korean peers, which did little to advance his own academic literacy skills.

In a related case study, Song (2012) examined the experiences and perspectives of the mothers of two much younger Korean boys (age 5) in an early study-abroad context in the United States over a 1-year period. She analyzed the linguistic practices cultivated in the home and the rationale for those practices. The mother attempted to keep the children's transnational and bilingual options and community memberships open for the future, as they anticipated a return to Korea. Indeed, reverse migration and transnational migration to other destinations for educational and other purposes is an increasingly common phenomenon in society and one that obviously influences individual and familial investments in multilingualism and multiliteracy.

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000051 Published online by Cambridge University Press

In summary, case studies in this section underscore the indeterminacy of transnational language learners' experiences and life pathways, and the constraints and affordances associated with their migration and success with English (and other) language learning and social participation.

CONCLUSION

Case study research and methodology have evolved and expanded in applied linguistics in recent years, especially in the areas of language learning and multilingualism highlighted in this article. Through detailed, contextualized descriptions of language learners and users in and across a wide assortment of contexts and time frames, new understandings can be gained regarding what it means to be a language learner, speaker, or transnational citizen in the 21st century. Although space did not permit a critical evaluation of each of the studies presented, with a heightened awareness of features of case study underscored in this article, such as case selection, triangulation, ethical considerations, reflexivity, approaches to data analysis, and generalizability, scholars can aim to conduct rigorous case study research that also engages with theory (and practice) in interesting and original ways. Future case studies of language learning and use will no doubt continue to examine the research themes and populations described earlier as well as myriad others (e.g., involving elderly learners, users, and losers of language, learners in L2-mediated virtual worlds and digital communities, and massively multilingual and multiliterate learners), leading to important new insights for research, advocacy, and pedagogy.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

I thank the anonymous reviewers for their helpful suggestions.

NOTES

1 The shorthand term *site*, here, refers not just to a singular physical location, but may represent a site or focus of research, whether a policy, a program or problem type, or a country.

2 Robert Yin, perhaps the best known social science case study methodologist, points out in the preface of the latest (5th) edition of his book (Yin, 2014), that the term *case study research* appears in a growing number of books searchable by Google through Google Ngram Viewer, indicating its more mainstream status today than in 1980. The proliferation of transdisciplinary textbooks, encyclopedias, and handbooks dedicated to case study research since 1994 is further evidence.

3 Ethnographic research in education and applied linguistics, as in anthropology, is almost always case-based, the case usually being a community or social and cultural group. Within the group, individuals or subgroups (e.g., families) might also be singled out for detailed study. Many case studies in applied linguistics are neither ethnographic (i.e., with a focus on sociocultural meanings and practices) nor longitudinal. Ethnographic case studies, therefore, constitute one particular type of case study and the boundaries between ethnographic and nonethnographic case studies are not always very clear, as there can be considerable overlap in their methods and goals.

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000051 Published online by Cambridge University Press

Furthermore, the term *case study* is often used rather loosely by researchers in various disciplines, including applied linguistics, to describe studies that do not provide as detailed a portrayal of cases as is optimal.

4 *Realist* research generally aims to uncover a single, accurate "truth" or reality, ostensibly independent of the observer, and is associated with positivist science; interpretivist (relativist) research, conversely, focuses more on how participants and researchers come to understand (interpret) a phenomenon, and may involve divergent (and not just convergent) or inconsistent perspectives and meanings as a result (see Yin, 2014, p. 17). The interpretivist approach is closely tied to social-construction/constructivist theories regarding the joint creation of knowledge, meaning, and reality.

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Duff, P. A. (2008a). *Case study research in applied linguistics*. New York, NY: Erlbaum/Taylor & Francis.

This book focuses on case studies in applied linguistics research dealing with language learners (since the volume is in a series on research methods in second language acquisition). Providing first an in-depth analysis and discussion of a Cambodian learner's English development, followed by a methodological overview of the history and development of case study research, the book then surveys representative L2 case studies across a wide range of topics, contexts, and age groups. Themes, issues, priorities, principles, and strategies for conducting and reporting on case studies in our field are identified.

Dyson, A. H., & Genishi, C. (2005). *On the case: Approaches to language and literacy research*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

This very accessible book is part of a series of research methods texts commissioned by the U.S. National Conference on Research in Language and Literacy designed specifically for graduate students planning to undertake qualitative research in language and literacy education. Detailed examples reflect the authors' own primary interests and extensive research in the social, cultural, and linguistic practice of literacy and its development in early childhood in elementary school classrooms in the United States. Principles and strategies are provided for framing and addressing research questions, negotiating access to research sites (and individuals), and generating, analyzing, and interpreting data. The final chapter deals with generalization in case studies. The book provides a solid foundation for those wishing to conduct school-based case studies on literacy.

Yin, R. K. (2014). *Case study research: Design and methods* (5th ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

Now in its fifth edition some 30 years after its first publication, Yin's book has become a classic in interdisciplinary case study research. Its coverage extends well beyond education, with examples sprinkled throughout the book from sociology, comparative politics, health sciences, business and industry, and criminology. Appendices provide an in-depth discussion of case studies in psychology and evaluation. The book includes some welcome updates: additional case studies and reviews of new case study methodology studies and overviews, seven tutorials, a discussion of ethics, a glossary, and a better format and presentation than earlier editions. Yin, who earned his doctorate in experimental psychology, takes a decidedly more realist and positivist orientation to case study than Duff (2008a) and Dyson and Genishi (2005) do, thus readers will encounter much more terminology typically associated with quantitative research (e.g., *reliability*, *validity*, *hypotheses*, *causal*

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000051 Published online by Cambridge University Press

explanations, *chains of evidence*, and *replication logic*). It is nevertheless a helpful resource for many case study researchers and this edition includes more interpretive work.

REFERENCES

Abdi, K. (2011). "She really only speaks English": Positioning, language ideology, and heritage language learners. *Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue canadienne des langues vivantes*, *67*(2), 161–189.

Basham, C., & Fathman, A. (2008). The latent speaker: Attaining adult fluency in an endangered language. *The International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *11*, 577–597.

Benson, P., & Cooker, L. (Eds.). (2013). *The applied linguistic individual: Sociocultural approaches to identity, agency, and autonomy*. Bristol, CT: Equinox.

Bloch, J. (2007). Abdullah's blogging: A generation 1.5 student enters the blogosphere. *Journal of Language Learning and Technology*, *11*, 128–141.

Brinton, D., Kagan, O., & Bauckus, S. (Eds.). (2008). *Heritage language education: A new field emerging*. New York, NY: Routledge/Taylor & Francis.

Bryman, A., Teevan, J., & Bell, E. (2009). *Social research methods*. (2nd Canadian edition). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Casanave, C. (2010). Case studies. In B. Paltridge & A. Phakiti (Eds.), *Continuum companion to research methods in applied linguistics* (pp. 66–79). London, UK: Continuum.

De Costa, P. I. (2010). From refugee to transformer: A Bourdieusian take on a Hmong learner's trajectory. *TESOL Quarterly*, *44*, 517–541.

De Fina, A., & Georgakopoulou, A. (2012). *Analyzing narrative: Discourse and sociolinguistic perspectives*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Denzin, N. (1970). *The research act in sociology*. Chicago, IL: Aldine.

Doerr, N., & Lee, K. (2013). *Constructing the heritage language learner: Knowledge, power, and new subjectivities*. Berlin, Germany: De Gruyter.

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Duff, P. (2008a). *Case study research in applied linguistics*. New York, NY: Erlbaum/Taylor & Francis.

Duff, P. (2008b). Heritage language education in Canada. In D. Brinton, O. Kagan, & S. Bauckus (Eds.), *Heritage language education: A new field emerging* (pp. 71–90). New York, NY: Routledge/Taylor & Francis.

Duff, P. (2012a). Case study research. In C. Chapelle (Ed.), *The encyclopedia of applied linguistics*. Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.

Duff, P. (2012b). How to carry out case study research. In A. Mackey & S. M. Gass (Eds.), *Research methods in second language acquisition: A practical guide* (pp. 95–116). New York, NY: Wiley-Blackwell.

Duff, P. (2012c, October). *Triangulation in qualitative second language research*. Plenary talk presented at the Second Language Research Forum, Carnegie Mellon University, Pittsburgh, PA.

Duff, P. (2014). Language socialization into Chinese language and "Chineseness" in diaspora communities. In X. L. Curdt-Christiansen & A. Hancock (Eds.), *Learning Chinese in diasporic communities: Many pathways to being Chinese* (pp. 13–34). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: John Benjamins.

Duff, P., & Abdi, K. (in press). Negotiating ethical research engagements in multilingual ethnographic studies in education: Narratives from the field. In P. De Costa (Ed.), *Ethics in applied linguistics research: Language researcher narratives*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Duff, P., Anderson, T., Ilnyckyj, R., VanGaya, E., Wang, R., & Yates, E. (2013). *Learning Chinese: Linguistic, sociocultural, and narrative perspectives*. Berlin, Germany: De Gruyter.

Dyson, A. H., & Genishi, C. (2005). *On the case: Approaches to language and literacy research*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000051 Published online by Cambridge University Press

Eisenhart, M. (2009). Generalization from qualitative inquiry. In K. Ercikan & W.-M. Roth (Eds.), *Generalizing from educational research* (pp. 51–66). New York, NY: Routledge.
Ercikan, K., & Roth, W.-M. (Eds.). (2009). *Generalizing from educational research: Beyond quantitative polarization*. New York, NY: Routledge.
Flyvbjerg, B. (2011). Case study. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of qualitative research* (4th ed.) (pp. 301–316). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
Fogle, L. (2012). *Second language socialization and learner agency: Adoptive family talk*. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
Frodesen, J. (2009). The academic writing development of a generation 1.5 "latecomer." In M. Roberge, M. Siegal, & L. Harklau (Eds.), *Generation 1.5 in college composition: Teaching academic writing to U.S.-educated learners of ESL* (pp. 91–104). New York, NY: Routledge.
Fuentes, R. (2012). Benefits and costs of exercising agency: A case study of an English learner navigating a four-year university. In Y. Kanno & L. Harklau (Eds.), *Linguistic minority students go to college* (pp. 220–237). London, UK: Routledge.
George, A. L., & Bennett, A. (2005). *Case studies and theory development in the social sciences*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
Guardado, M. (2009). Learning Spanish like a Boy Scout: Language socialization, resistance, and reproduction in a heritage language Scout troop. *Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue canadienne des langues vivantes*, *66*, 101–129.
Han, H. (2009). Institutionalized inclusion: A case study on support for immigrants in English learning. *TESOL Quarterly*, *43*, 643–668.
Han, H. (2012). Being and becoming "a new immigrant" in Canada: How languages matter, or not. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education*, *11*, 136–149.
Harklau, L. (2008). Developing qualitative longitudinal case studies of advanced language learners. In L. Ortega & H. Byrnes (Eds.), *The longitudinal study of advanced language capacities* (pp. 23–35). New York, NY: Routledge.
Harklau, L., & McClanahan, S. (2012). How Paola made it to college: A linguistic minority student's unlikely success story. In Y. Kanno & L. Harklau (Eds.), *Linguistic minority students go to college* (pp. 74–90). London, UK: Routledge
Hatch, E. (Ed.). (1978). *Second language acquisition*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
He, A. W. (2008). An identity-based model for the development of Chinese as a heritage language. In A. He & Y. Xiao (Eds.), *Chinese as a heritage language* (pp. 109–124). Honolulu, HI: National Foreign Language Resource Center, University of Hawaii.
He, A., & Xiao, Y. (Eds.). (2008). *Chinese as a heritage language*. Honolulu, HI: National Foreign Language Resource Center, University of Hawaii.
Hermes, M., & King, K. A. (2013). Ojibwe language revitalization, multimedia technology, and family language learning. *Language Learning & Technology*, *17*, 125–144.
Kang, H-S. (2013). Korean American college students' language practices and identity positioning: "Not Korean, but not American." *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education*, *12*, 248–261.
Kanno, Y., & Harklau, L. (Eds.). (2012). *Linguistic minority students go to college*. London, UK: Routledge.
Kim, J., & Duff, P. (2012). The language socialization and identity negotiations of generation 1.5 Korean-Canadian university students. *TESL Canada Journal*, *29*(6), 81–102.
King, K. (2013). A tale of three sisters: Language ideologies, identities, and negotiations in a bilingual, transnational family. *International Journal of Multilingual Research*, *7*, 49–65.
Kinginger, C. (2008). *Language learning in study abroad: Case studies of Americans in France*. *The Modern Language Journal*, *92*, 1–124.
Kurata, N. (2011). *Foreign language learning and use: Interaction in informal social networks*. London, UK: Continuum.
Lardiere, D. (2007). *Ultimate attainment in second language acquisition: A case study*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
Larsen-Freeman, D. (2006). The emergence of complexity, fluency, and accuracy in the oral and written production of five Chinese learners of English. *Applied Linguistics*, *27*, 590–619.

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000051 Published online by Cambridge University Press

Li, D., & Duff, P. (2008). Issues in Chinese heritage language education and research at the postsecondary level. In A. W. He & Y. Xiao (Eds.), *Chinese as a heritage language: Fostering rooted world citizenry* (pp. 13–36). Honolulu, HI: National Foreign Language Resource Center, University of Hawai'i.
Li, D., & Duff, P. (2014). Chinese language learning by adolescents and young adults in the Chinese diaspora: Motivation, ethnicity, and identity. In X. L. Curdt-Christiansen & A. Hancock (Eds.), *Learning Chinese in diasporic communities: Many pathways to being Chinese* (pp. 219–238) Amsterdam, The Netherlands: John Benjamins.
McIvor, O. (2012). îkakwiy nihiyawiyân: *I am learning [to be] Cree* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Vancouver, BC: University of British Columbia.
Norton, B. (2013). *Identity and language learning: Extending the conversation* (2nd ed.). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
Paltridge, B. (2012). *Discourse analysis* (2nd ed.). London, UK: Bloomsbury.
Pasfield-Neofitou, S. E. (2012). *Online communication in a second language: Social interaction, language use, and learning Japanese*. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
Pillow, W. S. (2003). Confession, catharsis, or cure? Rethinking the uses of reflexivity as methodological power in qualitative research. *Qualitative Studies in Education*, *16*, 175–196.
Riazantseva, A. (2012). "I ain't changing anything": A case study of successful generation 1.5 immigrant college students' writing. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *11*, 184–193.
Ricento, T. (2013). Dis-citizenship for refugees in Canada: The case of Fernando. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education*, *12*, 184–188.
Richards, K. (2003). *Qualitative research in TESOL*. London, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.
Richards, K. (2011). Case study. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning*. (Vol. 2, pp. 207–221). New York, NY: Routledge.
Richards, L. (2009). *Handling qualitative data* (2nd ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
Roberge, M., Siegal, M., & Harklau, L. (Eds.). (2009). *Generation 1.5 in college composition: Teaching academic writing to U.S.-educated learners of ESL*. New York, NY: Routledge.
Roessingh, H., & Douglas, S. (Eds.). (2012). Generation 1.5 in Canada: Multiple perspectives on a shifting demographic landscape [Special issue]. *TESL Canada Journal*, *29*(6).
Rosborough, P. (2012). K̲a̲ngex̲tola *sewn-on-top: Kwak'wala revitalization and being Indigenous* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Vancouver, BC: University of British Columbia.
Saldaña, J. (2009). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers*. Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
Schmidt, R. (1983). Interaction, acculturation, and the acquisition of communicative competence. In N. Wolfson & E. Judd (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and language acquisition* (pp. 137–174). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
Schmidt, R., & Frota, S. (1986). Developing basic conversational ability in a second language: A case study of an adult learner of Portuguese. In R. Day (Ed.), *Talking to learn: Conversation in second language acquisition* (pp. 237–326). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
Schumann, J. (1978). *The pidginization process: A model for second language acquisition*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
Simon-Maeda, A. (2011). *Being and becoming a speaker of Japanese: An autoethnographic account*. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
Song, J. (2012). Imagined communities and language socialization practices in transnational space: A case study of two Korean "study abroad" families in the United States. *The Modern Language Journal*, *96*, 507–524.
Stake, R. (2006). *Multiple case study analysis*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
Talmy, S., & Richards, K. (Eds.). (2011). Qualitative interviews in applied linguistics: Discursive perspectives. [Special issue]. *Applied Linguistics*, *32*(1).
Torrez, J. E. (2013). *Somos Mexicanos y hablamos Mexicano aqui*: Rural farmworker families struggle to maintain cultural and linguistic identity in Michigan. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education*, *12*, 277–294.
Trifonas, P., & Aravossitas, T. (Eds.). (2014). *Rethinking heritage language education*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000051 Published online by Cambridge University Press

Varghese, M. (2012). A linguistic minority student's discursive framing of agency and structure. In Y. Kanno & L. Harklau (Eds.), *Linguistic minority immigrants go to college: Preparation, access, and persistence* (pp. 148–162). New York, NY: Routledge.
Warriner, D. (Ed.). (2007). Transnational literacies: Immigration, language learning, and identity. *Linguistics and Education*, *18*, 201–338.
Yi, Y. (2013). Adolescent multilingual writer's negotiation of multiple identities and access to academic writing: A case study of a *jogi yuhak* student in a US high school. *Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue canadienne des langues vivantes*, *69*, 207–231.
Yin, R. K. (2014). *Case study research: Design and methods* (5th ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000051 Published online by Cambridge University Press