

1-1-1998

The relationship between native Vietnamese language literacy and English language reading achievement of Vietnamese high school students /

Mary Phuoc Tran-Nguyen

Follow this and additional works at: http://digitalcommons.wayne.edu/oa_dissertations

Recommended Citation

Tran-Nguyen, Mary Phuoc, "The relationship between native Vietnamese language literacy and English language reading achievement of Vietnamese high school students /" (1998). *Wayne State University Dissertations*. Paper 1244.

This Open Access Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by DigitalCommons@WayneState. It has been accepted for inclusion in Wayne State University Dissertations by an authorized administrator of DigitalCommons@WayneState.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN NATIVE VIETNAMESE LANGUAGE
LITERACY AND ENGLISH LANGUAGE READING ACHIEVEMENT OF
VIETNAMESE HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

by

MARY PHUOC TRAN-NGUYEN

DISSERTATION

Submitted to the Graduate School

of Wayne State University.

Detroit, Michigan

in partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

1998

MAJOR: CURRICULUM AND
INSTRUCTION

Approved by:

Roberto M. B. 2/12/98
Advisor Date

Olga Fu
Frances LaPlante-Snowski

© COPYRIGHT BY

MARY PHUOC TRAN-NGUYEN

1998

All Rights Reserved

DEDICATION

In the memory of my father, Tran Toan,
who taught me the value of Education.

To my mother, Ngo Thi Huu,
for the invaluable sacrifices she made in preparing me for this day.

To my understanding and patient husband, Trang,
His time and motivation kept me strong through this journey.
Without him, this magnificent goal could not have been accomplished.

To my children, Hanh, Ha, Oanh and Hung
for bearing with me during the completion of this labor.
Also everyone whose prayers were with me on this journey.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The deepest appreciation to Dr. Rodolfo Martinez is acknowledged. His leadership and guidance made this study possible. I am grateful to the members of my doctoral committee for their constructive comments, criticisms, and valuable suggestions throughout the preparation and writing of this dissertation. Dr. Otto Feinstein, and Dr. Frances LaPlante-Sosnowsky have been most helpful. To Walter DeBoer, of Grand Rapids Public Schools, for providing assistance in gathering the necessary data for the study.

I would like to acknowledge the contributions of the students at Union High School who participated in this study. Without them, there would have been no study. I would also like to thank the teachers and administrators who supported, encouraged, and helped me to conduct this study.

Thank you to June Cline for her assistance in helping with this dissertation. Special thanks to my daughter, Oanh Kieu Nguyen, for contributing to the typing and proofreading of both proposal and dissertation. The writer is indebted to her brother, Tho, for his encouragement and understanding. The writer is thankful for all the supports she received from friends and other relatives.

I am very grateful to God who created me and gave me everything, especially knowledge and wisdom to pursue my lifelong goals to continue learning.

Table of Contents

Dedication	ii
Acknowledgments	iii
List of Tables	vi
List of Figures	vii
CHAPTER 1 – INTRODUCTION	1
Background of the Problem	1
Purpose of the Study	7
Statement of the Problem	11
Research Questions	12
Significance of the Problem	13
Definition of Terms	15
Statement of Hypotheses	17
Limitations	18
CHAPTER II – REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	20
Vietnamese: A Historical Overview	20
Educational and Pedagogical Implications	24
Determinants of Academic Achievement for Language Minority Students	24
Native Language Literacy and Intelligence in Bilingual	27
Native Language Literacy and Achievement in Second Language	28
Case Studies Model	43
Summary of the Review of Literature	47
CHAPTER III – RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	49

Introduction	49
Dependent Variables	51
Natural Independent Variable	51
Research Questions	52
Description of the Population	52
Description of the Sample	52
Determination of the Dependent Variable	53
Determination of the Independent Variables	53
Instruments Used to Collect Data	53
Research Subjects	56
Procedure	57
Data Analysis	58
CHAPTER IV – DATA ANALYSES AND RESULTS	60
Description of the Sample	60
Development of Group Assignment	68
Research Questions	68
Research question 1	69
Research question 2	70
Research question 3:	71
Research question 4	73
Summary	75
CHAPTER V – OVERVIEW, CONCLUSION, RECOMMENDATIONS	76
Overview and Purpose of the Study	76

Findings	77
Research questions.	78
Discussion	80
Recommendations for Practice	81
Recommendations for Further Research	82
Appendix A – Native Language Skills Test	84
Appendix B – Letter Requesting Parental Consent	93
Appendix C – Coding Sheet and Questionnaire	95
Appendix D – Students' Writing Protocols	97
References	108
Abstract	115
Autobiographical Statement	117

List of Tables

<u>Table</u>		<u>Page</u>
1	Descriptive Statistics – Age of Student and Number of Years in the United States	61
2	Frequency Distributions – Religion of the Student	62
3	Frequency Distributions – Grade in School	63
4	Frequency Distributions – Gender of the Students	63
5	Frequency Distributions – Region in Vietnam Where Student Lived	64
6	Frequency Distributions – Family Composition	64
7	Frequency Distributions – Parents Educational Levels	65
8	Frequency Distribution – Socioeconomic Status of the Family	66
9	Frequency Distributions – Language Spoken in Home	67
10	Frequency Distributions – Birth Order of Students	67
11	Descriptive Statistics – Native Language Skills Test	68
12	t-Test for Two Independent Samples – Native Language Skills Test by Literacy Level	69
13	Factorial Analysis of Variance – CAT Reading Scores by Literacy Levels and Gender of Vietnamese Students	70
14	Factorial Analysis of Variance – CAT Reading Scores by Literacy Levels and Grade of Vietnamese Students	72
15	Stepwise Multiple Linear Regression Analysis – NLST Vietnamese Literacy Scores	74

List of Figures

<u>Figure</u>		<u>Page</u>
1	Age Differences in Second Language Acquisition	35
2	Implementation Skills	45
3	Generic Affective Competency Statements	47
4	Causal-comparative Research Design Model	51
5	Statistical Analysis	59
7	Interaction between Literacy and Grade Levels of Vietnamese Students CAT Reading Scores	73

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Problem

The problem of refugees is a global concern. In an era of tremendous upheavals and movements of peoples, some voluntary, others involuntary, not only are the *émigrés* affected, but also societies to which they immigrate. Lately the Indo-Chinese have been migrating in large numbers to the United States. Between 1975 and 1995, the US resettled approximately 1,000,000 Vietnamese refugees, with this number continuing to grow (Indo-Chinese Office, 1995, Detroit)

Considering the increasing numbers of Vietnamese students in America as reported by Indo-Chinese Office in Detroit in 1995, the need for teaching literacy skills in Vietnamese to Vietnamese-speaking students and associated bilingual programs has greatly increased. According to some Vietnamese educators, children are considered literate at about the third-grade level in Vietnam. At that time they are able to read simple texts, take dictation, and write simple descriptions in Vietnamese.

The Vietnamese respect learning in general and literate people in particular. Reading is a favorite pastime among the working class Vietnamese as well as those from higher economic status. The choice of reading matter selected by Vietnamese children depends on their grade and age. High school students usually select novels, short stories, and poetry. Students use their writing skill to make handwritten magazines or copy poetry for classmates and/or teachers. Writing skills are emphasized in examinations. Through much of the educational system, essay examinations are used. Students are required to have well-developed writing and composition skills.

Bilingual education programs come in a variety of formats, each with its own features and benefits. The Native Language Literacy Transitional Program (NLLTP) involves instruction in both the native language (L1) and English:

Teachers may use two languages, one of which is English language instruction. Bilingual education involves the use of L1 as the medium of instruction in a well-organized program that encompasses the entire curriculum and includes the study of the history and culture associated with the native languages of the student population. (Bilingual Education Program Report, MI. 1994).

Most refugees live in marginal circumstances, with few speaking English, and many trapped in secondary types of jobs. These immigrants live in overcrowded conditions and receive welfare. The newer arrivals are not educated, and few have professional skills. These people suffer from more serious health problems than those who arrived during previous immigration waves, with vast differences in available types and quality of assistance programs. They have tremendous needs in the areas of housing, work, clothing, health, crisis intervention, transportation, and cultural adjustment. But however sad their plight in other respects, their most urgent need is education. The United States is a wealthy society, but without minimal proficiency in English, Spanish, or Vietnamese, everything is difficult at best, or impossible for newly-arrived immigrants to become successful.

Standard (American) English is the tool for the educated community. Logan's longitudinal study (1966) found that people who were unable to speak standard English tended to be poor readers. In a summary of his work, differences between the high and low groups in standard English performance tended to increase from year to year. The consequence of not having mastered standard English may be more far-reaching than

simply retarding the reading process; as the kind of thinking necessary for success in other scholastic pursuits may also be impeded (Yonemura, 1974)

According to a study in September 1991, initiated by the US. Department of Health and Human Services and the Office of Refugee Resettlement, 8,000 Amerasians and 20,000 Vietnamese between 1988 and 1990 emigrated to the United States. Amerasians leaving Vietnam with their families spent six months in the Philippines, where they received English classes and Cultural Orientation training. Teenage Amerasians participate in a program called Preparation for American Secondary Schools (PASS). Some of them learned quickly and did very well in English although the school system was very different from Vietnam's. Some received formal education in Vietnam.

Refugees face an even more serious handicap, that of illiteracy in their native tongue. Literate immigrants were estimated to need six to twelve months of intensive English language training to become successful while illiterate immigrants needed two to three years of English language training. Vietnam has more illiteracy in traditional time than modern age. Vietnamese people have more large families in the the countries than the cities. Many of them never had a chance to go to school. (Vietnamese Religious Magazine, May, 1995). Given this range of needs, the availability of services was investigated. Research indicates that learning in all disciplines is directly related to the level of bilingualism that refugees achieve. While Lambert (1962) showed bilinguals' performance on tests of general reasoning, Zeev (1977) pointed out their improved attention to structure and detail. Those students who have greater control of language should have improved reading comprehension in other academic spheres (Troike & Perez, 1978).

Examination of these statistics of literacy reveals the magnitude of the problem. In 1979 the number of Limited English Proficient (LEP) students increased by 273%, from 7,426 to 27,733 students. The 1982 census indicated a 123% increase of Cantonese LEP students. Another statistical grouping of Asian and other nonSpanish-speaking minorities included another 89,000 students or 21% of the 431,443 LEP students identified in California in 1982 (Lopez, p. ix). In 1994 the public school system of Grand Rapids, MI served 1,854 of the 3,000 bilingual students who were eligible (Research, Evaluation, MI. 1994).

Vietnamese is the primary language for more than 6,000 K-12 students in Western Michigan's public schools (Indo-Chinese Office, Detroit, 1995). Bilingual education programs have been in place, in the region, since 1976. At first glance, it appears that school districts are in control of the situation and are prepared to address effectively the needs of students from non-English speaking backgrounds. However investigations show that eligibility criteria, student assessment, and prescribed treatment were established on the bases of research not specific to this population.

One set of problems involves recognizing the needs of a target Indo-Chinese student population and determining the most effective means of meeting their needs. Another involves the diversity of educational treatment and the acquired literacy of individual Vietnamese students. We have heard the arguments of pedagogues from one end of the continent to the other. We have witnessed Lambert's documented successes in Canada (1972). We have seen the evidence of isolated districts in Michigan and Minnesota, which demonstrate that literacy is transferred and that solid development in one's primary language (L1) produces proportional benefits in his second language (L2).

Cummins argued (1982) that school success is closely related to a student's cognitive academic language base. He further contends that this base is generic. This means that students who possess well-developed skills in L1 will achieve academic success, even when taught in another language. The result of the English and Math tests showed the foreign students who can speak well in two languages (in their native and in English languages) received the highest scores of the Graduate Record Exam. (Testing reports, New Jersey, 1993)

Several studies have demonstrated evidence that literacy in the first language has influence on reading comprehension in English (Troy, Paris and Cummins, 1994).

Although the influence of literacy and reading comprehension in the native language has been documented for many years (Lambert, 1972), very little is known about how literacy in the Vietnamese language relates to reading comprehension in English. Individual differences in reading comprehension of English among Vietnamese students may best be examined within their own native language framework.

Understanding the influence of literacy in the Vietnamese language on students' reading comprehension in English can provide valuable information about their individual differences in reading achievement. Lambert (1962) described bilinguals' performance on tests of general reasoning; Ben Zeev (1976, 1977) described bilinguals improved attention to structure and details; and consequently it follows that those students who have greater control of language will have improved cognition in other academic spheres (Troike and Perez, 1978).

Teachers find themselves teaching the academic content of school to students who do not understand the language ordinarily used in the school. Not only do these students

have to be taught the content of the school curriculum, but the language of the school and its society, as well, if they are to be prepared to participate in either (Wong-Fillmore & Valdez, 1986).

Not all immigrant students were able to learn English just by being in classrooms and schools where it was spoken...Such students then had difficulty making academic progress or in getting much out of their educational experiences (Wongmore, 1986).

That which was not entirely clear until recently was that there was no way of determining the extent to which language problems were responsible for the vast numbers of dropouts. What was clear was that language minority students dropped out sooner and in greater numbers than their English monolingual counterparts. Steinberg et al. (1982). This was not a recognizable problem originally as many people previously dropped out of school. At the time when the American economy was expanding, there were ample jobs available. A dropout was not considered to be an economic burden to society. The situation has changed radically. In a technological society there is no room for people with inadequate educations. Language and related cultural differences have been identified as key factors in the educational failure of minority students, both by educators and by the courts (Wong-Fillmore & Valdez, 1986).

There is little that can be taught in any school program, that is not language related. The influence of scientific concepts on the mental development of the child is analogous to the effect of learning a foreign language, a process which is conscious and deliberate from the start. In L1, the primitive aspects of speech are acquired before the more complex ones; with a foreign language, the higher forms develop before the spontaneous, fluent speech. Stern saw this relationship (1928). The child's strong points

in foreign language are his weak points in his native language, and vice versa (Vygotsky, 1981). This is probably more applicable to younger learners. The same is true of phonetics. He articulates his native speech, but is unconscious of the sounds he is uttering and unable to spell the words with great facility nor to divide a word into its constituent sounds. In L2, however, he does this easily and the ability to write develops at the same pace as the ability to speak. The greatest point of interference in L2 learning is spontaneity and fluidity of conversation, combined with the correct grammatical structures. This comes much later. Success in learning a foreign language is sometimes contingent on a certain degree of maturity in the native language (Cummins, 1984). The child can transfer to the new language the systems he already possesses in his own L1; the reverse is also true. Knowledge of a foreign language facilitates mastering the higher forms of the native language. The child learns to use his native language as one system in many, and to view it in more global perspectives.

Purpose of the Study

As learning style theories are analyzed, it appears that all students do not learn the way teachers consistently teach them. There is support for the contention that all students would benefit if they were taught in the same way as they learn. Given the fact that both teachers and students are individuals, it must be further recognized that teachers have instructional "styles" that fit their way of thinking and perceiving.

Competent teachers can design objectives, organize materials, structure activities, and devise evaluation strategies. Good teachers doing those things can answer the questions: "What are you doing?" and "Why are you doing that?" A dual language

classroom teacher performs the same tasks, but must also include language acquisition as a variable in all aspects of planning.

"What and why" are basic questions for all teachers, but the dual language teacher must answer an additional and difficult question: "What language are you using to teach each particular child, at any given time, in any particular subject?" While this question is methodological in part, the answer results not only from the nature of the task at hand, but also from an interplay of theoretical knowledge about language and culture, state and federal mandates, and administrative decisions about program design.

Research in both first and second language acquisition provides a rationale for the interactive classroom. The interactionist perspective is reflected in the view of human development that draws predominantly from the work of the Russian psychologist, Vygotsky, and others such as Jerome Brunner who belong to a school of social science referred to as *Neo-Vygotskianism*. A key feature of this school of human development is that higher-order functions develop out of social interaction. Vygotsky (1978) talked about the *Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)* which he defined as "the distance between the actual developmental level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p. 86).

The teacher's responsibility in the interactionist view is to structure and model appropriate solution to problems by building a scaffold from the learner's current state of competence which extends his/her skills or knowledge to a higher level of competence.

The major implication of interactionist theory for language learning is that language is learned by taking part in social interaction. According to Wells (1981),

children learn their first language through interaction with caregivers "which gives due weight to the contribution of both parties, and emphasized mutuality and reciprocity in the meaning that are constructed and negotiated through talk" (p. 115). Negotiation of any kind involves a give and take, a back and forth until the parties reach agreement. The processes have been applied to teaching in the form of "instructional conversations" in which teachers encourage the expression of students' own ideas, build upon information students provide and experiences they have had, and guide them to increasingly sophisticated levels of understanding (Goldenberg, 1991).

First, dual language instruction must be removed from its controversial political environment. Misinformation about dual language instruction permeates the public mind and all too often, the teaching profession itself. Opposition to bilingual education is the result of several common misconceptions. The first misconception is the time. Schooling in general, and language learning in particular, are slow processes. Second, many people regard language learning as a difficult and frustrating endeavor. This attitude is usually the result of having experienced traditional, grammar-based approaches to language teaching. It is common to hear people say, "I took three years of French (or German) in high school, and I can't speak a word." Most of the people, who say they would like to speak another language, but the main thing they learned from language class is that it is hard to do! It is not surprising that they are skeptical about the possibility that an educational program can produce bilingualism without pain. Perhaps most dynamically, using languages other than English in public schools empowers minority communities and provides marginalized or excluded groups with a voice in schooling. Krashen and Biber (1988) concluded that "possibly the most important

advantage of full bilingualism is that can help lead to a healthy sense of biculturalism" (p,22). In contrast, many language minority students perceive the negative messages about their language and culture which emanate from school and society at large and develop what Cummins has called "cultural ambivalence." A strong primary language component in school can mitigate against these negative images, validating language minority students' home language and culture and helping to develop a strong sense of self-identity as these students adjust to life in a new country, a new language or a new school culture. As Snow (1990) pointed out:"Schools should be operated in ways that maximize the self-esteem of their students - because that is a worthy goal in itself, but also because students with high self-esteem work harder, learn better, and achieve more"(p. 64).

The results of the research in this study can have powerful implications for the role of the primary language in development of the literate behavior prerequisite to academic success. It implied a reconceptualization of the kind of instruction that promotes literacy. It is not a passive environment with limited opportunities for students to produce language and develop higher order thinking skills, but a dynamic, interactive setting.

Finally, research has shown that parents play a pivotal role in the academic success of their children. The parents of language minority students must be encouraged to provide a rich verbal environment at home in their native language despite the reluctance they often express. Teachers must help them to realize how vital their linguistic input is and understand the rationale behind the use of the primary language.

Opportunity awaits. By developing the primary language skills of our language

minority students, a foundation of literate behaviors is being created which will ultimately prepare these students for the rigors of the mainstream classroom and successful entry into the English-speaking academic and work environment.

The scope of this research will encompass the concept of "global education" as defined by Falkenstein (1983).

. . . the approach to this topic has been characterized by a western orientation, a nationalistic perspective that conveys the superiority of the United States, an omission of information about other cultures, a message that all people are the same, and an elitist focus.

Such approaches, as clearly indicated by Falkenstein, are no longer consistent with an interdependent world. Thus an additional focus of this research investigated the interaction between the Vietnamese teacher and the Vietnamese student.

Statement of the Problem

This study examined the relationship of high school Vietnamese language instruction for Vietnamese speakers as a bridge to Standard English. This global approach to the second and third language acquisition produces many related benefits for the students; enhanced cognitive skills; a high level of understanding of his own language; multicultural sensitivity; global perspectives and operational abilities in social situations.

The population of students engaged in the Vietnamese program are high school students, who have refugee status, from moderate to low-middle socioeconomic status families. The information obtained from this study provides insight into the importance of the positive effects which can be attributed to the Vietnamese language model on

achievement in Standard English. Among the multiple benefits are social mobility; educational attainment; political empowerment; social recognition; multicultural/global awareness; international perspectives; first and second language skills; greater cultural sensitivity; and successful linguistic progress, all of which will, when generalized will serve to modify the educational intervention in such ways as to maximize the potential of these minority students and to eliminate the educational attrition that has affected them in the past. There are relationships between literacy and illiteracy in the Vietnamese language and the reading comprehension in English of ninth and tenth grade Vietnamese refugee students in a medium-size high school from a public school district in Western Michigan.

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between literacy and illiteracy in Vietnamese and reading comprehension in English of ninth and tenth grade Vietnamese refugee students in a medium size high school from a public school district in Western Michigan.

Research Questions

The following research questions were developed for this study:

1. Do the cognitive skills, as measured by standardized tests, differ between Vietnamese students who were categorized as literate and those categorized as illiterate?
2. Do the cognitive skills, as measured by standardized tests, differ between male and female Vietnamese students who were categorized as literate and those categorized as illiterate?
3. Do the cognitive skills, as measured by standardized tests, differ between ninth and tenth grade Vietnamese students who were categorized as literate and those categorized as illiterate?

4. Is the literacy level of Vietnamese students as measured by the Native Language Skills Test (NLST) related to the number of years the student has been in the United States, their ages, their socioeconomic level, and educational levels of their mothers and fathers?

Significance of the Problem

Many Vietnamese students are performing at a deficit in all academic subjects. Consequently they are unable to develop a sense of accomplishment and achievement in many of their classes. This lack of mastery can produce a poor self-image, with a reduced sense of locus of control which may lower motivation and subsequently affect further achievement (Nowiki & Strickland, 1973).

Unlike other immigrant groups which have been present in the United States for several generations, nearly all Vietnamese are refugees arrived in the 1970s. They have been working to acquire English and adjust to the American cultural environment, but their acculturation is made more difficult as English is their second language. They continue to use Vietnamese for communication among themselves or when situations do not require English.

Vietnamese is the primary language of communication in business or community meetings among Vietnamese immigrants. In areas with large concentrations of Vietnamese - for examples, Los Angeles, Orange County, San Francisco, San Jose, and Grand Rapids - special religious services (e.g., Buddhist, Catholic, and Protestant churches) are conducted in Vietnamese. Periodicals, magazines, and books published in Vietnamese are thriving, especially in California.

The determination to preserve the Vietnamese language is as strong as the desire

to master English to perfection. Since instruction in the Vietnamese language is not commonly available in public schools, some Vietnamese communities; Orange County, Los Angeles, San Jose, and Grand Rapids specifically; have organized special classes conducted by volunteers, usually parents or college students, to provide instruction to 1st generation children. In these classes, Vietnamese students are taught to read and write Vietnamese. Vietnamese college students are advised to take the Vietnamese course at the University of Michigan in Ann Arbor as a foreign language equivalent. Most of these students were born in the United States and may have a hard time understanding, speaking, and writing Vietnamese. Vietnamese parents enjoy seeing their children who were born in America learn to speak, read, and write Vietnamese. Parents, who have children attending public schools, want their local school districts to provide their children with bilingual education programs that both meet their unique needs and help them enter the mainstream of American society.

Vietnamese is a language that is not mutually intelligible with any other language. However, certain linguistic features are superficially similar to those of some other languages. From the phonological point of view, Vietnamese is a tone language, similar to Thai and Chinese. In Vietnamese, most words can be pronounced with different tones to express different meanings. Like Thai, Lao, and Chinese; Vietnamese is a monosyllabic language. In this case, "monosyllabic" does not mean that Vietnamese consists uniquely of one-syllable-words. Polysyllabic words exist in Vietnamese just as there are one-syllable-words in French and English that are considered polysyllabic languages. Monosyllabism is recognized by the articulatory manner of syllables in connected speech. In a monosyllabic language, the syllables are articulated as

independent units. In spite of certain similarities with some other languages, Vietnamese is a separate language whose linguistic system differs from those of Indo-European languages as well as from those of other Asian languages (Lopez, 1982).

In addition to facing language barriers, Vietnamese refugees also have experienced many difficulties in their process of adjustment and to American life. These difficulties result, in part, from the large gap between the two cultures as well as the sudden change of environment (culture shock). Even with those who have been more or less prepared for this adjustment, such as the educated and the urbanites, they are inclined to adopt new values slowly and moderately. In those situations where some old values may have to be sacrificed, longer transitional period for compromises and smooth changes may be necessary. In addition, attempts to achieve harmony may not always be successful. Since man is not a perfect being, success may not occur without a certain amount of hardship and failure.

The percentage of minority students who dropout of school is alarming. In some schools in the metropolitan area, the drop-out rate has reached 83%. Many reasons may be contributing to this situation. Language barriers are the first problems that challenge the minority student. The Vietnamese Language model provides strategies to use the Vietnamese student's prior knowledge (Cummins, 1981) to minimize the transition to Standard English.

Definition of Terms

Bilingual/English as a Second Language (BESL):

A paradigm for teaching English to speakers of another language, employing the technology, methodology and philosophy of bilingual education.

Bilingualism:	The ability to speak two languages. Bilingual individuals often speak one of their two languages better than the other, but they can construct and understand sentences in both (Nobel, 1982).
Cognitive Skills:	The ability of the human brain to acquire and process language (Krashen, 1980).
Content-based Instruction:	A teaching approach designed to each subject content matter using a second language (Snow, 1986).
Culture Shock:	A condition of a noxious intrapsychic process which can be interpreted as resulting from a deficiency in the person's make-up that includes personality and personal history (Oberg, 1960); Byrne, 1966; Guthrie, 1966); Viewed as a process of adaptation to cultural stress which can manifest emotions of anxiety, helplessness, irritability and homesickness (Adler, 1875).
Language Acquisition or Native Language Acquisition:	Refers to the process of learning to speak like the adults of a governing community. Most studies of language acquisition assume that it occurs between the ages of two and five (sometimes six). Later developments, like age-grading, are not regarded as being part of language acquisition. It should be emphasized that every child (aside from pathological cases such as severely retarded or brain-damaged children) goes through this process. The rate of development, furthermore, seems to be more constant than is popularly believed. The acquisition of a second or foreign language is in many ways different from active language acquisition (Dillard, 1972).
L2:	A second, nonnative language, whether already mastered or in the process of being acquired.
Language fluency:	The ability to comprehend and communicate in a given language.
Language Literacy:	The ability to read and to write a given language.
LEP (Limited English Proficiency):	Refers to students who may reasonably be expected

	to have difficulty performing ordinary class work in English, whether because it is not their own native tongue or because it is not that of their home environment.
Native Language Skills Tests (NLST):	Teacher-constructed test used to assess students' skills in Vietnamese.
Reading Comprehension:	Required understanding of words' meanings in differing contexts. Readers must be able to interpret words or phrases in a sentence or a paragraph. They must then be able to analyze and synthesize a story in its totality (DeHaven, 1983).
Second Language Acquisition:	Second language acquisition takes place when the learner understands the message. A learner acquires a second language naturally through communicating and interacting in that language (Krashen, 1980).
Standard (American) English:	Dialect spoken by the educated of our society. It is not the dialect spoken by all but a few("stuffy") media personalities or written in the popular press. (Nobel, 1982.
Religion:	Can effect all views and components related to individual's life. Religion focuses on the spiritual values and inside of human beings, within a cultural setting Gollnick & Chin, 1990; Berry & Annis, 1988). Religion effects the way individuals manipulate and regulate their biological, psychological-personality, sociological make-up unless there is any type of dysfunction or need in of any one of the three major domains.

Statement of Hypotheses

Students who have attained some level of Vietnamese proficiency by participating in an instructional program with the Vietnamese Language model generally demonstrate higher levels of cognitive skills on standardized tests than students that did not participate in the program.

- H₁ Students who have attained some level of proficiency in Vietnamese by participating in a Vietnamese Language program demonstrate higher level reading comprehension than those students that did not participate in the program.
- H₂ Students who have attained some level of proficiency in Vietnamese by participating in the Vietnamese language program demonstrate higher level of vocabulary skills than those students that did not participate in the program.
- H₃ Students who have attained some level of proficiency by participating in the Vietnamese language program demonstrate a lower incidence of non-standard grammatical features in writing than do those students that did not participate in the program.
- H₄ Students with higher socioeconomic status, fathers and mothers have higher levels of education, speak Vietnamese in the home, and living in the city have a higher score of the CAT Test than those students who did not have those characteristics.

Limitations

The limitations of this study are the following:

1. This study focused on Vietnamese speaking in one high school in Grand Rapids who were enrolled in the 9th and 10th grades during the 1994-1995 school year. The participants were Vietnamese refugees or immigrant students for Vietnamese-speaking parents. They made up 97% of students of Vietnamese ethnicity in the district at this grade level.
2. Students must have at least three full years of schooling in English in the USA, otherwise they were not included in the list of participants.
3. The California Achievement Test (CAT) was used as the sole measure of student achievement in English and math.
4. Achievement in Vietnamese was determined through the use of a teacher-developed test that assessed understanding, speaking, reading, and writing of Vietnamese. This test was not standardized, but incorporated concepts that were well-spoken and written of in research of language testing.

The test was reviewed by other educators fluent in Vietnamese to assure that the researcher had been accurate in developing the item stems for the reading materials being presented.

Because of these limitations, the results of the study may not have been generalized beyond the ninth and tenth grade Vietnamese students at this Grand Rapids high school. Other bilingual educators and administrators of bilingual programs may find the results useful in developing strategies to assist immigrants make the transition from their native language to English.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Vietnamese: A Historical Overview

According to Refugee Center Freedom Flight Task Force (Schipper, 1996), there are now more than 1,000,000 Vietnamese in the United States. Of this number, approximately 13,000 reside in Michigan, with 8,000 living in the Grand Rapids area.

Vietnamese immigration to the United States is recent. Prior to 1975, there were very few Vietnamese living in the United States. To most Vietnamese the United States was a distant and unknown country. They were deeply attached to their native soil and did not want to settle overseas. Those adventurous enough to seek a new life abroad were often not permitted to emigrate. It was also very difficult to obtain an immigrant visa to this country.

In April 1975, when South Vietnam was about to fall to North Vietnam, hundreds of thousands of Vietnamese fled the country. About 150,000 Vietnamese were evacuated by the American armed forces and brought to the United States. This was the first wave of Vietnamese immigration to this country. These refugees consisted mainly of remnants of the Vietnamese armed forces; high-ranking Saigon government officials; United States government employees; and professionals such as physicians, attorneys, engineers, and teachers. As they belonged to the upper and middle classes, the children of the first wave of Vietnamese immigrants generally had good educational backgrounds. Their formal education in Vietnam put great emphasis on academic subjects and, at the high school level, on foreign language instruction, usually English and French.

Since the communist takeover of South Vietnam, the harsh policies of the new

regime have forced hundreds of thousands of Vietnamese to flee the country. Many took to sea in small boats, wandering at the mercy of the elements, starvation, thirst, and pirates. Some 40% of the "boat people" perished at sea. Those who survived experienced much hardship, frustration, and humiliation before they were given temporary asylum in such countries as Thailand, Malaysia, or Indonesia. A substantial number of boat people were fortunate enough to enter the United States in a second wave of Vietnamese immigration in 1982.

During the period of mid-1978 to the end of 1979, when the government expelled Chinese-ethnic people from Vietnam, Vietnamese immigration consisted mostly of civilians and Vietnamese of Chinese descent who were biligual in Vietnamese and Cantonese. Since 1980, most immigrants have been Vietnamese speakers coming not only from South Vietnam but also from North Vietnam.

Many second-wave refugees belonged to the lower socioeconomic class. In general, Vietnamese children of the second wave of immigrants had little or no education and lack basic skills. Those who had some education had been without adequate schooling since April, 1975. Most these students were non-English proficient; many were illiterate in their own language. In addition, some Vietnamese refugees were physicians and their families who had escaped Vietnam to ensure their children could have a better future. Many of these children were intelligent, but due to their refugee status, they were interred in refugee camps in Thailand, the Phillippines, Malaysia, or Hong Kong for at least one year (Tri-Nham, 1997).

Since 1988 a third wage of Vietnamese immigration has occurred. Nearly 25,000 Vietnamese Amerasians and their accompanying family members have entered the

United States under the American Homecoming Act (Gilzow & Ranard, 1990). Another 15,000 Vietnamese Amerasians were expected to come to the United States and be resettled in over 80 "Amerasian cluster sites" in various sections of the country.

Refugee service providers and educational researchers have expressed concern that this group of immigrants would be at risk in United States schools and society because of their backgrounds. They appear to be having more difficulty in adjusting to life in the United States than their Vietnamese peers. "Because many Amerasians have little previous education and because they were discriminated against and lacked a basic family in Vietnam, they are having a tougher time here" (Ngo, 1990).

The most current wave of Vietnamese refugees, who are entering the United States, consists of Vietnamese who have been in prison for three or more years. Many of these immigrants were in prison for 10 years. The sponsoring group for this wave of refugees is being sponsored by the Humanitarian Organization (HO). Many of the children of these refugees had dropped out of college in Vietnam. When they entered school in the United States, they had the necessary intelligence to be successful, but had substantial language barriers that hindered their achievement (Schiper, 1996).

Vietnamese parents value education. They see it as a means to prepare for life and to train a child to become a complete person, a person of knowledge and manners. They regard illiteracy as shameful. When parents talk to each other about their children, the most common topic is education: what grade levels they are in and how well they perform academically. Vietnamese esteem intellectuals. Parents, especially the educated, would like their children to become intellectual professionals. They believe that better education and higher university degrees mean better opportunities for social advancement

and employment.

Education, as conceived by Vietnamese parents, means more than the acquisition of mere academic knowledge. It should also provide moral guidance. The students is supposed to be taught social propriety for proper behavior at home, school, and in the community. The child is expected to show respect for, and rational obedience to, parents, teachers, and elderly persons; to behave reasonably *vis-a-vis* siblings and peers; and to behave acceptably in the community. Vietnamese parents expect an all-around education for their children. Their deepest aspirations have always been to see their offspring grow up to be well-educated and of high moral standards. A good education and an elevated sense of ethics rank above all other social values and considerations.

One of the most pervasive problems facing the Vietnamese community and presenting it with an almost insurmountable stumbling block is its own attitude toward education and the valuing of it. Out of a population of between eleven and twelve thousand Vietnamese in the Michigan area in 1990, the Vietnamese community produced a grand total of 52 high school graduates. Out of this total, 15 received honors and/or scholarships. These honor students were children of college educated parents.(Nguyen, 1990).

The 15 graduating high school's honor students came from an assortment of suburban schools, parochial and public schools. The disappointing statistics came from the inner city schools. Although there are 250 to 350 students in their secondary bilingual programs, most of these students drop out at age of 17 (Michigan Report, 1990). Strategies must be developed to help these students become acculturated and learn to succeed academically in their schools.

Educational and Pedagogical Implications

One of the major concerns of the Vietnamese Language program is that of the self-esteem of the students. The self-concept constructs take positions of prime importance in this model. Only half of the Vietnamese students feel secure and accepted by teachers and peers. Many feel "different": because of language barriers and cultural differences, (Barnes, 1982). The bilingual program in the various districts are credited with enhancing the students' abilities to cope and with increasing their sense of worthiness. The positive effects that bilingual programs have for the Vietnamese students is augmented and complemented by the Vietnamese Language Model. The benefits from the use of this model in turn can affect the level of motivation and hence achievement, (Carrol, 1963).

Determinants of Academic Achievement for Language Minority Students

The differential educational attainment of language minority students has been a high interest area among educators across the country. This was due to the fact that this population comprised a sizable segment of the total student population in the United States and it has been continuously growing. Also, because of the persistent low-achievement levels registered on a large scale of students from all backgrounds.

Studies in this field provided a variety of explanations for this phenomenon: Anderson and Johnson (1988) determined that low-achievement is associated with low socio-economic status (SES), low self-confidence and the use of Vietnamese. Also, in a study Nguyen and Johnson (1995) identified self-concept, sex, father's education, degree of use of English in the family, religion, and parental emphasis on education as

significant variable in achievement in English.

Strong (1984) attempted to find out about the relationship between integrative motivation (the main determinant of the degree of assimilation) and acquired English proficiency. The results of this research indicated no positive association between both variables. However, another comparison of beginners and advanced level English speakers found that the advanced children showed significantly more integrative motivation with the speakers of English than the beginners; it was concluded that second language acquisition preceded the integrative attitudes. Among language minority children, according to a National survey (1982), there has been a differential of achievement between males and females of other language backgrounds in favor of females.

In one of his many works in this field, Jim Cummins (1982) concluded that economic and social factors play a major role in determining the individual's level of bilingual proficiency and the educational achievement of minority language children. He suggested that the groups that performed poorly in school were those discriminated against economically and educationally and, as a consequence, were insecure about their own language and culture yet ambivalent toward the dominant language and culture of the society.

Cummins associated the patterns of parent-child interaction and parental aspirations for their children with the level of achievement in school. These patterns of interactions, when developed under poor socio-cultural conditions would not be favorable to either, the full development of first and second language proficiency, or to the individual's educational and literacy development. There has been a considerable

evidence that, in these situations, children's educational performance improved significantly when their first language is used as the medium of instruction in school.

Cohen (1978) attributed the low achievement of Mexican American students in the Redwood City Schools to the kinds of schools, the out-of-school environment, level of assimilation, low socioeconomic level, low self-confidence, poor educational progress, low education of the father, and lack of parental emphasis on education.

Dequadri (1978) decided that language minority students, under structured learning conditions, learned in the same manner as their mainstream counterpart. The results of his study identified six different variables as related to academic achievement:

1. Climate created for achievement motivation by parents,
2. Opportunities provided for verbal development,
3. Nature and amount of assistance provided in overcoming academic difficulties,
4. Activity of significant individuals in environment,
5. Level of intellectuality in environment,
6. Work habits expected of the individual.

Lee (1986), observed a significant relationship between achievement levels of Chinese-American and four student background characteristics. These characteristics included socioeconomic status, point of origin, number of years in program, and grade level. The findings of Jencks (1972) attributed the variation in educational attainment of the native children to family background (income, parents' educational attainment, parents' occupation, etc.). Jencks indicated that these factors explained 70% of the variation in academic achievement. Researchers have, directly or indirectly, identified

factors such as literacy ability, socioeconomic status, sex, degree of assimilation (number of years in the United States of America), and level of parents education, as related to academic and school achievement.

Native Language Literacy and Intelligence in Bilingual

Current educational research underscored the role teachers in helping literacy growth rather than the accumulation of information. Language development has been considered as one of the important factors in facilitating intellectual development. C. S. Lavatelli (1970) defined language as a "symptom of underlying thought". Lavatelli cites the view of Piaget in the statement: "the language of the child , his expression of ideas, becomes clearer, only as ideas become more logical." This indicated the absence of causal influence of language on literacy. While many researchers continued to adhere to this philosophy, it is clear that they do not ignore the role language plays in facilitating or amplifying intellectual growth. This is due to the fact that "child's intellect grows through interaction with things and people in his environment" (Slobin, 1971).

In an attempt to describe the relationship between bilingualism and literacy, Jim Cummins (1979) attributed literacy advantages to children who achieve "balanced proficiency" in two languages over monolingual children. He attributed literacy disadvantages, in comparison to monolinguals, to children who do not achieve balanced proficiency, but who are immersed in a bilingual environment. In conclusion, there are minimal levels of linguistic proficiency in both languages that bilingual children need in order to "avoid literacy deficits in their literacy growth" Cummins, 1979).

Elizabeth Peal and Wallace Lambert conducted an experiment where monolingual

bilingual 10-year-old French children from six Montreal schools in Canada were tested for verbal and non-verbal intelligence. The bilinguals performed significantly better than the monolinguals on both the verbal and non-verbal intelligence tests. Peal and Lambert explained the superiority of the bilinguals as follows:

People who learn to use languages have two symbols for every object. From an early age, bilingual may be forced to conceptualize environmental events in terms of their general properties without reliance on their linguistic symbols (Peal & Lambert, 1982).

Kenji Hakuta (1986) in his article "Literacy Development in Bilingual Children" reported that researchers no longer adhere to the concept the idea that bilingualism can result in literacy damage to children. This theory continues to linger in popular belief, because it was based on the assumption that language was central to literacy development. Another theoretical issue that is being debated is whether the mind has limitations in language attainment or if it can accommodate two languages with ease. Social concerns resulting from poor acculturation also influenced bilingualism research. Data suggested that language minority students in bilingual education programs, who were in the process of learning English, could benefit from some of the advantages of bilingualism. These studies contradicted the argument that bilingualism could cause literacy confusion in the child and supported the idea that bilingualism could lead to higher levels of metalinguistic awareness and literacy ability.

Native Language Literacy and Achievement in Second Language

Most of the recent research in this area have been supportive of the claim that bilingualism has positive effects on the student's academic achievement. Jim Cummins

(1982), reviewed the likely contradictory findings regarding the effects of bilingualism on literacy and academic functioning and argued for the hypothesis that bilingualism may have positive influence on literate and academic development if a threshold level of L1 proficiency is attained, but there may be negative effects if the individual develops low levels of proficiency in both languages. This is known as the "threshold hypothesis" which proposes that the levels of proficiency that bilingual children attain in their two languages may be important intervening variables in mediating the effects of bilingualism on literacy and academic functioning. Crawford (1989) cited President Johnson's signing of the Bilingual Education Act in January 1968 as the moment when the US government committed itself to addressing the special needs of minority students who had limited English language skills. This was a landmark legislation, as it marked the first time in the nation's history that we finally addressed the education needs of new citizens.

Advocates and promulgators of the policy themselves defending it on several fronts: clarifying its goal (which included but was not limited to English proficiency); communicating the complexities of researching the acquisition of second languages; refuting charges of promoting American cultural disintegration by perpetuating multi-lingualism; and countering attacks on their own motives. (Crawford, 1989).

In government there are still many detractors of bilingual education. A recurring charge is it encourages immigrants to rely on their native tongues, rather than learning English. Yet it remains obvious to the most illiterate immigrants that the sooner they can function in English, the sooner they can begin to climb up the social ladder. Legislators tend to ignore other realities of the situation, *e.g.*, that until newcomers can function in English, their progress in all other disciplines must halt.

Grand Rapids has made great strides in overcoming some of these obstacles. Programs already in place there help immigrants to learn English as fast and completely as possible, so that they can join the mainstream of learners in regular classes (*Grand Rapids Press*, May, 1995). Grand Rapids is apparently the only public school system in the country with a bilingual English/Vietnamese program as part of the regular curriculum. Bilingual machinery – for Spanish and English – was already in place when the refugees arrived. The task was to adapt the program to their needs.

The Detroit Free Press of June 7, 1976, quoted that the then Director of Bilingual Education for Grand Rapids, Dr. Rodolfo Martinez, as saying: "The idea is to teach children the content courses in their dominant language at the same time they are learning English. We don't want to hold them back until they learn English to study the content courses." The Reverend Schipper, in keeping with the Freedom Flight Task Force objective of complete assimilation into the American stream of life without Vietnamese deculturation, added: "It hasn't been our intention to make Americans out of these Vietnamese, but rather to develop their own sense of their ethnic origins. We don't want to erase their Vietnamese culture, but rather maintain and encourage it."(Barnes, 1976).

Palmer Elementary, one of five public schools in Grand Rapids that successfully vied for refugee students, had 45 Vietnamese enrolled in March, 1976. The School has a Vietnamese Resource Room where they all repair for one period each day under the American and Vietnamese teachers and teachers' aides. The students take English lessons three days a week. Several American students at the school study Vietnamese after hours "so they can understand what their classmates are saying to each other."(Barnes, 1977).

San Diego State University's Institute for Cultural Pluralism is fortunate in having

Dr. Do Ba Khe, a former Deputy Education Minister in Vietnam, as the Project Officer for its Bilingual/Bicultural Resource Center. The center, one of five in country funded under the 1975 Indochinese Migration and Refugee Assistance Act, has held over 30 workshops and seminars to explain to some 1500 teachers in a several state area how to cope with Indochinese students. Dr. Khe has informed many audiences that Vietnamese students hesitate to speak up in class either because they are afraid to lose face if they are wrong, or because they don't want to appear as showoffs if they know the answers. He also mentions that they are unaccustomed to picking out their own courses, but are attuned to learning by rote: listening, memorizing, and repeating.

Differences in the achievement of some minority-language students, especially Vietnamese-speaking ones, have been of great interest to educators across the country. Because the arrival of the Vietnamese is more recent and lends itself readily to observation and measurement. Educators are also interested because of the persistently low achievement levels registered by immigrant students from all backgrounds. Many Amerasians did not have an opportunity to go to school in Vietnam. They are illiterate in Vietnamese.

Because of the ever-growing population of Vietnamese students in this country, and because of their persistently low achievement level, educators have written much about academic achievement. They offer a variety of explanation for this phenomenon. In a 1995 religious study of the family, Archbishop Phanxico Xavier identified the following major determinants of academic achievement: self esteem, gender, father's education, father's responsibilities, degree to which English has become the language of the home, religious background, and parents' emphasis on education. (Vietnamese

Religious Magazine, August, 1995).

From the time they begin acquiring language in their native tongue, children begin constructing-- not learning-- literacy understandings (Ferreiro, 1990). To design instruction intended to enhance children's literacy development, the following principles are important:

- literacy in a second language develops as in the first-globally, not linearly, and in a variety of rich context (Rigg & Allen, 1989);
- second-language learning takes place best in risk-free environments where student' experiences and contributions are validated (Law & Eckes, 1990);
- language is best learned when it is "whole"- that is, when it is used for real and meaningful purposes (Edelsky, Altwerger, & Flores,1990); and
- reading and writing are literacy processes through which children construct meaning, using prior knowledge and a variety of strategies that promote and regulate comprehension (Peregoy & Boyle, 1993).

As far as literacy learning for ESL students is concerned, self-esteem must be understood as a matter of access- that is, as the right to full participation in and ownership of literacy events. The time it takes to develop English language proficiency may vary from student to student (Collier, 1987; Cummins, 1981, but the right to access cannot be denied or delayed until proficiency is achieved.

All students, including second-language learners, come to school with a great deal of experience with oral and written language communication. Throughout their lives, students build and use literacy as they strive to understand and function successfully in their world. This has been documented by various ethnographic and qualitative studies of young children's awareness and use of environmental print and their involvement in meaningful and functional literacy events in the home and community (Heath, 1983). It is important for teachers to discern the literacy knowledge students

have in both English and their primary language and to find ways to draw on, and validate this knowledge in their classroom.

The language and literacy knowledge that language learners construct is influenced by the home and community culture and by varying degrees of contact with the larger society. The communication competencies students bring to school reflect culturally based rules and expectations for language use may differ from those of the teacher or school culture (Heath, 1983).

Self-esteem and language are nurtured with encouragement and support from those who play a significant role in the students' life (Clark, 1984). Cambourne, (1988) asserts that language is learned most successful when the learner is immersed in an environment in which other language users continually demonstrate the form and use of the language during meaningful communication rather "model" that language for learners to imitate and repeat.

Language develops through authentic language use, not language exercise. Edelky (1986) Altwerger and Nguyen (1996) have drawn a distinction between language exercises and authentic language. Unlike language exercises, authentic language is used for real, meaningful purposes and is predictable and relevant to the language context. Children learning their first language are immersed in authentic language from birth as those around them carry out the various social tasks of everyday life. Success in language learning should rest not upon performance on contrived and artificial language exercises, but on the ability to communicate in natural language settings (Urbschat, 1994).

Success was difficult for second-language learners to achieve because of an

inherent deficiency in their first language and culture (Diaz, 1992, p. 371). Literacy develops through practice, in which acts of reading and writing occur simultaneously with acts of social criticism. Literacy also involves praxis, or action based on reflection (McLaren, 1989). According to Freire (in Berthoft, 1987), teachers cannot treat the teaching of literacy as a neutral act. If teachers show respect for students' own language and culture and but do not direct their political thinking, they are in effect supporting the dominant power structure.

Success in a second language in academic settings depends greatly on the language base and literacy skill acquired in the first language (Cummins, 1989; Thonis, 1981). Programs that enable students to acquire initial literacy in their primary language or to expand on literacy development already begun in the home country are often most effective.

Language use for human beings is a natural process integral to our physiological, affective, and literacy well-being. Language is part of our humanness, and develops naturally in situations that are meaningful (Cummins, 1985); Krashen, 1985). All children come to school with a wealth of experience in a language (Thonis, 1989).

Cummins saw a relationship between patterns of parent-child interaction, parents' aspiration for children, and the later' achievement in school. He concluded that when these patterns developed under socially adverse conditions, the results would be unfavorable both to second-language proficiency and to students' overall literacy development. Through his investigation, it became evident that children's performance in school was significantly better when their first language was the medium of instruction than when it was not. Figure 1 presents factors associated with second language

acquisition between older and younger nonEnglish-speaking immigrants.

Figure 1

Age Differences in Second Language Acquisition

1. Older acquirers are faster in the early stages of second language acquisition because:
 - a. They are better at obtaining comprehensive input (conversational management).
 - b. They have superior knowledge of the world, which helps to make input comprehensive .
 - c. They can participate in conversation earlier, via use of the first language syntax.
2. Younger acquirers tend to attain higher levels of proficiency in second language than adults in the long run due to a lower affective filter.

Some immigrants are adjusting to American life with even greater difficulty than the Vietnamese. They are Amerasians. It was B.V. NGO's opinion (San Jose, CA. 1990) that many Amerasians find adjustment so hard ; because they had no previous education; because they were *personae non grata* in their the lands of their birth, and because they were deprived of the basic family unit. To teach Vietnamese children to know God, first we should teach them how to read and how to write; because we still have many mountain people who are illiterate (Interview with Cardinal Tung, March, 1995).

Foundation to every culture is its language. But languages differ from each other in ways that are far from uniform. Languages are systems of abstract symbols: the words, idiom, and inflection that convey what a culture has decided, over time, is most important to convey. It includes speech, characters, numeral, and even gestures (Schaefer, 1986). How one acquires knowledge is influenced in great part by language. Research data suggest that the extent to which minority-language students' tongue and culture are incorporated into their curricula constitutes a significant predictor of academic success (Campos and Keating , 1984; Cummins, 1983). Language does more than simply

describe empirical reality; it also shapes a culture's perception of what reality is (Whorf, 1986).

The issue of identity and learning is important in developing literacy. Ferdman (1990) stated:

Teachers can discover ways of encouraging students to explore the implications of their ethnicities and to engage in self-definition. Explicitly and positively linking classroom activities to the students' cultural identity can also be a way of motivating students . . . (p.210)

In order to understand each other, teachers and class need to learn each others' languages; learn about children's backgrounds. Unlike children from average homes, those from poor homes may also suffer from lack of mental stimuli. No one at home may be expecting them to do better than their parent (s); Parents are responsible for their children's literacy: parents read well, their kids will read well too (Allington, 1995).

Cummins maintained (1986) that students whose minds their schooling set free to soar could develop the ability, confidence, and motivation to succeed academically; and that using L1 to transfer some of that knowledge reinforced use of L2 to transmit the rest. Most Vietnamese students are honored kids in Ann Arbor School District. These students were doing well in Vietnam (Dr.Nguyen, 1996).

Another theoretical issue is whether the human brain has limited capacity or can accommodate the cells required for two-language capacity with comparative ease. That there is direct relationship between L1 proficiency and L2 achievement cannot be denied. Research supports the contention that bilingualism has a positive effects on students' academic achievement. Cummins reviewed (1982) contradictory findings about the effects of bilingualism on academic achievements. He argued for the hypothesis that

bilingualism may exert positive influences on academic development, if a preliminary threshold of L1 proficiency be attained.

According to Gaarder (1994) there are many signs that L2 skills have a better chance of developing themselves in people who are given full opportunity to develop their L1 heritage. Gaarder explained many of the negative influences of induced bilingualism by stating that they "do not deal all with bilingual education. Rather [they] show the unfortunate results [that occur] when the child's mother tongue is ignored, deplored, or otherwise degraded."

In a study of elementary level, Spanish-speaking students, Goldman focused (1993) on the transferability of academic skills from first to second languages. She found that bilingual children transfer both oral and reading comprehension strategies in L1 that are similar tasks to their tasks in L2. In other words, both oral and reading skills in L1 can be considered to be among the predictors of success in L1 reading.

The finding that the L1 makes such an important contribution to L2 reading argues for the maintenance and development of the L1 for L2 learning in K-12 ESL and bilingual education programs. These findings corroborate the findings of Verhoeven (1991), Lambert (1991), and Ramirez, Yuen, and Ramey (1991) (cite in Cummins, 1991), who argue for two way enrichment in bilingual education. Encouraging minority students to develop their L1 ability would further the process of transfer to the L2 and allow learners to obtain the personal and academic benefits associated with additive bilingualism (Cummins, 1991).

Important strategies are important to help promote success of language minority students at six schools (Lucas, Henze, & Donata, 1990). Eight of these strategies include:

1. Value is placed on the students' languages and cultures.
2. High expectations of language minority students are made concrete.
3. School leaders make the education of language minority students a priority.
4. Staff development is explicitly designed to help teachers and staff serve language minority students more effectively.
5. A variety of courses and programs for language minority students are offered.
6. A counseling program gives special attention to language minority students.
7. Parents of language minority students are encouraged to become involved in their children's education.
8. School staff members share a strong commitment to empower language minority students. (Lucas, Henze, & Donata, 1990, 324-325).

Researchers have been trying to demonstrate that true bilingualism is an asset to educational success, and it predicates real literacy progress. But it becomes a detriment to education when children exhibit their measurable limits in using either of their two languages (Skutnabb-Kangas and Toukomaa, 1989). Alternating lessons in L1 with teaching English as L2 is the only route to real, effective, American bilingualism and therefore the bilingual student's only chance for true academic success in the USA.

Skunabb-Kangas (1987) told educators:

Semi-lingualism is then, according to my view, produced in a situation where many different factors coincide; minority children from working-class homes are forced to accept instruction in the foreign, majority, middle-class language [schools, where also] their own language has low prestige, both in . . . society and in the school. It has been suggested that the way to prevent this situation is to offer more instruction in the children's mother tongue.

Christian reported (1992) that integrating L1 and L2 studies produce excellent results. Learning to read Vietnamese at an early age has given many children a solid

foundation for reading American English. Indeed, preschool L1 literacy may prove the ideal solution to such social, psychological, and educational problems as confront the child who hears and speaks it at home. Once reading abilities have been developed, any language can be maintained with little or no continuing contact among them who speak it. Researchers have often perceived that learning to read L1 is a very effective means of achieving success in L2 proficiency. In this regard, Thonis (1990) inferred that students can read and speak in their own language and then learn to read and speak English.

Coady described (1991) a secondary school setting, where he compared the reading performance of 9th graders in L2 and ESL programs measured by scores on Metropolitan Achievement Tests (MAT): vocabulary, decoding, and comprehension skills. Results indicated that L1 English speakers who had learned to read Vietnamese performed better than did their L1 peers who had not. Thonis built the case (1989) for native language reading instruction, based on Cummins's theory that literacy academic language potential is strongly related to reading and writing skills. She stated that competence in L1 is key to a student's ability to master L2+.

Once minority-language students have learned to read well and understood the strategies for obtaining meaning from print in L1, these skills will provide a solid foundation for literacy in L2. It is reasonable to believe that students who talk well, read easily, and think effectively in L1 have already developed an ability to think abstractly--and will do the same in L2.

A point central to the concept of teaching languages is that of transferring skills between tongues. Cummins spoke (1981) of a common, underlying syntax that is common to all human grammar. But learn this once, and it can be used as a short-cut to

mastering any. According to Cummins, studies demonstrated a high rate of transferability between languages that shared corresponding orthographies, *e.g.*, English and French.

Another study indicated easy transference of reading skills between languages that shared alphabets (Arnold, 1989). Save for diacritical marks, the modern Vietnamese Alphabet (which, derived from French, uses Roman characters) and the traditional English alphabet are almost the same (Lopez, 1992). Such writing systems require identical sensory and motor skills, likewise a common culture orientation (*e.g.*, the eye move from left to right, along a horizontal line, and from top to bottom). Once Vietnamese-speaking students have applied these skills to their own language, transferring them to English should present no problems.

The transferability of conceptual knowledge from a child's primary language (L1) to L2 is the basis of the theoretical assumption of bilingual education. The use of a non-English home language as an instructional program has benefits not only for minority-language groups but for society as a whole. Studies by Ramirez and Politzer (1986) found that promoting native languages among children had no negative effect upon L2 achievement.

According to Nguyen (1995), reading comprehension resulted from three factors:

- conceptual abilities;
- background knowledge; and
- process strategies.

Readiness to learn reading in any language – and particularly in Vietnamese – involved various aspects of learner development: physical growth, mental maturity, emotional

stability, and social adjustment (Nguyen, 1995). Students who developed skills in Vietnamese literacy (L1) were prepared to transfer them to reading in L2. Goodman (1991) believed that learning to read in L2 should be easier for someone who was already literate in L1, regardless of how dissimilar two language might be.

Research did not deny the role which interference plays in the language learning equation, but it did emphasize many similarities which L2 learners exhibit versus the language transfer point of view. Hakuta (1989) addressed this issue and theorized that, first, a student had to learn to read and write one language; then he could use these same skills to learn a second. High school counselors believed that Vietnamese students who obtained passing scores on math section of the California Achievement Tests (CAT) had learned mathematical terminologies in their native Vietnamese language (Testing, California, 1993).

These findings have been supported by reports on bilingual education in the United States and other countries. Numerous programs for teaching the Vietnamese to speak English have proven effective. Owens (1992) enumerated several such programs, (e. g., Texas and San Jose, CA). Other programs, such as the Rock Point Navajo Study (Rosier & Farella, 1986) and the Legarreta Study (1989), produced impressive results.

When schools reinforce a minority-language child's cultural identity, they promote development of communication proficiency that the student brings to school. They made English-language instruction comprehensible only to those students who embed it within the meaningful context of their own experiences. Then minority-language students are in a position to strive freely for academic success (Cummins, 1981). Children, who sense that their parents take pride in a worthwhile language and culture

and know their teachers show appreciation of both, should have the kind of positive self-images that make for success in school.

According to recent research, (Genesse, Tucker, & Lambert, 1989) children who developed proficiency in two languages are better able than their monolingual fellows to analyze linguistic meanings and develop interpersonal communication awareness.

In the study, "Linguistic Interdependence: Vietnamese Immigrant Students in Washington, DC," Cummins (1982) concluded that Vietnamese parents were most anxious to see school districts provide their children with bilingual education programs that met unique needs, while at the same time helping said children to enter the mainstream of American society.

L1 instruction has been vigorously supported by both theory and research, that is why it is now so important to focus on the significance of both student achievement and pedagogical discovery (Sanch, 1990). Further, Vietnamese speaking, bilingual students seem to be more active seekers and users than ever of all information resources. The number of variables that students believed were influencing their lives grew on a daily and exponential basis.

Conscientious review of the literature suggests agreement among educators, researchers, and linguists on these points:

1. Proficiency in any tongue depends on the Four Skills of Language: Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing. In order for Reading and Writing to develop effectively, adequate foundations in Listening and Speaking must first be developed.
2. L1 skills developed in the elementary years become an asset to the student, helping him to learn L2 skills.
3. If ignored degraded, L1 becomes a liability to the child living in a bilingual

environment. In such climates, the phenomenon of "subtractive bilingualism" should be discouraged and that of "semi-bilingualism" encouraged.

4. Family social position and economic status continue to play important roles as predictors of general scholastic achievement and particular success with L2. In Vietnam, parents raised children and paid for their schooling (Kibria, 1993)
5. Parents' education will influence the student's ESL reading competence.
6. Without development – because it is a subject taboo in public education circles – religious background is definitely a determinant of academic achievement.

Program Models: What Works for Language Minority Students?

Two program models, described in this section, place a significant value on the use of the primary language in the schooling of language minority students. The first model is known as the "Case Studies Project." It was developed by consultants at the California State Department of Education in 1980 and has been implemented. The second model to be described is a relatively new innovation both in California and around the country. "Bilingual" or "Two-way" immersion education combines the most significant features of bilingual education for language minority students and of immersion education for language majority students. In this model, English-speaking and LEP students are grouped for purposes of instruction.

Case Studies Model

The Case Studies Curriculum was developed on the theory that academic success demands higher-order linguistic and cognitive skills which, once developed, will transfer from the primary language to English. Five basic principles form the backbone of this model:

1. For bilingual students, the development of proficiencies in both the native language and English has a positive effect on academic achievement.

2. Language proficiency is the ability to use language for both basic communicative tasks and academic purposes.
3. For limited English proficient students, reaching the threshold of native language skills necessary to complete academic tasks forms the basis for similar proficiency in English.
4. Acquisition of basic communicative competency in a second language is a function of comprehensible second language instruction and a supportive environment.
5. The perceived status of students affects the interaction between teachers and students and among students themselves. In turn, student outcomes are affected. (Crawford, 1989, p. 12)

Figure 2 presents the implementation skills as detailed by Snyder (1977).

Figure 2
Implementation Skills

Skills	Methods
Development	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Determine needs and interests of students 2. Obtain program resources and materials 3. Review and select materials 4. Understand principles of growth and development in the affective domain 5. Write units, lesson plans and programs
Processing	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Employ oral questioning techniques 2. Employ reinforcement techniques 3. Employ lecture techniques 4. Demonstrate a skill, concept, or principle 5. Conduct group discussions 6. Direct students instructing and grading other students 7. Employ techniques of role playing and simulation 8. Conduct evaluation, observations, and tests 9. Direct problem solving and decision making 10. Employ motivation and stimulation of learning 11. Employ summarizing and relating 12. Direct goal setting and achievement strategies
Using Self	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Demonstrate respect 2. Demonstrate trust 3. Demonstrate openness 4. Demonstrate communication 5. Demonstrate unconditional positive regard 6. Demonstrate love 7. Model awareness 8. Model self-esteem 9. Demonstrate creativity

The focus of this study encompassed the use of affective teaching techniques in the bilingual classroom. Research has shown that teachers need to know each student as an individual to promote their skill development. Tierce (1979) developed many strategies for humanizing literacies. His applications were functional and usable on a practical level. Students were told relevant anecdotes about famous writers to help them understand that literature is discovery and achievement by real human beings. Another affective method of teaching literacy is to encourage students to share and learn from others' insights. A classroom atmosphere that encourages students to take a stab at a problem or ask a question without feeling "dumb" is another important affective

classroom strategy. Tierce's (1979) explorations have generated additional strategies and techniques. He has taken affective strategies beyond comprehension and communication to making them sufficiently concrete by developing reproducible strategies for use in classrooms.

A review of previous studies has provided a compilation of affective competencies that have been shown to be important to the implementation and understanding of affective teaching and learning. These competencies listed in Figure 3 of "Generic Affective Competency Statements" can serve as a guide for teachers and focuses on the research on affective teaching in the literacy classroom.

Figure 3

Generic Affective Competency Statements

I. Creating Affective Climate.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Use "accepting" rather than "rejecting" language 2. Focus on feeling and reflect them accurately 3. Plan for success by gearing expectations and activities to each student's level of achievement 4. Make use of students' interests to enhance the meaningfulness of activities 5. Involve students in creating limits and learning activities 6. Give clear, simple instructions, one at a time 7. Initiate contact with resistive students 8. Recognize and acknowledge student effects 9. Give a student corrections without criticism
II Managing Conflicts, Crises and the Classroom	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Accepting and recognizing feelings accurately 2. Leave responsibility for resolution with the student 3. Communicate confidence in the student's ability to learn and grow 4. Invite, but do not force communication with a student 5. Maintain a goal-oriented, problem solving approach to conflict 6. View conflict as an opportunity for student growth 7. Use "I messages" to convey feelings 8. Control personal impulses in order to choose a response which will de-escalate the conflict 9. Disengage from arguments to avoid power struggles 10. Recognize areas of least effectiveness regarding the management of student conflict 11. Model effective alternatives for students to cope with conflict 12. Admit mistakes to students 13. Convey calm confidence during conflict and do not blame 14. Establish contact with a student after conflict with them
II <u>Using Positive Classroom Management Practice</u>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Structure the environment and activities to facilitate group learning 2. Use questions rather than statements to remind students of limits 3. Depersonalize rules 4. Be enthusiastic regarding activities 5. Offer a narratives rather than commands

Summary of the Review of Literature

The number of variables that influence immigrant students' English language ability and language acquisition. The relationship between second language acquisition may be related to literacy level of the first language. This relationship was the primary purpose of this investigation.

A conscientious examination of this review of literature revealed a general agreement among educational researchers and linguists on the following points:

True proficiency in any language consists of an adequate mastery of the four skills of the language:

- Listening,
- Speaking,
- Reading, and
- Writing.

For reading and writing to be effective, an adequate foundation in Listening and Speaking must be developed.

The native language, if supported and developed at an early age and in the elementary years, can become an asset to help students learn the skills necessary to master a second language. If the primary language is ignored and/or degraded, the native language of the child living in a bilingual environment becomes a liability; it is in such a climate that the phenomenon of "subtractive bilingualism" and "semilingualism" could be cultivated.

The socioeconomic status continues to play an important role as a predictor of school achievement in general and of success in second language. The level of parental education has been described as a determinant of the intellectual standing of the family; therefore, and can serve as a predictor of achievement in ESL reading.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This investigation focused on comparisons among ninth and tenth grade Vietnamese refugee students who differed in terms of a natural characteristic – their literacy in the Vietnamese language. Since literacy is an attribute or characteristic that occurs naturally, it could be studied by systematic observation rather than experiments. In an experiment, however, the independent variable is manipulated by the researcher. Systematic observations were made on literacy to compare two independent groups, Vietnamese students who were literate and those who were illiterate. The data collected were analyzed using appropriate inferential statistical procedures (Walker, 1985).

The research design selected for this investigation was causal-comparative in nature. The decision to use this type of research design resulted from the independent variable, ninth and tenth grade Vietnamese students' literacy. The purpose of causal-comparative research is to investigate whether one or more pre-existing conditions, characteristics or attributes, possibly have caused subsequent behavior differences between a group of subjects. In causal-comparative research, the independent variable is not manipulated as the cause has already occurred prior to initiation of the study. The researcher examines conditions that exist and then collects data to investigate the relationship of these varying conditions to subsequent behavior (Borg & Gall, 1983; Campbell & Stanley, 1963; McMillan & Schumaker, 1984).

Causal comparative research designs are sometimes confused with experimental and quasi-experimental research designs, because these types of research designs have

common characteristics:

- a similar purpose – determine cause-effect relationships;
- group comparisons; and
- use of similar statistical analyses and vocabulary in describing the results.

In experimental and quasi-experimental studies, however, there is deliberate control of the effect of some condition by manipulation of the independent variable, while in causal comparison research, there is no manipulation of conditions because the causes have already occurred before the study is initiated (McMillan & Schumacher, 1984).

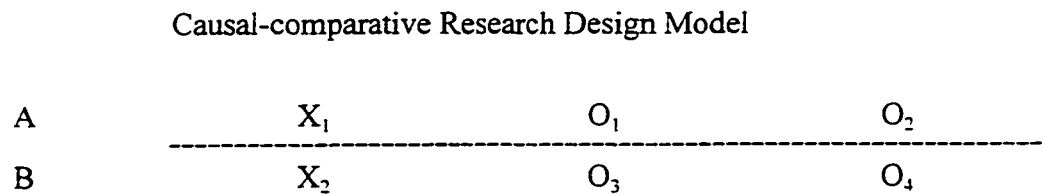
Causal comparative research designs maybe also mistaken with correlational research, as neither involve manipulation of the independent variables and similar limitations are placed on interpretation of the findings. Causal comparative research designs, is intended to identify causal relationships, while correlational research measures the extent to which the variables are related. Causal comparative research designs generally involve comparisons of two or more groups, while correlational studies involve one group with two or more observations on each member of the group (McMillan & Schumacher, 1984).

When interpreting results of causal comparative research, the cause-and-effect statements can only be made carefully. If differences are found between groups, it may not mean that the independent variables had a causative effect on the dependent variables. While cause-and-effect relationships may exist among the independent and dependent variables, their importance depends on the selection of homogeneous groups and by the confidence that other credible rival hypotheses can be ruled out (Borg & Gall, 1983, McMillan & Schumacher, 1984).

The causal-comparative research design used in this study attempted to determine whether differences in literacy between ninth and tenth grade Vietnamese students, the natural independent variable, has resulted in observed behavior differences in the dependent variable, reading comprehension in English.

An illustration of the model for the causal comparative research design used in this investigation is presented in Figure 4. The X indicates group assignment, with the Os being data collection.

Figure 4



Dependent Variables

The following dependent variables were collected for this study:

California Achievement Scores for Reading Comprehension

- Raw Scores

Natural Independent Variable

Cognitive Literacy Style

- Illiterate (Group A)
- Literate (Group B)

Research Questions

These variables were used to address the following research questions:

1. Do the cognitive skills, as measured by standardized tests, differ between Vietnamese students who were categorized as literate and those categorized as illiterate?
2. Do the cognitive skills, as measured by standardized tests, differ between male and female Vietnamese students who were categorized as literate and those categorized as illiterate?
3. Do the cognitive skills, as measured by standardized tests, differ between ninth and tenth grade Vietnamese students who were categorized as literate and those categorized as illiterate?
4. Is the literacy level of Vietnamese students as measured by the Native Language Skills Test (NLST) related to the number of years the student has been in the United States, their ages, their socioeconomic level, and educational levels of their mothers and fathers?

Description of the Population

The population defined for this study were ninth and tenth grade Vietnamese-speaking students who were either Vietnamese refugees in the United States or immigrants with middle to low-middle socioeconomic statuses enrolled in a midwestern urban high school where more than one dialect of English is operational. The population away from school is homogenous and ethnocentric. This pattern is carried over to a large extent at school.

Description of the Sample

Since the primary purpose of this study was to examine the relationship of the development of the first language and school achievement, the focus was aimed at students who exhibited a certain degree of proficiency in that language. A group of 99

ninth and tenth grade Vietnamese refugee students were initially identified for the school year 1995-96. After an examination of the date of enrollment in the Grand Rapids schools, those with less than three years in United States (nine students) were exempted from participation in the study. A group of 90 Vietnamese ninth and tenth grade students met the criteria for inclusion in the population.

Determination of the Dependent Variable

School achievement, as measured by using raw scores from the California Achievement Tests (CAT) for reading. This standardized achievement test provides consistent measures of achievement from one grade to another and was considered the dependent variable in this study. Emphasis was placed on the relationship between this variable and other events that are believed to play a role in the education of LEP students.

Determination of the Independent Variables

Determining the degree of native language proficiency was needed to define the levels of the independent variable. Because a standardized test was not available to measure proficiency in the Vietnamese language for Vietnamese refugee secondary school age students, the researcher had to rely on a teacher-made instrument.

Instruments Used to Collect Data

The California Achievement Test (CAT). The CAT is a standardized test used to assess students' achievement in the various language skills of English including Vocabulary, Reading, Spelling, Language Usage, Total Language, Math Concepts, Math

Problem Solving, and Total Math. The students' scores are reported in raw score, grade equivalent, and percentile rank on each of on these various subtests. For the purpose of this project, test results using raw scores for reading comprehension and math problem-solving subtests were used.

The Native Language Skills Test (NLST). The NLST is a teacher-made test developed with the purpose of identifying the level of proficiency in the Vietnamese language of secondary school age student. The researcher chose a story selection which was then translated into Vietnamese. Then, multiple choice questions about the selected story were given to each student. The student then chose the best answer for the story question. The tests were scored by determining the number of correct responses. The scores were rank ordered and the median score was used to determine group assignment. Students above the median were considered to have higher literacy, while students below the median were in the lower literacy group.

Student Survey Instrument. This instrument was used to collect, data such as the gender, age, grade level, years in the United States, religion, region where student lived in Vietnam (rural or urban areas), family (single or intact), father's education, mother's education, language spoken at home, and family size. This survey was administered with students at the time of testing for Vietnamese literacy; with additional information obtained from the office at the school.

Phone Survey. Using information from the Student Survey Instrument, 66 parents were contacted and educational levels of both father and mothers were obtained. This information was expressed in years of study in the United States and abroad. An 80% success rate was achieved in reaching adults in their homes to obtain the necessary

information.

As a result of applying these methods and tools, information became available for nine variables:

- dependent variables that included CAT reading scores and NLST raw scores
- nine independent variables, including: native language literacy (categorical levels of illiterate or literate, gender, family socioeconomic status, years in United States, father's education, mother's education, family composition, family size, region where student lived in Vietnam (urban or rural).

The Native Language Skill Test (NLST) developed by Tran-Nguyen (1995) provided the measure for literacy. The rationale for using the NLST is its compatibility with contemporary theories of literacy. The California Achievement Test was the measure of reading comprehension in English. The rationale for using the CAT is that if students are successful in their native language, they should obtain good results on the CAT reading comprehension test.

The CAT test was used to determine the students' reading comprehension. Achievement results were based on the reading scores achieved on the California Achievement Test by participating students. Students are tested district-wide each spring.

The CAT continues to be useful to schools that measure the basic skills using an integrated series of achievement tests that are standardized for grades 1 through 12. These tests are rigorously developed and provide a traditional series of norms-referenced achievement tests to measure reading, mathematics, and language skills. The current version of the test that is being considered is "E" and "F". The authors contend that most bias has been eliminated, although some bias still may exist in regards to some minorities

including Blacks and Vietnamese.

Content validity was considered important to developers of the CAT. In the process, curriculum guides were requested from all states, with the listed objectives carefully reviewed by the test developers. A list of 98 category objectives emerged from this analysis was prepared and classified according to grade level. According to the authors of the test, this process provided content validity to the CAT.

Reliability. Internal consistency reliability measures, using the Kuder-Richardson Formula 20 (KR-20) were reported for each sub-test at each grade level. Internal consistency coefficients tend to be in the .90s for all subtests, indicating the tests had good internal consistency. Item analysis performed to obtain homogeneous sub-tests. The reference skills sub-tests have internal consistency coefficients in the .80s. These reliability outcomes are adequate at all levels and for all forms. "The test is as good as any test available for its purpose as a norm-referenced multi-level basic skills test. All major technical issues have been carefully addressed" (Womer, 1978).

Research Subjects

The Native Language Skill Test raw scores of the pool of potential subjects were recorded and matched with the raw scores for reading comprehension of the California Achievement Test from their school records. From this pool of 99 students, 9 potential subjects were absent from their school cumulative files. Consequently, the pool was reduced to 90 potential subjects suitable for the research

The median score on the Native Language Skill Test was obtained from the raw scores of 90 subjects was the criterion used to form two categories of cognitive literacy.

The median score for the NLST was 30.0. Students whose scores were at or below the median of 30 were classified as illiterate and students who were above the median were literate.

Procedure

The Native Language Skill Test (NLST) was administered to participants during May, 1996 at one high school. Vietnamese students, whose parents had provided approval for their children to participate in the study, met in groups of 33 during class periods to complete the NLST. The students were told that participation in the testing was voluntary; with no prejudice placed on students who decided not to complete the test. The students were also informed that the results of the test would not affect their grades in any of their classes.

Prior to administration of the instrument, the examiner explained the test was developed to identify students' literacy levels. The students were tested as a group during regular class sessions, with the investigator acting as the test administrator to all classes.

The NLST was scored the same day that the examinees were administered the test. Each test was hand-scored and rechecked to insure consistency. Raw scores for each examinee were recorded and used in the data analyses.

Two sets of raw scores were obtained for each student: a raw score and classification (literate or illiterate) from the NLST; and a raw score from the California Achievement Reading Comprehension. The NLST was scored by totaling the number of correct items on the test; with classification of scores as either literate or illiterate determined by using the median as the point of deflection. Scores above the median of 30

were considered literate and scores below the median considered illiterate. In addition, the scores on the NLST were used as a continuous variable in some analyses.

The CAT is scored by the publisher for the schools. Each students' scores are then placed in their folders in the school office. The researcher, with permission from the parents, accessed these records and recorded the raw score for each student.

Data Analysis

The data obtained from the student surveys, telephone calls to the parents, the NLST scores, and CAT scores were entered into a computer file for analysis using SPSS-7.5 for Windows. The analysis was divided into two sections. The first section used frequency distributions and measures of central tendency and dispersion to describe the sample and provide a profile of the Vietnamese students in the study. The second section used inferential statistical to answer each of the research questions established for this study. The inferential statistical analyses that will be used in this study includes: t-test for two independent samples to test for differences on the CAT reading test scores between literate and illiterate students, factorial analysis of variance to determine if there are differences between male and female and ninth and tenth grade students and by gender and grade level with literacy status. A stepwise multiple regression analysis will be used to determine if the demographic variables can be used to predict literacy levels among the Vietnamese students. All decisions on the statistical significance of the findings will be made using an alpha level of .05. Figure 5 presents the results of this analysis.

Figure 5

Statistical Analysis

Research Question	Variables	Statistical Analysis
1. Do the cognitive skills, as measured by standardized tests, differ between Vietnamese students who were categorized as literate and those categorized as illiterate?	<p><u>Dependent Variables</u> CAT Reading Scores</p> <p><u>Independent Variables</u> Literacy Levels</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Literate • Illiterate 	A t-test for two independent samples was used to determine if there are differences between students, who are illiterate and literate in the Vietnamese language, on reading comprehension scores as measured by the CAT.
2. Do the cognitive skills, as measured by standardized tests, differ between male and female Vietnamese students who were categorized as literate and those categorized as illiterate?	<p><u>Dependent Variables</u> CAT Reading Scores</p> <p><u>Independent Variables</u> Literacy Levels</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Literate • Illiterate <p>Gender of Students</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Male • Female 	Factorial analysis of variance was used to determine if there was a difference in CAT scores between male and female students who literate and those who were illiterate. The main effects of gender will be examined along with the interaction between literacy levels and gender of the students.
3. Do the cognitive skills, as measured by standardized tests, differ between ninth and tenth grade Vietnamese students who were categorized as literate and those categorized as illiterate?	<p><u>Dependent Variable</u> CAT Reading Scores</p> <p><u>Independent Variables</u> Literacy Levels</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Literate • Illiterate <p>Grade of Students</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ninth • Tenth 	Factorial analysis of variance was used to determine if there was a difference in CAT scores between ninth and tenth grade students who literate and those who were illiterate. The main effects of gender will be examined along with the interaction between literacy levels and grade level of the students.
4. Is the literacy level of Vietnamese students as measured by the Native Language Skills Test (NLST) related to the number of years the student has been in the United States, their ages, their socioeconomic level, and educational levels of their mothers and fathers?	<p><u>Dependent Variable</u> Native Language Skills Test (Used as a categorical variable)</p> <p><u>Independent Variables</u> Number of years in the student Age of student Socioeconomic level Educational level of mother Educational level of father</p>	A stepwise multiple regression analysis was used to determine which of the demographic variables can be used to predict scores on the NLST as a measure of literacy in Vietnamese.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSES AND RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the data analysis that was used to describe the sample and answer the research questions. The purpose of this study was to determine if literacy in a native language had an effect on reading comprehension as measured by standardized tests, such as the California Achievement Test (CAT). The 90 students that were included in this study were from Vietnam and had been in the United States for varying lengths of time. Their literacy levels in Vietnamese were tested using the Native Language Skills Test (NLST) developed specifically for this study. They were divided into two groups, literate and illiterate, based on their scores on this test.

The statistical analysis is divided into two sections for presentation in this chapter. The first section provides a description of the students using measures of central tendency and dispersion. The research questions are answered in the second section of the chapter. Inferential statistical procedures were used to answer these questions.

Description of the Sample

The 90 Vietnamese students who participated in this study were asked to complete a questionnaire to provide information on their demographic characteristics. The parents were contacted to provide information on their educational levels. This data are also presented in this section.

The students provided their age and years in the United States on the survey. Their responses were summarized using descriptive statistics. Table 1 presents the results of this analysis.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics
Age of Student and Number of Years in the United States

	Number	Mean	SD	Median	Range	
					Minimum	Maximum
Age of Student	90	17.00	1.25	17	14	19
Years in United States	90	3.76	1.69	4	1	9

The mean age of the student was 17.00 (sd=1.25) years, with a median of 17 years. The range of ages of the students was from 14 to 19 years.

The students had been in the United States for an average of 3.76 (sd=1.69) years. The range of years in the United States was from 1 to 9, with a median of 4 years.

The students were asked to provide their religion on the survey. Their responses were summarized using frequency distributions for presentation in Table 2.

Table 2
Frequency Distributions
Religion of the Student

Religion	Frequency	Percent
Ancestor	24	26.7
Buddhist	26	28.9
Catholic	21	23.3
Christian Reformed	12	13.3
Protestant	5	5.6
Atheist	2	2.2
Total	90	100.0

The largest group of respondents (n=26, 28.9%) reported their religion was Buddhist, with 24 (26.7%) indicating Ancestor as their religion. Catholic was indicated by 21 (23.3%) of the students and 12 (13.3%) reported Christian Reformed as their religion. Five (5.6%) students were Protestant and 2 (2.2%) indicated they were atheists.

The students were asked to provide their grade in school. Their responses were summarized using frequency distributions. The results of this analysis is presented in Table 3.

Table 3
Frequency Distributions
Grade in School

Grade	Frequency	Percent
Ninth Grade	28	31.1
Tenth	62	68.9
Total	90	100.0

The majority of the students ($n=62$, 68.9%) reported they were in the tenth grade.

The remaining 28 (31.1%) students were in the ninth grade.

The students were asked to indicate their gender on the survey. Their responses were summarized using frequency distributions for presentation in Table 4.

Table 4
Frequency Distributions
Gender of the Students

Gender of the Students	Frequency	Percent
Male	38	42.2
Female	52	57.8
Total	90	100.0

The majority of the respondents ($n=52$, 57.8%) reported their gender was female.

Thirty-eight (42.2%) students were male.

The region of Vietnam where the students were born was also obtained on the survey. Their responses were summarized using frequency distributions. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 5.

Table 5
Frequency Distributions
Region in Vietnam Where Student Lived

Region in Vietnam Where Student Lived Prior to Coming to the United States	Frequency	Percent
Urban	66	73.3
Rural	24	26.7
Total	90	100.0

The majority of the students (n=66, 73.3%) in the study reported they had lived in urban areas prior to coming to the United States. The remaining 24 (26.7%) students had lived in rural areas of Vietnam prior to immigrating to the United States.

The students were asked to provide their family composition on the survey. Their responses were summarized using frequency distributions. Table 6 presents the results of this analysis.

Table 6
Frequency Distributions
Family Composition

Family Composition	Frequency	Percent
Single Parent	30	33.3
Both Parents	60	66.7
Total	90	100.0

Most of the students (n=60, 66.7%) reported they lived with both parents. Thirty (33.3%) students reported their family composition included one parent.

The students were asked to indicate the educational levels of their parents. Their

responses to this question were summarized for presentation in Table 7.

Table 7
Frequency Distributions
Parents Educational Levels

Educational Level	Father's Education		Mother's Education	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Elementary	2	3.0	40	44.9
Middle	20	29.9	36	40.4
High School	39	58.2	12	13.5
College	6	9.0	1	1.1
Total	67	100.0	89	100.0

Missing Fathers 23
 Mothers 1

The largest group of students indicated their fathers (n=39, 58.2%) had obtained a high school education, with 12 (13.5%) indicating their mothers had an elementary education. Twenty (29.9%) students reported their father's had a middle school education, and 36 (40.4%) indicating their mothers also had this level of education. Two (3.0%) students indicated their fathers had obtained an elementary education, while 40 (44.9%) reported their mothers had completed elementary school. Six (9.0%) students indicated their fathers had obtained a college degree, with 1 (1.1%) students indicating their mothers had also received a college degree. Twenty-three students did not indicate their father's level of education with 1 student failing to provide his/her mother's level of education on the survey.

The students were asked to report the socioeconomic class of their family, based on annual income levels. Their responses to this question were summarized using

frequency distributions, for presentation in Table 8.

Table 8
Frequency Distribution
Socioeconomic Status of the Family

Socioeconomic Status of the Family	Frequency	Percent
Upper middle class (\$20,001 to \$50,000)	1	1.1
Lower middle class (\$10,001 to \$20,000)	9	11.1
Working class (Under \$10,000)	33	36.7
Government Assistance	47	52.2
Total	90	100.0

The largest group of students (n=47, 52.2%) reported they were on government assistance, with 33 (36.7%) reported they were working class. Nine (11.1%) students reported their socioeconomic status as lower middle class, with 1 (1.1%) indicating their socioeconomic class as upper middle class.

The students were asked what language they spoke at home. Their responses were summarized using frequency distributions for presentation in Table 9.

Table 9
Frequency Distributions
Language Spoken in Home

Language Spoken in Home	Frequency	Percent
Vietnamese Only	43	47.8
English Only	3	3.3
Both	44	48.9
Total	90	100.0

Forty-four (48.9%) students reported they spoke both English and Vietnamese in their homes, while 43 (47.8%) indicated only Vietnamese was spoken in their homes. Three (3.3%) students reported that English was the only language spoken in their homes.

The students were asked to report their birth order in the family. Their responses were summarized using frequency distributions. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 10.

Table 10
Frequency Distributions
Birth Order of Students

Birth Order of Student	Frequency	Percent
Oldest	31	34.4
Middle	41	45.6
Youngest	16	17.8
Only	2	2.2
Total	90	100.0

The largest group of students (n=41, 45.6%) reported they were middle children, with 31 (34.4%) indicating they were the oldest children in their families. Sixteen

(17.8%) students were the youngest children and 2 (2.2%) reported they were only children.

Development of Group Assignment

The students scores on the Native Language Skills Test (NLST) were summarized using descriptive statistics. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 11.

Table 11

Descriptive Statistics Native Language Skills Test

Number	Mean	SD	Median	Range	
				Minimum	Maximum
90	30.16	13.32	30	3	50

The mean score for the ninth and tenth grade students on the NLST was 30.16 (sd=13.32). The median score was 30, with actual scores ranging from 3 to 50. The median scores was used to divide the students into high and low literacy groups. Students whose scores were greater than 30 were placed in the high literacy group and those whose scores were less than 30 were in the low literacy group. Forty-eight (53.3%) of the students had literacy scores less than 30 and were placed in the low literacy group. Forty-two (46.7%) students' scores were 30 or greater. These students were included in the high literacy group.

Research Questions

Four research questions were developed for this study. Each of these questions

were answered separately using inferential statistical analyses. The decisions on the statistical significance of the findings were made using an alpha level of .05.

Research question 1. Do the cognitive skills, as measured by standardized tests, differ between Vietnamese students who were categorized as literate and those categorized as illiterate?

The scores on the reading CAT test were compared between students in the high and low literacy groups using a t-test for two independent variables. The results of these analyses are presented in Table 12.

Table 12

t-Test for Two Independent Samples
Native Language Skills Test by Literacy Level

Group	Number	Mean	SD	DF	t-Value
Low Literacy	48	16.69	9.62	88	9.18*
High Literacy	42	36.69	11.06		

* $p \leq .05$

The t-value of 9.18 obtained on the comparison between the low and high literacy groups was statistically significant at an alpha level of .05 with 88 degrees of freedom. This result indicated that students in the high literacy group ($m=36.69$, $sd=11.06$) had significantly higher scores on their CAT reading tests than students in the low literacy group ($m=16.69$, $sd=9.62$). Based on this finding, it appeared that students with higher literacy in their native language were more likely to score higher on a standardized test, the reading scores on the CAT.

Research question 2: Do the cognitive skills, as measured by standardized tests, differ between male and female Vietnamese students who were categorized as literate and those categorized as illiterate?

A factorial analysis of variance was used to determine if there was a difference in CAT reading scores between male and female Vietnamese students who were categorized as literate and those categorized as illiterate. The gender and literacy levels of the Vietnamese students were used as the independent variables and the CAT reading scores were used as the dependent variable. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 13.

Table 13
Factorial Analysis of Variance
CAT Reading Scores by Literacy Levels and Gender of Vietnamese Students

Group	Number	Mean	SD	DF	F Ratio
Literacy Level					
Low	48	16.69	9.62	1/86	80.42*
High	42	36.69	11.06		
Gender					
Male	38	26.26	14.53	1/86	.01 (NS)
Female	52	25.85	14.36		
Literacy Level X Gender					
High X Male	18	36.83	11.45	1/86	.01 (NS)
High X Female	24	36.58	11.01		
Low X Male	20	16.75	9.61		
Low X Female	28	16.64	9.97		

* $p < .05$

The main effect, literacy level produced an F ratio of 80.42 which was statistically significant at an alpha level of .05 with 1 and 86 degrees of freedom. The F ratio of .01 for the second main effect, gender, was not statistically significant at an alpha level of .05 with 1 and 86 degrees of freedom. The F ratio of .01 for the interaction effect between

literacy level and gender was not statistically significant at an alpha level of .05 with 1 and 86 degrees of freedom. These findings indicated that while CAT Reading scores differed relative to the literacy levels of the students, but between male and female Vietnamese students. The interaction between literacy level and gender was not significant.

Research question 3: Do the cognitive skills, as measured by standardized tests, differ between ninth and tenth grade Vietnamese students who were categorized as literate and those categorized as illiterate?

The CAT reading scores were used as the dependent variable in a factorial analysis of variance. The literacy level and grade level of the Vietnamese students were used as the independent variables in this analysis. Table 14 presents the results of this analysis.

Table 14
 Factorial Analysis of Variance
 CAT Reading Scores by Literacy Levels and Grade of Vietnamese Students

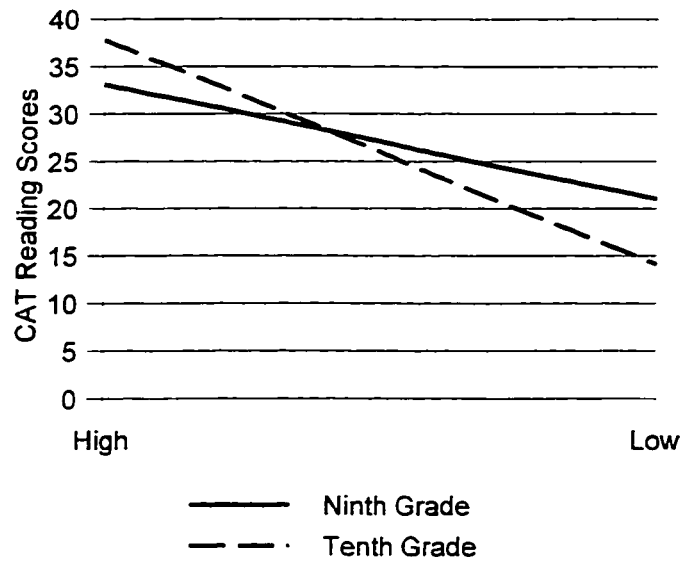
Group	Number	Mean	SD	DF	F Ratio
Literacy Level					
Low	48	16.69	9.62	1/86	80.42*
High	42	36.69	11.06		
Grade					
Ninth	28	25.32	10.17	1/86	.21 (NS)
Tenth	62	26.34	15.95		
Literacy Level X Gender					
High X Ninth	10	33.10	8.58	1/86	6.08*
High X Tenth	32	37.81	11.62		
Low X Ninth	18	21.00	8.37		
Low X Tenth	30	14.10	9.51		

*p \leq .05

The main effect, literacy level, produced an F ratio of 57.85 which was statistically significant at an alpha level of .05 with 1 and 86 degrees of freedom. The F ratio of .21 obtained for the grade level of the Vietnamese students was not statistically significant at an alpha level of .05 with 1 and 86 degrees of freedom. The F ratio of 6.08 for the interaction between literacy level and grade level of the students was statistically significant at an alpha level of .05 with 1 and 86 degrees of freedom. Based on these findings, Vietnamese students differed on CAT reading scores relative to their literacy levels in their native language, but did not differ by grade level. The interaction effect indicated that high and low literacy levels at the ninth and tenth grade levels resulted in differences in CAT reading scores. Figure 7 presents the graphical representation of the interaction between literacy level and grade of student.

Figure 7

Interaction between Literacy and Grade Levels of Vietnamese Students
CAT Reading Scores



Research question 4: Is the literacy level of Vietnamese students as measured by the Native Language Skills Test (NLST) related to the number of years the student has been in the United States, their ages, their socioeconomic level, language spoken in home, and educational levels of their mothers and fathers?

The obtained scores on the NLST were used as the dependent variable in a stepwise multiple linear regression analysis. The independent variables in this analysis were the number of years the student had been in the United States, student ages, self-reported socioeconomic level, language spoken in home, and parents' educational levels. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 15.

Table 15
Stepwise Multiple Linear Regression Analysis
NLST Vietnamese Literacy Scores

Independent Variables	Constant	b Weight	Beta Weight	r ²	t-Value
Language Spoken in Home	35.65	4.74	.35	.16	3.63*
Socioeconomic Status		-4.42	-.27	.05	-2.45*
R value46
R ²21
F Ratio					11.59*
Degrees of Freedom					2/87

*p<.05

Two of the independent variables, language spoken in the home and socioeconomic status entered the regression equation, explaining 21% of the variance in scores on the NLST. The associated F ratio of 11.59 was statistically significant at an alpha level of .05 with 2 and 87 degrees of freedom, indicating the amount of variance in scores on the NLST that was explained by the two independent variables was statistically significant. Language spoken in the home entered the regression equation first, explaining 16% of the variance in Vietnamese literacy levels of the students. The t-value of 3.63 obtained for this independent variable was statistically significant at an alpha level of .05. This finding indicated that language spoken in the home was a significant predictor of scores on the NLST. The positive value of the relationship between these two variables showed that students from homes where either English or both languages were spoken achieved higher scores on the NLST. The second variable that entered the equation, socioeconomic status explained an additional 5% of the variance in scores on the NLST. The associated t-value of -2.45 was statistically significant at an alpha level of .05, indicating the additional variance in scores on the NLST that was explained by socioeconomic status was statistically significant. The negative value of the relationship

showed that Vietnamese students who were from homes with higher socioeconomic levels (1=upper middle class, 3=working class) were more likely to score high on the NLST. The remaining independent variables did not enter the stepwise multiple linear regression analyses indicating they were not significant predictors of literacy in the Vietnamese language. Based on these findings, it appeared that students' scores on the NLST were affected by the language spoken in the home, specifically English or both English and Vietnamese, and the socioeconomic status of the family. The age of the student, years in the United States, grade in school, gender of the student, and mothers' and fathers' educational levels were not significant predictors of literacy in the Vietnamese language.

Summary

The results of the statistical analysis have been presented in this chapter. A description of the sample and answers to the research questions have been provided to form a basis from which the researcher can develop conclusions and make recommendations. Chapter V presents these conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER V

OVERVIEW, CONCLUSION, RECOMMENDATIONS

Overview and Purpose of the Study

Educators and parents of language minority students are interested in the possible role that the first language plays in relation to second language learning. Because of the important implications on the education of language minority students, the study of this relationship becomes more appealing to policy makers and to involved parties. As the number of limited English proficient students in the United States continues to grow, there is increased interest at both local and national scenes in studying the need to provide literacy in both the native and English languages.

Researchers have attempted to investigate the relationship between proficiency in the first language and achievement in English. At the national level, questions have been raised regarding the direction of this relationship. A positive relationship would indicate that transfer of learning from one language to another is greater than the inference caused by the variations among languages. A negative relationship would indicate stronger interference than transfer. If the relationship was negative, the first language could be a hindrance in learning the second language. Conversely, if the relationship was positive, the first language could be helpful in second language mastery. Efforts could then be focused on improving the first language base and could then be help improve mastery of the second language.

Researchers have repeatedly spoken of a positive relationship among first and second language learning. Specific language-related skills have been identified that are likely to transfer from L1 to L2. This linkage has been demonstrated by testing these

hypotheses on language groups other than Vietnamese. The present study was an attempt to assist parents and educators of LEP Vietnamese-speaking students to design the most effective language programs for this population.

This study focused on a group of 90 LEP Vietnamese-speaking students who attended the 9th and 10th grade class in one high school in Grand Rapids in the year 1995-1996. These students completed a minimum of three years in the Grand Rapids Public Schools and they possessed a certain degree of bilingualism in English and Vietnamese that distinguished them from monolingual Vietnamese.

The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between the reading achievement and the level of literacy in the Vietnamese language possessed by Vietnamese students who have been in the school system for a minimum of three years. Nine variables were collected to determine their possible influence on reading achievement as measured by the California Achievement Test (CAT). Data collected included scores on students' fluency and literacy in Vietnamese as measured by the Native Language Skills Test (NLST), reading achievement as measured by the CAT, years in the United States, fathers' and mothers' education, socioeconomic backgrounds such as household income, language spoken in the home, and location of residence in Vietnam (urban or rural).

Findings

The mean age of the Vietnamese students was 17.00 (sd=1.25) years and they had been in the United States for an average of 3.76 (sd=1.69) years. The religion practiced by the students included ancestor, Buddhist, and Catholic. The majority of the students were in the 10th grade and female. Most of the Vietnamese students had resided in urban

areas of Vietnam prior to emigrating to the United States. The largest group of students lived with both parents. The fathers tended to have higher levels of education than the mothers, and most of the families reporting their socioeconomic status as either being on government assistance or working class (under \$10,000). The largest group of Vietnamese students indicated that both Vietnamese and English were spoken in their homes, with many students reporting that Vietnamese was the only language spoken in their homes. The students were generally either first born or middle children. Only two students reported they were only children.

The students were assigned to either the high or low literacy group based on their scores on the NLST. A median score of 30 was obtained for the students, with students whose scores were equal to or less than 30 placed in the low literacy group and those with scores greater than 30 included in the high literacy group. These groups were used to address the first three research questions.

Research questions.

Four research questions were posed for this study. Each of these questions were answered separately, with all decisions on the statistical significance of the findings made using an alpha level of .05.

Research question 1: Do the cognitive skills, as measured by standardized tests, differ between Vietnamese students who were categorized as literate and those categorized as illiterate?

The two groups of Vietnamese students, categorized as having high and low literacy levels, were compared using the CAT reading scores using a t-test for two independent samples. The results of this analysis indicated that high literacy students had significantly higher scores on CAT reading scores than Vietnamese students with low

literacy in their native language.

Research question 2: Do the cognitive skills, as measured by standardized tests, differ between male and female Vietnamese students who were categorized as literate and those categorized as illiterate?

A factorial analysis of variance was used to test for differences in CAT reading scores. The gender of the student and the literacy levels of the students were used as the independent variables in this analysis. A difference was found on the CAT reading scores for the main effect, literacy levels, but the second main effect, gender, did not differ significantly on their reading achievement scores. The interaction between gender and literacy levels was not statistically significant.

Research question 3: Do the cognitive skills, as measured by standardized tests, differ between ninth and tenth grade Vietnamese students who were categorized as literate and those categorized as illiterate?

A factorial analysis of variance was used to compare CAT reading scores between ninth and tenth grade, high and low literacy level Vietnamese students. The difference in CAT scores between high and low literacy levels was statistically significant, with differences in reading achievement between ninth and tenth grade students not statistically significant. The interaction between grade level and literacy levels was statistically significant. Tenth grade students with high literacy levels had the highest scores on reading achievement, with tenth grade students with low literacy levels having the lowest scores.

Research question 4: Is the literacy level of Vietnamese students as measured by the Native Language Skills Test (NLST) related to the number of years the student has been in the United States, their ages, their socioeconomic level, language spoken in the home, and educational levels of their mothers and fathers?

A stepwise multiple linear regression analysis was used to determine which of the

independent variables; years the students had been in the United States, student ages, self-reported socioeconomic level, language spoken in home, and parents' educational levels; could be used to predict scores on the NLST. Two independent variables, language spoken in home and socioeconomic status, were found to be significant predictors of scores on the NLST. Students whose families spoke both Vietnamese and English and those from higher socioeconomic levels tended to score higher on the NLST.

Discussion

The study showed that native language literacy levels of students affected their reading achievement. Learning in the first language appeared to be associated with mastery of a second language. The students in the ninth and tenth grades who participated in this study had been in bilingual programs in the school they attended and in addition, had taken enrichment classes in the Vietnamese language. These enrichment classes had provided students with greater literacy in Vietnamese than students who were not completing these programs.

The lack of difference between males and females also showed that mastery of reading in English was not related to the gender of the student. Differences in reading ability of students has been shown to differ among male and female students, but generally this difference is eliminated as they mature. The findings of this study provided support for this theory.

The significant interaction between ninth and tenth grade students showed that students who had higher levels of literacy, regardless of grade level tended to be able to read better, as measured by their CAT reading scores. The tenth grade students who were

in the low literacy group had the lowest scores on the CAT reading test. While they were older and had probably been in the country for a longer period of time, their Vietnamese language literacy levels and their CAT reading scores needed to be improved, either through additional bilingual training or by working in peer groups.

Scores on the NLST could be predicted from the language spoken in the home and the socioeconomic level of the parents. Students who scored higher on the NLST were from homes whose incomes were above \$10,000 and whose parents spoke both Vietnamese and English in their homes. Research on student achievement has linked socioeconomic status with learning. Parents with higher socioeconomic levels are generally more involved in their children's education and have the resources to provide the necessary tools for students to achieve optimally. The language spoken in the home was also a significant predictor of literacy in Vietnamese. The students whose parents spoke both Vietnamese and English provided a better foundation for their children to practice their skills in both languages, rather than restricting them to the use of either Vietnamese only or English only. Using both languages also helps maintain knowledge and awareness of their cultural backgrounds.

Recommendations for Practice

Teachers and parents should consider the findings of this study when developing literacy acquisition programs for immigrant children. While this study focused on Vietnamese students, the findings would probably generalize to most students for whom English is not their primary language. The students in the present study who were fluent in Vietnamese had higher achievement scores in reading. These students were involved in

enrichment programs to help develop fluency and literacy in the Vietnamese language. The parents of these students, rather than suppress their native languages in favor of the English language, chose to promote bilingualism among their students. Drawing knowledge from one language can lead to proficiency in a second language.

Administrators should consider offering enrichment programs for immigrant students after school or on Saturday. Using resources available in their neighborhoods (i.e., volunteer parents who are fluent in the native languages), the program could be operated with relatively little expense. By offering these programs in a number of languages, the needs of all students could be met. Students whose primary language is English could also benefit by being able to participate in foreign language mastery, thus developing a broader understanding for other cultures and ethnic groups.

Recommendations for Further Research

The following recommendations for further research should be considered to continue study on the relationship between second language acquisition and first language literacy:

- Examine the results of a similar study using students of another ethnic group (Hispanic, Arabic, etc.) to determine if literacy levels in the primary language are associated with reading achievement in English.
- Study the effects of fluency in the native language on psychosocial measures, such as self-esteem, locus of control, and attitudes about education.
- Investigate the long-range effects of providing educational programs that promote literacy in the first language of the immigrant child on their ability to achieve both in high school and postsecondary educational programs.

- Compare reading achievement scores of students in other ethnic or cultural groups who entered this country as very young children and have not had the opportunity to become literate in the language of their native country, with reading achievement scores of children who had developed literacy in their native language prior to emigrating to the United States.
- Determine the attitudes of teachers and school administrators toward enrichment classes in languages other than English as a means of helping immigrant students become literate in their native language.

APPENDIX A
NATIVE LANGUAGE SKILLS TEST

Vietnamese Native Language Test
 NGUOI GIAU HON VA NGUOI NGHEO HON
 By TRAN-NGUYEN

Bao nam qua , Thu da thuc giuc em la Huyen nen sua soan lo cho tuoi gia . Trong nhung nam do, Huyen da song cuoc song hang ngay duong nhu chi co Huyen, ngoai ra, khong co ai nua. Va bay gio ca hai da qua tuoi luc tuan, thoi gian da den gan. Thu da co tien trong nha bang ngay cang nhieu. Huyen chi co bo quan ao va gia tai chi von ven co chiec valise. [Phan 1]

Thu chan ghet tuoi tho cua minh vi hay bi cha me lang quen. Huyen duong nhu khong de y gi. Tat ca nhung gi Huyen muon la chi co di choi. Huyen hoc truat skate voi doi giay muon cua ke khac va di chiec xe dap cung muon cua ke khac luon. Thu khong the cho doi toi ngay khon lon de mua cho minh nhung gi tot nhat. Khi nao co ai thue muon , Thu phai di lam. Thu cham soc tre tho, chay di mua do vat cho nhung nguoi gia. Thu khong bao gio tieu xai mot xu trong so tien cua Thu mac du luc con be Thu rat thich an ca rem va keo. Thu khong the nao chia se voi Huyen la nguoi chang bao gio co gi de chia se voi Thu. Thu de danh tung xu roi tao nen tung dong, Thu da mat het su them khat ve keo ngot.

Khi len 12 tuoi, sau khi hoc ve, Thu lam thu ky cho mot tiem tap hoa nho be. Moi ngay thu Bay, Thu lam bao lau tuy thich. Thu nhat dinh de danh tien de mua sam quan ao. Khi len Trung-hoc, Thu mac chiec ao dam dai khong ai co the so sanh noi. [Phan 2]

Nhung khi buoc vao nam thu nhat cua Dai-hoc, Thu khong the dung thu su chenh mang hoc hanh, nhat la khi cac thay giao khuyen Thu phai nghi den hoc hanh nghiem chinh hon o Dai-hoc. Khong mot ai trong gia dinh Thu da di Dai-hoc, va chac chan Huyen se khong bao gio di. Thu muon chung to cho ho la Thu co the lam tat ca nhung gi Thu muon, neu Thu quyet tam lam dieu do. Thu bat dau de danh tien vao ngan hang va tien ngan hang da tro nen mot thu cua cai kin dao nhat va qui nhat cua Thu.[Phan 3]

Trong nam thu ba cua trung-hoc, Thu da tim duoc mot cong viec lam trong mot nha hang, tuy nho; nhung la loai nha hang dang phat trien. Thu lam nguoi tinh tien tu gio ban ron nhat cho toi khi dong cua. Trong nam sau cung cua trung-hoc, cong viec thuong mai bat dau phat trien le den noi Thu phai duong dau voi su lua chon la di hoc hay lam viec toan thoi gian. Thu da chon lua cach de dang. Mot viec lam co san trong tay bao gio cung dang gia gap doi cho tuong lai. [Phan 4]

Huyen da co ban trai o trong ban nhạc của nhà trường, một anh chàng không có tham vọng nào hơn là chơi chích ken của mình. Con Thu chỉ muốn tau cho mình một ngôi nhà và tạo nên một gia đình, trong khi Huyen chỉ cho đôi Hùng kiếm được đủ tiền để mua một tam giáy hơn thu. Huyen đã làm đám cưới với Hùng ngay sau khi hết trung-hoc và đã không làm cho ai ngạc nhiên. Con Thu cha bao giờ muốn lấy chồng và điều đó chả may ai lấy làm lạ. Nhiều lần Thu đã phàn nàn về bố một công việc trả kha tiền để ở nhà làm việc nơi tro không có tiền; điều đó là một nguy hiểm mà Thu không thể làm. Huyen cảm thấy tiếc xót vì không có mụn con nào; nhưng bà có cảm tưởng rằng bà cũng không nên có con. Thu chắc chắn tốt hơn là bà cùng cha có đứa cháu nào khỏi phải hỏi han. Và Huyen cũng sẽ không đem "tong" con mình để trước gương của của Thu. [Phan 5]

Thu đã có một gương của đã được ông chú để lại vì ông đã mua một ngôi nhà thu

hai. Ong de lai ngoi nha thu nhat cho Thu voi gia thap den noi tu choi la mat mot moi lon. [Phan 6]

Thu dong cua nhung phong nao ma ba khong dung va de chung cu ky hu hong. Tu khi Thu di an ngoai, trong nha khong co thuc an va cung khong muon ai goi toi de den uong mot ly nuoc tra. Loi song cua Thu xem ra ich ky nhung Thu da khong biet dieu do. Thu nghi Thu song nhung ngay vao tuoi trung tuan, nhu vay Thu co the song trong tien nghi va de dang cho Thu moi khi Thu can yen tinh trong tam tri. [Phan 7]

Nhung nam sau tuoi tu tuan la nhung nam chay dua. Bong choc Thu da luc tuan va ve huu qua nguoi con cua ong chu cua Thu, la nguoi khong co cam nghi de giu Thu lai khi Thu muon ve huu.[Phan 8]

Thu da co gang nhieu lan de tim mot cong viec lam khac; nhung dang dap ben ngoai cua Thu trong da qua gia nen da vo hieu qua. Lan dau tien trong doi, Thu sung suong het lam viec, Thu co the di day do, lam nhung gi Thu muon.[Phan 9]

Hung chet o nuoc ngoai, trong mot khach san hang ba, lam Huyen khoc suot muot va nhu the Hung de lai mot gia tai. Nhung Hung da khong de lai gi het, chi co chiec ken. Cung khong du tien de mua mot cai ve hoi huong. Thu bi rang buoc vi giong mau, nen nghi rang khong nhung Thu gui tien cho nguoi em, ma con dem em ve nha khi nao em tro ve. Dieu nay co ve bat cong la Huyen gat lay ca cuoc song tu bo minh cua Thu.[Phan 10]

Thu da phai sua lai phong ngu ca tuan le, mot tuan lam viec cuc nhoc va tra tien mat. phai sua lai moi su, thay moi thu hoac son phet lai. Thu nhìn lai can phong moi, mat me, Thu cam thay Thu phai la nguoi xung dang hon Huyen.[11]

Thu de Huyen can phong cua ba, nhung nem, tham da cu, lam cho ba cam thay luong tam ay nay. Thu tu nhu ba cung phai sua lai can phong nay va ba se sua voi su hung thu hon la voi vang.[Phan 12]

Khi Thu len lau tren, Thu that vong khi nhìn xuống lau duoi. Ba co gang quen di dieu nay nhung ba khong cach nao quen duoc; vi su khac biet hai lau cang ngay cang hu. Thu di tu nha bep toi phong khach, Thu tu nhu minh rang Thu chi dung nhung can phong nay de Thu co cai gi de lam. Ve dem, Thu ngu nhu dua tre con, sau mot ngay dai va sung suong don dep nha cua. Thu cam thay su vui thu chua bao gio bo trong doi. Thu song tron tung gio cua Thu.[Phan 13]

Bay gio chi con mot ngay nua la Huyen ve. Nhìn qua tam kieng mo nhat, nhìn lai minh trong guong, Thu nhìn thấy mình cũng giống như kẻ khác thay mình, và Thu không chịu được cái nhìn này.

Thu đi tiêu tiện tu nhưng tiem đặc biệt tới tiem sửa sắc đẹp, Thu đã biến mình thành một người đàn bà chỉ tin vào phép lạ.[Phan 14]

Thu đang sửa soạn nấu con gà tây trong bếp thì Huyen rung chuông ngoài cửa. Tim Thu đập mạnh và tu hỏi sức nóng trong lò có an-toan không. [Phan 15]

Thu ra ngoài cửa, và Huyen đứng trước thềm. Thu đứng khựng chiu su om chom của Huyen. Tim Thu nhảy mạnh hơn. Mat Thu bỗng nhiên như chop vào lan khi lạnh.

"O, Thu, tot qua gap lai Thu", Huyen noi, nhung lai khong noi gi ve ve dep tuyet voi ben ngoai cua Thu. Len lau tren, Huyen dat valise xuống và nói:"Toi se nghi nhu da chet toi nay, ma khong mot loi khen can phong de thuong cua Thu. Vao ban an, voi nuoc sauce ga tay, Huyen noi "Toi an ca thit trang va thit dui", ma khong noi den co con ga, hoac noi chi co mot con ga ma hai ba gia an, mot ba thi qua ngheo khong du tien de mua

banh mi cho chinh minh.[Phan 16]

Voi su am ap cua thuc an trong da day, Huyen bat dau ke chuyen. Nhung cau chuyen ve noi chon, ve nguoi, hau het don so nhung tat ca deu co y nghĩa. Guong mat cua Huyen phan anh cau chuyen, noi len su vui buon trong ky uc, va tren tat ca, noi len tinh yeu ma Huyen da song, va do tinh yeu do da lam cho Huyen tro thanh con nguoi ngheo nan nhat, khiem ton nhat.

Thu biet tai sao Huyen lai khong de cap den can phong dep de, sang sua hoac con ga tay 12 can. Huyen cung da khong nhin thay chung. Ngay mai Huyen se thay can phong nhu the nao. Toi nay Huyen chi nhin thay dieu ma Huyen tim kiem, do la mot noi trong nha va qua tim cua nguoi chi.[Phan 17]

Thu noi : " Thoi du cho toi roi. Con nhung nam em dung thi sao?"

"Chinh chi da khong dung chung" Thu noi cach tiec xot. "Thu da de danh chung. Toi da quen dieu tot nhat cua chung la da chang dung mot ngay tieu xai hoac mot do-la de huong thu chung. Do la cau chuyen cua doi chi duoc dien ta chi trong vai chu, mot cuoc song khong bao gio song.

"Bay gio da ve chieu, dau con lam gi duoc". Huyen noi, "Khi nao biet bao nhieu can phai biet, tuc la bat dau hoc hoi de song. Dung tinh nam da qua cua chung ta. Doi voi thoi gian cua cuoc song , chinh ngay moi dang ke. Em da chay theo thoi gian de lam viec de roi phung phi tung phut cua mot gio tinh thuc de roi cam thay hoi han cho chinh em."[Phan 18]

Thu cuoi, mot nu cuoi that toe toet, " The nhung, de noi su that, chi van tiec xot cho em. Co le chi cung cam thay hoi han cho chi; chi biet chi da gia khong con gio got chan duoc nua, nhung chi se de em chi cho chi nhu the nao. Neu chi nam xuong dat luc nay, chi doan dieu khong thanh van de . Chi da cam thay chong mat va chi bang long. [Phan 19]

DIEU CHI DAN: Nhung cau hoi nay duoc dat ra trong cau chuyen ban vua doc. Hay doc cho nhung cau hoi nay va chon cau tra loi dung nhat.

1. Cau nao la de tai dung nhat cua cau truyen nay.
 - A. Co Huyen tro thanh mot qua phu va khong co phuong tien ve nha
 - B. Nho co em Huyen, ma Thu y thuc duoc Thu co co hoi de biet them kinh nghiem
 - C. Thu cam thay Thu phai coi soc em Huyen.
 - D. Huyen da hanh phuc, mac du cuoc song khac thuong.

1. Vua moi day, Thu gap Huyen; boi vi Huyen da. . .
 - A. Vo Dai-hoc trong luc Thu lam viec.
 - B. Cuoi Hung nhung da khong co con.
 - C. Chan Huyen boi nhung mau chuyen di du lich.
 - D. Khong de y den cuoc song ma khong can sua soan cho tuoi gia.

3. Điều rắc rối chính trong câu chuyện này là gì?
 - A. Thu đã chu toàn công việc của cô ta, nhưng chú của cô ta thái cô một cách bất chính.
 - B. Thu đã sửa nhà lại nhưng Huyền không thêm đẻ y.
 - C. Thu lo cho tuổi già của mình, còn Huyền thì không.
 - D. Thu ghen tuông với những sự may mắn của Huyền.
4. Dấu câu chuyện, Thu diễn tả Huyền là...
 - A. Người khùng
 - B. Người đẻ y
 - C. Người đang yêu
 - D. Người sợ set
5. Người thuật truyện diễn tả Huyền giống như là...
 - A. Mắc cô và cần than
 - B. Người yêu đuối và nhẹ dạ
 - C. Người thiếu đẻ y và thiếu nhân xét
 - D. Vô tu và tệ nhi
6. Câu nào mâu thuẫn nhất nhưng nhân vật trong câu chuyện này?
 - A. Thu sống qua cuộc sống, còn Huyền sống một cuộc sống thoải mái
 - B. Huyền sản sang chia sẻ nhưng gì mình có với Thu, nhưng Thu từ chối.
 - C. Thu giành đùm cho tương lai, nhưng Huyền thì sống qua ngày.
 - D. Huyền lo xa cho việc học văn của cô ta, còn Thu chọn đi làm toàn thời gian
7. Trong phần 10, chú "Long xa-ky" có nghĩa là gì?
 - A. Kinh phục chính mình qua đó
 - B. Được ưu đãi bởi kẻ khác
 - C. Thương thức cuộc đời
 - D. Từ chối không có gì
8. Trong phần 2 và phần 16 tiết lộ gì về Huyền?
 - A. Huyền muốn giống Thu nhiều hơn
 - B. Huyền đã thay đổi một ít trong những năm qua
 - C. Huyền tức tối với sự ích-ky thời thơ ấu của Thu
 - D. Huyền thích xu-dung đồ của kẻ khác hơn là của cô ta
9. Đề-mục khác của câu chuyện này?
 - A. Đôi lúc rất quan trọng để tri hoãn sự vui which ngăn hạn cho sự hạnh-phúc lâu dài
 - B. Chịu trách-nhiệm cho những phần-tu trong gia đình có thể gây ra những rắc rối cho chính đôi bạn.
 - C. Thành-cong sống trong cuộc sống, nhưng chỉ đôi hời có vật chất
 - D. Làm việc cực khổ đưa đến kết quả thành công và biết dừng người

10. Nguyen do nao da lam Thu tu bo y di Dai-hoc?
 - A. Thieu tien tra hoc phi
 - B. Co hoi di du-lich
 - C. Su bao-dam cua cong-viec toan thoi gian
 - D. Su can thiet cua Huyen ve tai tro tien hoc

11. Chu nao chinh xac nhat de tien ta duc tinh cua Thu trong cuoc doi cua co?
 - A. Khon kho
 - B. Rong rai
 - C. Nhan xet
 - D. Luoi bieng

12. Su chenh mang cua Thu ve ngoi nha cua co da phan chieu nhu the nao?
 - A. Co ay co it tien
 - B. Co ay song thoai mai
 - C. Song ngheo thay vi co tien
 - D. Cuc kho lam viec trong suot ca doi

13. Mot y nghia cua cau chuyen nay
 - A. Co Thu da giao co trong su dat do cua nhung nguoi ngheo kho
 - B. Thu giao co ve vat chat; nhung da mat het hanh-phuc.
 - C. Thu giao co khi con tre, nhung da gap kho khan khi co em Huyen tro ve.
 - D. Co Huyen luon biet minh ngheo so voi chi Thu.

14. Ket thuc cau chuyen, Thu da quyet dinh de
 - A. Thuong thuc cuoc doi voi nguoi em Huyen
 - B. Lam viec de lay lai cong viec cho em
 - C. Ngung cam thay hoi han cho Em
 - D. Lo lang nhieu ve tuong lai

15. Co Thu da lam gi sau khi ve huu?
 - A. Co ta da di lich va thuong thuc
 - B. Co ta tim viec lam khac
 - C. Co ta da mua nha khac
 - D. Co ta da moi em toi tham vieng

16. Khong noi toi su lo dien ben ngoai cua co Thu, phong dep, hoac con ga tay, Huyen da lo la co ta . . .
 - A. Da de y toi tinh cam hon la vat chat
 - B. Khong the tuong tuong duoc la co da co nhieu
 - C. Cam thay cuoc doi cua co da bi phung phi
 - D. Da ghen tuong de noi le bat cu dieu gi

17. Thu đã đạt giá trị nào nhiều nhất trước khi câu chuyện chấm dứt?
- Cải tạo đầm đai mắt già
 - Công việc tự làm
 - Công việc trả lương cao
 - Cải nhà trang bị đầy đủ đồ dùng
18. Nếu Huyền không tới ở chung với chị của Huyền là Thu, Thu có thể
- Tìm thấy công việc khác
 - Tiếp tục sống cuộc sống mà cô luôn có
 - Tìm một người bạn khác để trò chuyện
 - Y thức là cô đã làm phung phí cuộc đời của cô
19. Để kết thúc câu chuyện, câu chuyện nào có Thu thích nhất để nhận nó câu chuyện của cô?
- Tiền bạc không thể nào mua được tình bạn.
 - Hồ hàng bao giờ cũng hơn người dùng.
 - Bí quyết của sự thành công là kiên trì.
 - Sống như ngày hôm nay là ngày của đời mình.
20. Cuối cùng của câu chuyện, Thu ý thức rằng
- Suốt cuộc đời của cô đã bị hưởng đãi sai
 - Đã lựa chọn sai cho nghề nghiệp của mình
 - Sự liên hệ giữa Thu và Huyền không có ý nghĩa
 - Cô đã có một cuộc sống đầy đủ và giàu có
21. Điều gì đã giúp người ta hiểu nhiều nhất câu chuyện này?
- Hiểu và cảm thấy thế nào khi có việc làm
 - Hiểu những người về hưu sống như thế nào
 - Hiểu sự liên hệ giữa hai chị em như thế nào
 - Hiểu ý nghĩa khác nhau của sự thành công
22. Để hiểu sự tóm tắt trong phần 1, bạn nên
- Tìm hiểu sách bách-khoa toàn thư
 - Tìm câu văn đó trong từ điển
 - Nghi ngờ công thức toán-học
 - Nghi ngờ những người già
23. Quan niệm cuộc sống của nhân vật thu ba trong câu chuyện này là một đặc thù quan trọng; bởi vì nó
- Cho phép tác-gia biểu-lo tình cảm cả hai chị em Thu và Huyền.
 - Làm người đọc biết những điều mà Thu nghĩ.
 - Ngăn cản người đọc biết cô Huyền phản ứng như thế nào đối với chị cô ta.
 - Cho phép tác gia dẫn người đọc đi vào cốt chuyện.

24. Chiến lược nào hay nhất để quyết định đề-mục của câu chuyện đặc biệt này?
- Phân tích cuộc đối thoại.
 - Phân tích đề tài.
 - Kiểm soát nhân vật chính thay đổi như thế nào?
 - Kiểm soát câu chuyện này về nghĩa bóng và đối chiếu.
1. Mục đích của phần 1 trong câu chuyện này là
- Phác họa cốt truyện.
 - Đối chiếu các nhân vật.
 - Ấm chỉ vào sự quyết-định.
 - Trình bày biến cố từ qua khu.
2. Trong những câu sau đây câu nào không phải là mục-đích của đề tài , "Người giàu hơn,Người nghèo hơn"?
- Dat khám phá một bài học các nhân vật học hỏi.
 - Chỉ định sự mỉa mai của câu chuyện.
 - Đối chiếu các nhân vật.
 - Tạo nên sự dinh chi, tri hoan.
27. Tác gia nói về Thu không chia sẻ cả niềm vui và nỗi buồn của cô ta với Huyen để
- Diễn tả trình bày sự nhẹ nhõm của Thu.
 - Cho thí dụ về sự mặc cảm của Huyen.
 - To ra Thu sống thế nào trong cuộc sống .
 - Bao trước điều quyết định của câu chuyện.
28. Phần 19 là thí dụ của cốt truyện
- Hành động đang lên.
 - Quyết định.
 - Đối thoại.
 - Xếp đặt.
29. Biết về chú nào trong những chú sau đây sẽ giúp người ta hiểu Thu nhiều hơn?
- Diễn khùng
 - Thanh-cong
 - Ve huu
 - Long xa-ky
30. Phần nào đóng góp nhiều nhất tới đặc thù của Thu?
- Phần 5
 - Phần 6
 - Phần 7
 - Phần 8

31. Biet ve su khon kho se giup nguoi ta hieu ro mot trong hoan canh trong cau chuyen nay?
- A. Thu ky vong duoc dinh cu voi mai nha va gia dinh.
 - B. Nha bang cua Thu da tro thanh su chiem huu rieng va qui gia.
 - C. Huyen da bat dau xoay vong cau chuyen voi su thich thu mon an ngon o trong da day.
 - D. Huyen tiec xot vi nang khong co con.
32. Cau chuyen la loai chuyen gi?
- A. That
 - B. Mao hiem
 - C. Tieu su
 - D. Huyen bi
33. Tai sao tac-gia noi ve nha cua Thu da bi tan pha?
- A. De nhan manh ve thoi quen lon xon cua Thu
 - B. De bieu hieu Cuoc doi ngheo kho cua Thu thay vi tien bac
 - C. Chi dinh tai sao Huyen khong ganh-ti voi Thu
 - D. De giup nguoi doc tien doan tai sao Huyen khong muon tham chi
34. Cau nao dung hau het de ket luan trong su tom tat cua cau chuyen nay?
- A. Huyen da that vong la khong bao gio co con.
 - A. Chong cua Huyen da chet o ngoai nuoc va khong cho Huyen mot mun con nao ngoai tru cay ken.
 - C. Huyen va Thu la hai chi em va ca hai khac tinh nhau.
 - D. Thu da co gang di tim viec lam sau khi co da mat cong viec.

APPENDIX B

LETTER REQUESTING PARENTAL CONSENT

May 12, 1997

Dear Parents:

I would like your permission to have your child participate in a test that I will administer. It will take forty-five minutes and the scores for this test will assist me in my research work for my degree of Doctor of Education from Wayne State University.

The test is called "Vietnamese Native Language Test" (VNLT). It will aid me in my study about the relationship between Native Vietnamese Literacy and English Language Reading Achievement of Vietnamese refugee high school students.

I would be happy to discuss your child's testing result and accomplishment during our final parent-teachers conference.

Please complete the form below to indicate whether you are willing to have your son or daughter's test results and questionnaire responses included in my report. There is a place for you child to sigh the form as well. Feel free to call at the school if you have any questions.

My daughter/son _____ has my permission to take the Vietnamese Native Language Test and be included in Mrs. Tran-Nguyen's test results.

Signed _____

Date _____

APPENDIX C
CODING SHEET AND QUESTIONNAIRE

- 1-3 Respondent I.D. #() () ()
- 4-5 Age: () ()
- 6-7 Years in USA: () ()
- 8 Religion: 1. Ancestor ()
 2. Buddhist
 3. Catholic
 4. Christian Reformed
 5. Protestant
 6. Atheist
- 9-10 Grade: () ()
- 11 Gender: 1. Male ()
 2. Female
- 12 Orgin: 1. Urban ()
 2. Rural
- 13 Family: 1. Single parent ()
 2. Both parents
- 14 Education of Father: Circle last year of education completed. ()
 1. Elementary
 2. Middle
 3. High School
 4. College
- 15 Education of Mother: ()
 1. Elementary
 2. Middle
 3. High School
 4. College
- 16 Socio-economic Status: ()
 1. Upper middle class (\$20,000-50,000)
 2. Low middle class (under \$20,000)
 3. Working class (under \$19,000-10,000)
- 17 Language spoken at home: ()
 1. Vietnamese only
 2. English only
 3. Both
- 18 Family Size and Birth order:
 How many children were there in your family or orgin?
 1. oldest ()
 2. middle
 3. youngest
 4. only
- 19 20 NLST Score: () ()
- 21 Literacy: 1. Literate ()
 2. Illiterate
- 22-23 Cat Score: () ()

APPENDIX D
STUDENTS' WRITING PROTOCOLS

I am writing about myself. I am Vietnamese and studying all subjects in English in high school. I escaped my native Vietnamese country to come to find freedom. I want to graduate from high school with honor points and go to the university where my brother is now. Before I went to the United States, I was in a Phillipine camp and I stayed there for one year. I feel I am too old for high school. My father speaks French and English and my mom does too. I have difficulties understanding my American teachers. They talk so fast, so I feel stupid when I get bad grades. I wish the American people would try to understand my language so that I can learn more English and get better grades.

I am very nice to people and I like to talk to people. Sometimes people don't want to talk to me because I speak English with a heavy accent. I have many problems with my English class. I get D's and E's all of the time, but I get straight A's in Math. My Dad is very good in Math and he helps me when I do my homework. He cannot help me in English. My Dad has a good job because he is good in Math.

I like school because it gives me something to do from 8:00 to 2:30 and I want to speak English better like I speak my Vietnamese language. I believe I can speak better English if my American teachers are patient try to listen to me.

I am T-----T-----P. That is my name is in Vietnamese order but my American teacher calls my name by the wrong way. They call me by my first name, middle name, and then my last name. I feel embarrassed and confused about the misunderstanding. I tried to overcome my low self esteem and make more friends. My parents just bought a new house where there is interesting things to see. I can go to see the movies and talk to my friends who live in the city. These city kids play alot of sports and use the computer alot.

My name is C-----N---. I am 16 years old. I go to Union High school. My favorite sport is soccer and my favorite hobbies collecting baseball cards and watching T.V. I like to meet the nice people who are helping me to learn English. I like to play chess after school. I like to meet many interesting people at my school.

I like to play volleyball and tennis. They are both fun sports. I like to relax on the weekend I watch T.V., listen to Vietnamese music and visit my relatives. I like to enjoy my weekends. I go to church on Sunday with my family and talk to my friends from Union High School. I like to sleep in on the weekends.

My name is D-----B----- . I am 16 years old and will be 17 on July 27. I have been going to Union High for two years, and I'm a sophomore. I faced many language barriers. I cannot pronounce the words "three" and "tree" differently or "word" and "world". We do not have the "w" and "th" sounds.

I don't care what people think about my pronunciation. I always try my best at English. I know one thing for sure, if I had more American friends, I would speak better English. My parents used to send me to summer camps. I learned a lot of things and even learned to speak better English there. I spent almost two years in a Malaysia camp. I did not go to school when I was at the camp. I played a lot and helped my mom and my brothers around the house.

My name is T-----T----- . I am an Amerasian and I am in the ninth grade. I was born in Vietnam and I have never seen my Dad, who is an American soldier. My Vietnamese mother was ashamed of me because I am an Amerasian child. I was living with my grandmother until I came to the United States. My mother comes to visit me once in a while and gives me some money. She worked in the city and made good money. My mother was illiterate. She cannot read and cannot write in Vietnamese. After my Dad came back to America, she told me. My mother got remarried and had three more kids. In my family, I am 1 out of four children. I am warm-hearted, sensitive, and loving. Sometimes I cannot study because I think about my father. I think of other kids who are lucky and have fathers. Their fathers have good jobs and make good money. I hope you liked this paragraph about me.

My name is H-----P-----and I am Vietnamese but I was born here in the United States. I can talk very good English but I stumble on some words because I talk Vietnamese at home. I am sixteen years old and the oldest in my family. I work at a hospital and have my own bank account. One thing I like about being Vietnamese is that I can talk to my grandmother and if I visit Vietnam someday, I don't have to worry about the language.

Hi my name is T---. and I am 15 years of age. I think of myself as a nice, smart, intelligent boy. I have brown eyes, curly afro hair because my dad is a black American soldier. I am also very handsome but cripple.

I was born in Vietnam and I was staying in an orphanage. The Catholic nuns took care of me. When I was seven years of age, I got out the orphanage and worked at a bakery shop. Once day, I heard that all Amerasians can go to the United States to live. I left Vietnam and I miss the nun who took care of me. I love her very much. She was like my mother; because when I was born I have never seen my mother or father. I like to write poems and I like to learn foreign languages. Everyone looks at me and thinks that I am Black but I have mixed blood. I want to learn English and go to college someday. Sometimes, I feel that I cannot be successful because I am a Black Amerasian. I was rejected by Vietnamese people in Vietnam.

My name is T-----N----- . I was born in Vietnam. I lived there until I was 10 years old . Then me and my family escaped the Communists and went to Thailand Camp. My father is still in Vietnam. He is a bad man because he is not nice to my mother and to us. I am the oldest in my family and I have to take care of my two brothers. I worked hard to earn money when I was in Vietnam to help my mother. Now, I am living in America and go to Union High school. I am very good in Math but I have problems with English. The American teachers are impatient with me and I felt so bad when I couldn't find anyone who could help me. I wish I can find a Vietnamese teacher who can speak both languages. If the teacher helped me I think I would of passed.

References

- Adler, P. X. (1975). The transition experience: An alternative view of culture shock. Journal of Humanistic Psychology, 15, 13-23.
- Au, K. H. (1995). Multicultural Perspectives on Literacy Research. Journal of Reading Behavior, 27(1), 85-97.
- Au, K. H., & Jordan C. (1981). Teaching Reading To Hawaiian children: Finding a culturally appropriate solution. In H.T. Trueba, G.P. Guthrie, & D.H. Au (Eds.), Culture and the bilingual classroom: Studies in classroom ethnography (pp. 139-152). Rowley, MA.: Newbury.
- Au, K. H. (1993). Chronology of Asian Pacific Americans in the United States. Asian Pacific American Heritage Council (APAHC). Rowley, MA: Newbury.
- Barnes, T. J. (1976). Of all the 36 alternatives Indochinese resettlement in America. Senior seminar in foreign policy. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of State.
- Ben-Zeev, S. (1979). The effect of Spanish-English bilingualism in children from less privileged neighborhoods on cognitive strategy. Working Papers on Biliginualism 14, 83-122.
- Bilingual Education Program. (1993-94). Final evaluation report. Grand Rapids, MI: Grand Rapids Public Schools.
- Bilingual Education Handbook. (1989-90). Detroit Public Schools Department of Bilingual Education.
- Blackwell, J. E. (1989). Mentoring: An action strategy for increasing minority faculty. Academy, 75(5), 8-14.
- Borg, R.W., & Gall, M. D. (1983). Educational research. New York: Longman.
- Brisbois, J. E. (1995). Connections Between First and Second-Language Reading. Journal of Reading Behavior, 27(4), 565-583.
- Cahoon, P. (1989). Ambassador: Models for at risk students. Educational Leadership, 6(5), 64.
- Campbell, R. N. (1984). The immersion approach of foreign language teaching in studies or immersion education: A collection for United States educators. Sacramento, CA: State Department of Education.
- Carter, K. (1988). Using cases to frame mentor-novice conversations about

teaching. Theory Into Practice, 27(3), 214-222.

Chan, C. K. K., Burtis, P. J., Scardamalia, M., & Bereiter, C. (1992). Constructive activity in learning from text. American Educational Research Journal, 29, 97-118.

Cohen, A. D. (1978). Research the linguistic outcomes of bilingual programs. The Bilingual Review, 9(2), 97-108.

Collier, V. P. (1987). Age and rate of acquisition of second language for academic purposes. TESOL Quarterly, 21, 509-531.

Crawford, J. (1989). Bilingual Education: History, politics, theory, and practice. Trenton, NJ: Crane Publishing, Co.

Cummins, J. (1981). The role of primary language development in promoting educational success for language minority students. Schooling and language minority students: A theoretical framework. Los Angeles: Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center, California State University.

Cummins, J. (1982). Linguistics Interdependence among Japanese and Vietnamese Immigrant students. InterAmerica Research Associates. Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Education. (ED).

Cummins, J. (1983). Conceptual and linguistic foundations of language assessment. In S. Seidner (Ed.), Issues of Language Assessment: Volume 2. Language assessment and curriculum planning (pp. 131-178). Illinois State Board of Education.

Cummins, J. (1987). Bilingualism, language proficiency, and metalinguistic development. In P. Harmel, M. Paliji, & D. Aaronson (Eds.), Childhood bilingualism: Aspects of linguistic, cognitive, and social development (pp. 57-73). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Cummins, J. (1989). Empowering minority students. Sacramento: CA Association of Bilingual Educators.

DeHaven, E. P. (1983). Teaching and learning the language arts. Boston: Little, Brown, and Co.

Diaz, S., Moll, L. C., & Mehan, H. (1986). Sociocultural resources in instruction: A context specific approach. In: Beyond Language: Social and cultural factors in schooling language minority students. Los Angeles: California State University, Evaluation, Dissemination, and Assessment Center.

Dillard, J. L. (1972). Black English: Its history and usage in the United States. New York: Random House.

- Driscoll, A., Peterson, K. S., & Kauchak, D. (1985). Designing a mentor system for beginning teachers. Journal of Staff Development, 6(2), 108-117.
- Erickson, C. (1993). Transformations and school success: The politics and culture of educational achievement. In E. Jacob & C. Jordan (Eds.) Minority Education : Anthropological perspectives (pp. 27-51). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Falkenstein, L. C. (1993). Global Education: State of the Art Research Summary Report. Portland, OR: Northwest Regional Education Laboratory
- Ferdman, B. M. (1990). Literacy and cultural identity. Harvard Educational Review, 60, 181-204.
- Fillmore, L. W. (1993). The language learner as an individual: Implications of research on individual differences for the ESL teacher. In Clarke, M., & J. Handscombe (Eds.), Pacific perspectives on language and teaching (p. 157-173). Washington, DC: TESOL.
- Fitzgerald, Jill. (1995). English-as-a-second-language reading instruction in the United States: A research review. Journal of Reading Behavior, 27(2), 115-147,
- Fry, P. S., & Ghosh, R. (1990). Attributions of success and failure: Comparison of cultural differences between Asian & Caucasian children. Journal of Cross- Cultural Psychology. 11(3), 343-363.
- Garner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1972). Attitudes and motivation in second language learning. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Garner, W. C., & Cole, E. (1986). The achievement of students in low- SES settings. Urban Education, 21(2), 189-206.
- Gass, S. M. (1994). Second language Acquisition. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Gerstein, M. (1985). Mentoring: An old practice in a knowledge- based society. Journal of Counseling and Development, 64(2), 156-157.
- Germain, R.B. (1985). Beyond the internal-external continuum: The development of formal operational reasoning about control of reinforcements. Adolescence, XX(80), 939-947.
- Goldenberg, C. (1991). Instructional conversations and their classroom application. (Practice Report: II) Santa Cruz, CA: The National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning.

Goldman, S. (1983). Utilization of knowledge acquired through the first language in comprehending a second language: Narrative comprehension by Spanish- English speakers. (Final Report). Rosslyn, VA: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Goodman, P. (1991). Compulsory mis-education and the community of scholars. New York: Random House.

Hakuta, K. (1986). Cognitive development of bilingual children. Los Angeles: Center for Language Education and Research. .

Hakuta, K. (1986). Mirror of Language: The debate on bilingualism. New York: Basic Books, Inc.

Hakuta, K., & Gould, L.J. (1987). Synthesis of research on bilingual reduction. Educational Leadership, 43(6), 38-45.

Handbook for teaching Vietnamese speaking students (1982). Sacramento, CA: California State Department of Education Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education.

Hardcastle, B. (1988). Spiritual Connections: Proteges' reflections on significant mentorship. Theory Into Practice, 27(3), 201-208.

Heath, S.B. (1983). Ways with words: Language, life and work in communities and classrooms. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Heath, S. B. (1992). The Braid of Literature. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Heath, S. B. (1993). Identity and Inner-City Youth. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University.

Hourey, K. (1988). Mentor- teachers as inquiring professionals. Theory Into Practice. 27(3), 209-213.

Hui, H. C., & Triandis, H. C. (1983). Multistrategy approach to cross-cultural research: The case of loss of control. Journal of Cross- Cultural Psychology, 14(1), 65-83.

Jencks, C. (1972). Inequality: A reassessment of the effects of family and schooling in America. New York: Harper and Row.

Jew, V. M. (1982). The effects of Chinese character recognition instruction on the English reading readiness skills of Chinese and non-Chinese-speaking kindergarten students. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of the Pacific, Stockton, CA.

Kahle, J. B. (1982). Factors affecting minority and success in science. In R. Yager

(Ed.). What Research says to the Science Teacher (pp. 80-85). Washington DC: National Science Teachers' Association.

Kirshenbaum, N. (1982). Effects of bilingualism on intelligence" A Critical Review. Wheaton, MD: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Krashen, S. (1981). Bilingual Education and second language acquisition theory. In schooling and language minority students: A theoretical framework. California State Department of Education. Los Angeles: Evaluation, Dissertation, and Assessment Center, California State University.

Lambert, W. E. (1984). An overview of issues in immersion education. In studies on immersion education: A collection for United States educators. Sacramento CA; California Department of Education.

Lao, R. C. (1977). Levenson's IPC (Internal- External Control) Scale. A compromise of Chinese and American students. Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 9(1), 113-123.

Lopez, C. (1990). The Relationship between elementary Spanish language instruction and Black inner city students' achievement. Unpublished Dissertation, Wayne State University, Detroit, MI.

Mace-Matluck, B. J., Dominquez, D., Holtzman, W., Hoover, W., & Cummins, J. (1983). Language and literacy learning in bilingual instruction study. Wheaton, Md: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

McMillan, J. H. & Schumacher, S. (1984). Research in education. Boston, MA: Little, Brown and Company.

National Assessment of Education (1982). Progress Report: Students from homes in which English is not the dominant language. Who are they and how do they read? (No. 11-R050) Washington, DC: Author.

Nguyen, V. (1995). Vietnamese Students' Success. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan

Nguyen, V. (1996). Vietnamese Native Language. The Vietnamese Community Magazine, (8), 1

Nguyen, X. P. (1995, May). Family and Youth. Vietnamese Religious Magazine.

Nobel, B. L. (1982). Linguistic for bilinguals. London: Newbury House Publishers, Inc.

- Norusis, M. J. (1988). The SPSS guide to data analysis for SPSSX. Chicago, IL: SPSS, Inc.
- Oberg, R. (1960). Cultural shock: Adjustment to new cultural environments. Practical Anthropology, 7, 177-182.
- Ogbu, J. (1993). Variability in minority school performance: A problem in search of an explanation. In E. Jacob & C. Jordan (Eds.) Minority Education: Anthropological Perspectives (pp.83-111). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Ovando, C. J. & Collier, V. P. (1985). Bilingual and esl classrooms: Teaching in multicultural contexts. New York: MacGraw- Hill Book Company.
- Owens, R. E. (1992). Language development: An introduction. Columbus, OH: Merrill.
- Padilla, A. M., Fairchild, H. H., & Valadez, C. M. (Eds.). (1990). Foreign language education: Issue and strategies. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Peal, E., & Lambert, W. E. (1962). The relation of bilingualism to intelligence. Psychological Monographs. Sacramento CA; California Department of Education
- Ramirez, J. D. (1991). Final report: longitudinal study of structured English immersion strategy, early-exit and late-exit transitional bilingual education programs. Washington, DC: Office of Bilingual Education.
- Reyes, M. de la Luz. (1991). A process approach to literacy instruction for Spanish-speaking students: In search of a best fit. In E.H. Hiebert (Ed.), Literacy for a diverse society: Perspectives, practices, and policies (pp. 157-171). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Rigg, P. (1991). Whole language in TESOL. TESOL Quarterly, 25(3), 521-542.
- Slobin, D. I. (1971). Psycholinguistics. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman, and Company.
- Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (1977). Language in the process of cultural assimilation and instructional incorporation of linguistic minorities. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education (ISBN 0-897-005-X).
- Snyder, T. R. (1977). Affective Education : A Comprehensive Program to Promote Student Self-Actualization and Human Relations Skills. Columbus, OH: Teacher's Manual, Development Institute.
- Spangenburg-Urbschat, K. (1994) Kids Come in All Language: Reading

Instruction for ESL Students. Newark, NJ: International Reading Association.

SPSS Inc. (1988). SPSS-X user's guide (3rd ed.). Chicago, IL: Author.

Stein, C. B. (1986). Sink or Swim: The politics of bilingual education. New York: Praeger.

Steinberg, L., Blinde, P. L., & Chan, K. S. (1984). Dropping out among language minority youth. Review of Educational Research, 54(1), 113-132.

Tierce, H. W. (1979, February). The heart of math matters. Teacher, 55, 53-57.

Tucker, G. R. (1990). Second language education: Issues and perspectives. In A. M. Padilla, H. H. Fairchild, & C. M. Valadez (Eds). Innovations in language education: Vol. 2. Immersion and foreign language education. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Thonis, E. W. (1981). Reading instruction for language minority students. In Schooling and language minority students: A theoretical framework, California State Department of Educating. Los Angeles: Evaluation, Dissertation and Assessment Center, California State University.

Thornburg, D. G. (1993). Intergenerational Literacy Learning with Bilingual Families: A Context for the Analysis of Social Mediation of Thought. Journal of Reading Behavior, 25(3), 323 - 348.

United States General Accounting Office (1987). Bilingual education: A look at the research evidence (GAO/PEMD 87-12 BR). Maryland: US General Accounting Office.

University of the State of New York (1982). Education for a global perspective: A plan for New York State. Albany, NY: State Education Department.

Valadez, C. M. (1990). Bilingual education: issues and strategies. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Voyagers In The Land (1983). A report on unaccompanied southeast asian refugee children. New York: Migration and Refugee Services.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1962). Thought and Language. NY; John Wiley and Sons, Inc.

Willig, A. C. (1982). The effectiveness of bilingual education: Review of a report. NABE Journal, 6(2-3), 1-19.

Willig, A. C. (1985). A meta-analysis of selected studies on the effectiveness of bilingual education. Review of Educational Research, 55(3), 269-317.

Witkin, H. A., & Goodenough, D. R. (1981). Cognitive Styles: Essence and origins. New York: International University Press.

Wong, B. (1985). Issues in cognitive-behavioral interventions in academic skill areas. Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology, 13, 425-442.

Wong, B., Harris, K. R., & Graham, S. (1991). Cognitive-behavioral procedures: Academic applicants with students with learning disabilities. In P.C. Kendall (Ed.), Child and adolescent therapy: Cognitive-behavioral procedure (pp. 245-275.). New York: Guilford Press.

Wong-F. L., & Valadez, C. (1986). Teaching bilingual learners. In M. C. Wittrock (ED.) Handbook of research in teaching (3rd ed., pp. 648-685). New York: McMillan Publishing Company.

ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN NATIVE VIETNAMESE LANGUAGE LITERACY AND ENGLISH LANGUAGE READING ACHIEVEMENT OF VIETNAMESE HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

by

MARY PHUOC TRAN-NGUYEN

May, 1998

Adviser: Dr. Rodolfo Martinez

Major: Curriculum and Instruction

Degree: Doctor of Education

The problem under investigation in this study was to determine whether there was a relationship between native Vietnamese language literacy and English language reading achievement of Vietnamese High School students. This research was needed in order to identify literacy in L1 is transferred and enhances reading achievement in L2.

This study was focused on a group of 90 LEP Vietnamese speaking students, who attended 9th and 10th grades level in three high schools in urban public school district with the Native Language Skill Test. The median for the NLST scores was the criterion used to form two categories of cognitive literacy styles - illiterate and literate. The reading scores on the California Achievement Test (CAT) was used as the dependent variable in this study. Analysis using t-tests for two independent samples were performed to provide evidence of statistically significant differences between illiterate and literate subjects in reading scores. The reading comprehension of English story was higher for literate independent than for illiterate independent subjects. Significant differences were also found between 9th and 10th grade students, as well as for the interaction between grade

and literacy levels.

Results of these analyses confirmed the existence of a significantly positive relationship between the achievement of LEP students in English reading and their degree of literacy in the native language. The will to preserve the Vietnamese language is as strong as the desire to master English to perfection. Once some degree of proficiency is achieved in Vietnamese, the phenomenon of "Prior Knowledge" and "interdependence of Learning" come to play and the abilities acquired in Vietnamese can then be transferred to English.

Autobiographical Statement

Mary Phuoc Tran-Nguyen

- Education:** 1998 – Doctor of Education
Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan
Major: Curriculum and Instruction
- 1975 – Master of Educational Psychology
Eastern Michigan University, Ypsilanti, Michigan
- 1972 – Bachelor of Arts
Sienna Heights College, Adrian, Michigan
- Professional Experience** 1990 to Present
Grand Rapids Public Schools, Grand Rapids, Michigan
High School Teacher
- 1980 to 1989
Houston Community College, Houston, Texas
Bilingual Counselor
- 1976 to 1979
Grand Rapids Public Schools, Grand Rapids, Michigan
Bilingual Counselor
- Awards** 1991 – Bilingual Award for Excellent Achievement
- Publications:** Provides articles to the Vietnamese Communication Magazine
published in Grand Rapids on a bi-monthly basis
- Other Activities:** Radio program on WWBY-FM – Weekly Announcer for Vietnamese
Language Listeners
Provide counseling assistance to Vietnamese students at Grand Rapids
Community College who are experiencing problems
Volunteer to teach Vietnamese and Hispanic adults seeking United
States Citizenship
- Professional Organizations:** National Education Association
Asian Professional Association
Vietnamese Catholic Association
Board of Education - St. John Vianney