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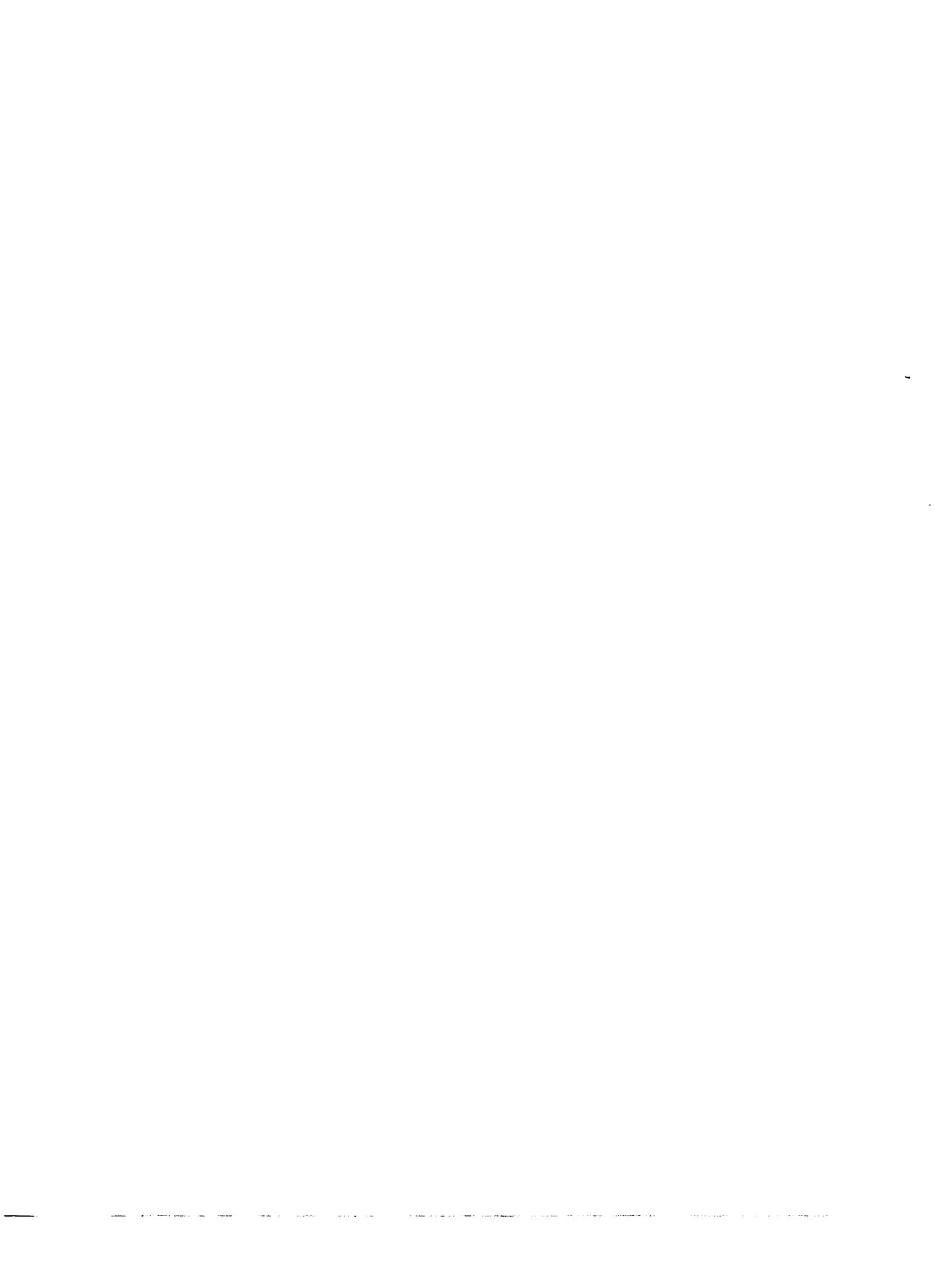
**Experimental impact of a Vietnamese/English transitional
bilingual education program (K-2) on native and second
language proficiency**

Pham, Quy Kim, Ph.D.

The University of Arizona, 1989

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EXPERIMENTAL IMPACT OF A VIETNAMESE/ENGLISH
TRANSITIONAL BILINGUAL EDUCATION PROGRAM (K-2)
ON NATIVE AND SECOND LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

by

Quy Kim Pham

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the
DIVISION OF EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS AND ADMINISTRATION

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
For the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
WITH A MAJOR IN FOUNDATIONS OF EDUCATION

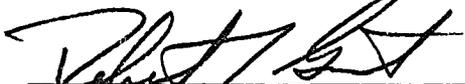
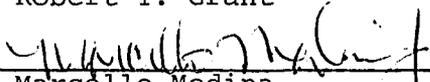
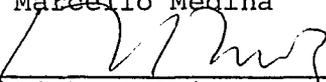
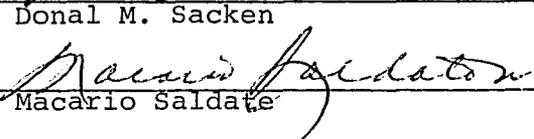
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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine whether sex, age, socioeconomic status and grade levels affected Vietnamese (native) and English (second) oral language proficiency for Vietnamese students as a result of their 3-year (K-2) exposure to an experimental transitional bilingual education program. The study was also aimed at finding out whether a relationship existed between Vietnamese language proficiency and English language proficiency.

The selection of 126 Vietnamese American students who served as subjects of this study was based on the fact that they had participated in a transitional bilingual education program from the beginning of the 1984-85 school year through the 1986-87 school year and the scores they had obtained on the Language Assessment Scales (LAS) were available for both kindergarten and second grade.

Upon selection of these students, their school records were examined. First, the scores they had obtained on the LAS which measured their proficiency in English and Vietnamese at the beginning of their kindergarten year (pretest, Fall 1984) and at the end of their second grade year (posttest, Spring 1987) were recorded. Second, each

subject's sex was noted. Third, the subjects' birthdates were recorded. Finally, the children's socioeconomic status (SES) was taken into consideration by means of the school information which indicated whether a child had totally paid, reduced price, or free lunch in school.

The statistical treatments used were analysis of covariance and Spearman's rho correlation. Tukey post-hoc tests were calculated where appropriate.

The findings of the study are as follows:

1. There was a significant difference in Vietnamese language proficiency due to sex, socioeconomic status, and grade levels. But there was no significant difference in Vietnamese due to age.
2. There was a significant difference in English language proficiency due to sex, age, socioeconomic status, and grade levels.
3. There was a significant difference in English language proficiency due to Vietnamese language proficiency and grade levels.
4. There was a significant positive relationship between Vietnamese language proficiency and English language proficiency in second grade.

Implications are:

1. A replication of this study with older students would help validate the present findings which were

based on a sample selected from only Vietnamese pupils who had progressed from kindergarten to second grade.

2. Similar studies on a larger scale should be conducted with other ethnic groups, and in different geographic areas.
3. The relationship between language proficiency and academic performance should be investigated.
4. Language assessment instruments measuring both oral and written language proficiency should be used in similar studies with older students.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Immediately after the communist takeover in South Vietnam on April 30, 1975, Vietnamese refugees began to arrive in the United States and with them came the Vietnamese children to be admitted to American schools. Having left their homeland and trying to get resettled in a totally new environment, these refugees and their children face many problems: economic, social, psychological, linguistic, cultural, and educational. Learning English is undoubtedly an urgent task they must undertake in order to solve their problems.

According to Nguyen Dang Liem (1982), numerous studies have proved that one's native language and culture are important factors in one's sense of identity as an individual and as a member of a group (Lambert, 1974; Clarke, 1976; Schumann, 1975). To learn a new language and to live in another cultural environment is to adopt a new identity. McNair (1977) pointed out that learning a foreign language involves acquiring some kind of command of the language and learning about the language itself. Similarly, foreign language students should learn something

of the sociocultural makeup of the country whose language they are learning; and this should be an integral part of the language course, fulfilling a general education function (Vereschagin & Kostomarov, 1974). Likewise, there is a wide area of nonverbal aspects of teaching and learning foreign languages that should be taken into consideration, as noted in Beattie (1977).

As mentioned earlier, native language and culture are important factors, and learning a new language and living in another cultural environment means adopting a new identity. Furthermore, learning and cognitive styles are culturally bound, and students' attitudes toward the language to be learned and the people speaking that language determine to a large extent the degree of success in their language acquisition (Muchnick & Wolfe, 1982). Consequently, in order to set up methodologies in second-language teaching for Vietnamese American students, it is important that their attitudes toward second-language learning, cognitive styles, and sociocultural patterns of behavior be considered.

Vietnamese-Americans value harmony more than personal achievement and competitiveness, which are equated with selfishness. They try to bury conflict if possible and avoid direct confrontation at any cost. They consider smooth interpersonal relations vital and will attempt to

preserve them at any expense. Consequently, they express their desires by indirection, hinting, and talking around the subject. Anglo straightforwardness is sometimes considered to be impolite or brutal. The Vietnamese code requires that one not come directly to the point. To do so shows a lack of intelligence or courtesy. Hence, in interpersonal relations, one must "hear the heart" of the speaker through his or her words (Liem, 1980). Thus, in second-language teaching and learning, Vietnamese-American students' desire for harmony means that direct corrections, which are considered brutal and inconsiderate, should be avoided.

For Anglos, success is seen in the form of individual achievement. More importance is placed on self-interest than on loyalties to family, friends, or group. In contrast, Vietnamese Americans direct their concern more toward others than themselves, are concerned about other people's opinions, and are willing to make sacrifices for the good of family or organization (Liem, 1982).

In second-language teaching and learning, this concern for others can be utilized in group-learning settings where competition is limited and cooperation enhanced. The counseling-learning method advocated by Curran (1976) seems to be suitable to the Vietnamese-American orientation toward others. Curran's method is also called Community

Language Learning. It is student-centered, and learning takes place in group experience and reflection in which students help each other and exchange information. Responsibility for learning lies with the students, while the teacher interferes as little as possible.

In the Vietnamese way of life, the family rather than the individual is the basic unit of society. The individual accepts the responsibility for the care of aged parents and less fortunate relatives. Advice of parents and other elderly members of the family is sought on all important matters. Individuals are expected to subordinate their own desires for the sake of the family's well-being. Such a family-oriented outlook is obviously predominant in Confucian societies such as the Chinese, Korean, Japanese, and Vietnamese (Liem & Kehmeier, 1980).

Because of family relationships, Vietnamese children perceive the necessity of acquiring English the same way their parents do. It can be safely said that they all recognize the importance of English as a means for upward social mobility. Most Vietnamese refugees encourage their children to learn as much English as possible to integrate into the American culture, and to become functional members of the American society. But they do not want their children to forget their own culture and to lose their mother tongue. In other words, Vietnamese refugees

want their children to make efforts to gain fluency in English while striving to maintain their native language. How Vietnamese children living in the United States attain this dualistic linguistic goal is the main concern of this study.

Statement of the Problem

This ex post-facto study investigated the experimental impact of a Vietnamese-English transitional bilingual education program (kindergarten through second grade) on program participants' native and second oral language proficiency.

More specifically, this study sought answers to the following questions:

1. Is there a difference in Vietnamese (native) oral language proficiency for Vietnamese students as a result of their 3-year exposure to an experimental transitional bilingual education program across sex, age, socioeconomic status (SES), and grade levels?
2. Is there a difference in English (second) oral language proficiency for Vietnamese students as a result of their 3-year exposure to an experimental transitional bilingual education program across sex, age, socioeconomic status (SES), and grade levels?

3. Is there a difference in English oral language proficiency for Vietnamese students as a result of their 3-year exposure to an experimental transitional bilingual education program across Vietnamese language proficiency and grade levels?
4. Is there a relationship between Vietnamese (L1) and English (L2) oral language proficiency for Vietnamese students influenced by a 3-year experimental transitional bilingual education program?

In order to adequately examine question 4, the following three sub-questions were postulated:

- 4.1 Is there a relationship between Vietnamese proficiency in kindergarten and Vietnamese proficiency in second grade?
- 4.2 Is there a relationship between Vietnamese proficiency in second grade and English proficiency in second grade?
- 4.3 Is there a relationship between Vietnamese proficiency in kindergarten and English proficiency in second grade?

Justification of the Study

According to Larsen-Freeman (1985), people have been interested in second language acquisition (SLA) since antiquity, but in recent times, much of the research

emphasis has been placed on language teaching. In the early sixties, for example, large scale studies comparing different language teaching methodologies were conducted. Much to the disappointment of advocates of one or another methodology, the results of the comparative studies proved to be inconclusive. Disillusioned by this finding and affected by the behaviorist versus cognitive debate in psychology and the Chomskian revolution in linguistics (Chomsky, 1966), second language researchers' attention began to shift from the teaching process to the learning process. It was this shift in perspective which introduced a new research agenda and gave definition to the field that has come to be known as second language acquisition.

In order to attain the goal of facilitating bilingualism, SLA researchers realized that they would have to take into account the following factors:

- The setting in which the learning/acquisition takes place (in a classroom or in an untutored environment; in a second language or in a foreign language context);
- Learner variables (age; aptitude; motivation; cognitive style; social, psychological, experiential, maturational, neurological, and personal factors);

- The nature of the target language to be acquired and the native language of the learner, and the similarities/differences between them;
- The reasons why the learning is being undertaken (to assimilate into a new cultural community, to travel as a tourist, to pass an examination, to obtain employment, to read scientific text, etc. . . .).

In sum, the scope of SLA research would have to be sufficiently broad to include a variety of learners who speak a variety of native languages, who are in the process of acquiring a variety of second languages in a variety of settings for a variety of reasons (Larsen-Freeman, 1985). This study is aimed at adding more data reflective of this overall orientation.

Since the arrival of the first group of Vietnamese refugees, teachers and educational administrators in the United States have expressed their concerns about helping Vietnamese students assimilate smoothly into the American educational system. Fluency in English is essential if Vietnamese students are to be integrated with their American counterparts in a desirable way. How to help Vietnamese children learn English effectively is a question frequently asked by American teachers and school administrators. Various studies on the acquisition of English as a second language by linguistic minority groups

such as Mexican, Italian, Portuguese, Chinese, Japanese have been conducted, but very little research has been done on the acquisition of English by Vietnamese children living in the United States. It is hoped that the findings of this study will assist teachers and school administrators committed to helping Vietnamese students both succeed in the American school and participate fully in the American society. Furthermore, the findings of this study may contribute to the creation of a comprehensive theory of second language acquisition, which has long been sought by researchers and practitioners involved in this field.

Assumptions Underlying the Study

1. The assessment instruments used in the study are valid and reliable measures for language proficiency.
2. The children selected as subjects of the study are representative of larger groups of Vietnamese American children of the same age.
3. The differences in intelligence among the subjects are negligible.
4. The subjects' learning styles do not differ significantly from one another.
5. Language proficiency measurements of Vietnamese K-2 students sampled can be generalized to other similar populations.

Limitations of the Study

1. Only Vietnamese pupils who had progressed from kindergarten to second grade were sampled.
2. The study was conducted with only one ethnic group.
3. Only one geographic area was involved in the study.
4. The relationship between language proficiency and academic performance was not examined.
5. The language assessment instruments used in the study measure only oral language proficiency.
6. Data obtained as part of a program evaluation did not permit experimental manipulation.

Definitions

Abbreviations.

BICS: Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills.

CALP: Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency.

ESL: English as a Second Language.

L1: First language

L2: Second language.

SES: Socioeconomic status.

SLA: Second language acquisition.

SWONAL: Speakers without a native language.

Terms to be Defined

Additive Bilingualism: A process by which individuals develop proficiency in a second language subsequent to or

simultaneous with the development of proficiency in the primary language.

Affective Filter: A construct developed to refer to the effects of personality, motivation, and other affective variables on second language acquisition.

Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills: A construct originally developed by James Cummins to refer to aspects of language proficiency strongly associated with the basic communicative fluency achieved by all normal speakers of a language.

Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency: A construct originally proposed by James Cummins to refer to aspects of language proficiency strongly related to literacy and academic achievement.

First Language: Native language; primary language; or mother tongue.

Immersion Program: An organized curriculum that includes: (1) L1 development, (2) L2 acquisition, and (3) subject matter development through L2. Immersion programs are developed and managed so that participating students may develop proficient bilingualism.

Second Language: Language to be learned/ acquired.

Submersion Program: An organized curriculum designed for native speakers of a language but often used with language minority students. No special instructional

activities focus upon the needs of language minority students. Submersion programs are often referred to as "Sink or Swim" models. In such programs, language minority students commonly experience a form of subtractive bilingualism, usually limited bilingualism.

Subtractive Bilingualism: A process by which individuals develop less than native-like Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency in L1 as a result of improper exposure to L1 and L2 in school. In certain instances, some individuals additionally experience loss of Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills in L1. In such cases, L1 Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills are replaced by L2 Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills.

Transitional Bilingual Education Program: An organized curriculum that includes: (1) L1 development, (2) L2 acquisition, and (3) subject matter development through L1 and L2.

(Sources of definitions: Beardsmore [1986]; California State Department of Education [1982]; National Clearing House for Bilingual Education [1985].)

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

In this chapter, different literature related to first and second language acquisition, bilingualism, academic performance of bilingual students, and influence of sex, age, and socioeconomic status on school achievement will be reviewed.

First and Second Language Acquisition

Fantini (1985) indicates that people have been fascinated by children's language acquisition for thousands of years. How children acquire their first language as well as how they proceed in acquiring a second language have attracted the attention of a great number of parents and educators throughout the world. Researchers in this field have observed the acquisition of phonemes, lexicon, and syntax by children in their first and second language.

First Language Acquisition of Phonemes

Miller (1951) pointed out that speech is a behavior which is limited by the cognitive and physiological machinery that must do the work. Perception or decoding of speech requires comprehension of 25 to 30 phonetic elements per second. Since the ear cannot separate

individual acoustic events at such a rate, it merges them to form a unitary sensation, which is then perceived as a word or words, then syllables, and, if necessary, as phonemes (Menyuk, 1976). In the encoding of speech, we are limited by the rate at which we move our muscles. Thus, muscles for several successive phonetic segments are moved all at once (Lieberman, 1973). Cognitively, this limitation, which has been described as the "information bottleneck," is overcome through the process of "chunking" (for example, $1+1=1$, $a+t=at$, etc.) (Miller, 1965).

A phoneme, defined as "a class of sounds which all belong together as a single unit in contrast with other sounds of the language" (Stockwell & Bowen, 1965) is semantically empty in isolation. For example, in English, "p" uttered in isolation has no meaning. When two or more phonemes are arranged sequentially in accordance with the rules of a particular language, they form larger units called morphemes. Thus, when "p" is combined with other phonemic units, the morpheme please, written phonemically as /pliz/, emerges. A somewhat different arrangement of phonemes would produce plan, and so on. When morphemes are arranged sequentially, again according to the syntactical, semantic and even social rules of a language, they form units called phrases and sentences, and /pliz/ can become please go, or please don't do that, or yes, please.

Thus, from a relatively small number of phonemes (English has about 50) and the naturally acquired notions of phonetic correspondence, it is not difficult for a native speaker to construct the 10,000 or so morphemes which make up an average speaking vocabulary (DeAvila & Duncan, 1982).

As already stated above, phonemes in isolation are meaningless. Thus, it is not surprising that young children do not acquire phonemes in isolation but as a convergence of the babbling development with perceptive development in which phonemes are learned as parts of words. Fry (1966) describes six steps in this acquisition process:

It is agreed by all observers of infant speech that recognition of words, that is to say, the association of a word with a situation, precedes any deliberate attempt on the part of the child to say the word with reference to that situation. Let us look more closely at what is involved in acquiring a particular word. First, the baby hears a group of sounds associated with a given situation; second, he learns to recognize the sounds; third, he makes his own attempt at reproducing the word, at first without associating it with the situation; fourth, he says the word in the situation in order to call forth a response; fifth, he changes his own utterance to make it match the pattern he has heard in order to obtain more certain and more satisfactory responses; sixth, he continues the modification process until the word gains desired response from all listeners in all appropriate situations (p. 192).

As can be seen, the speech learning process involves successive stages of finer cognitive/acoustic discrimination.

While there are individual differences in manner and speed with which young children acquire a phonological system, there seems to be evidence that most children pass through more or less similar stages of development which include pre-babbling, babbling, development of articulation with the establishment of auditory feedback, and the development of a phonological system (Fry, 1966; Lenneberg, 1973). In the babbling stage, the young child produces a great number of sounds including some that will be useful later on, some that may never be needed in the native language, and some that will be discarded and relearned as part of a "connected stream of speech" at a later date (Jakobson, 1941).

The order in which phonemic units are added to the child's speech seems to be determined by two factors: the relative difficulty of pronouncing the sound and the informational load carried by a certain phoneme. For example, certain sounds such as the consonants /s/, /r/, and the unvoiced "th" sound require more muscles and finer acoustic coordination than "simpler" sounds like /p/, /t/, or /m/ (Fry, 1966). Informational loading refers to the frequency with which the distinction between a given pair

of phonemes is employed to distinguish one word from another. That is, if the difference between two phonemes is critical for the words the child is hearing and using all the time, such as /k/ and /g/, as in "bag" versus "back," he or she will more rapidly learn to discriminate and use each of the two. In the absence of such minimal pairs, it may take longer to get the phonemes "right" (Fry, 1966). In addition, certain phonemes may appear later than others, not because they present developmental articulation or discrimination difficulties, but because of their relative low frequency in spoken English. Thus, the /t/ sound, which has a relatively high frequency in English may be acquired earlier than the "j" /dz/ sound, or the unvoiced "th" sound (Miller, 1951; Mines, Hanson, & Shoup, 1978).

As the child acquires the speech system of a language, he or she is acquiring insights into different sequences and the relative importance of sounds. Thus, a child acquires the phonemic forms of a language considered as functional and ignores or discards those without function. In this way, Smith (1977) reminds us, "they grow up speaking language and not imitating the noise of the air conditioner" (pp. 386-395).

Second Language Acquisition of Phonemes

By the age of approximately six years, all non-English speaking children who have not suffered verbal deprivation have acquired most of the phonological and syntactical system of their native language. While there is some disagreement among researchers (Jacobovists, 1970; Jones, 1969, Oyama, 1976), it is a commonly accepted notion that children who acquire a second or foreign language before the age of puberty can do so without retaining an "accent" as adults. Such a notion carries the assumption that as the child acquires increasing communicative competence in English, he/she masters and internalizes a number of relatively complex aspects of English phonology, such as stress, rhythm, assimilation, contraction, intonation, and voicing (Clarey & Dixon, 1963). For example, there is a principle in English which may be stated as follows: most vowels, when occurring in unstressed syllables, are reduced from their normal values to the level of the neutral vowel commonly pronounced "uh", as in along, about, domestic, liberal. In many other languages, including Spanish, the child's speech development has included a respect for the quality of all vowels. As this verbal habit carries over to English, the more clearly the child pronounces the English syllables, the heavier the "accent."

Phonemic differences between English and many languages spoken by United States language minority children are extensive, though manageable: For example, in Mandarin and Cantonese, stops are not voiced, thus /b/, /d/, and /g/ are perceived as /p/, /t/, and /k/; in Spanish and Tagalog, /p/, /t/, and /k/ lack aspiration and therefore pronunciation of these phonemes sound like /b/, /d/, and /g/ to Americans; the English phonemes /l/ and /r/ do not exist in Japanese and Korean (Los Angeles Public School System, 1982).

Another challenge facing second language learners of English is phonemic distribution, the positions where a specific phoneme is permitted to occur in relation to other phonemes. Even where a similar phoneme exists in both languages, the distribution may be strikingly different. For instance, in English /s/ is permitted to occur before another consonant in the same syllable, as in stain, spider, or skunk, but in Vietnamese, it always precedes a vowel, as in sanh (give birth), song (river), suong (fog). For this reason, a Vietnamese learner of English tends to add a vowel after the /s/, pronouncing stop as suh-top, school as suh-chool, and spring as suh-pring (Quy Pham, 1982).

Miller (1951) pointed out that teachers should be concerned with deviations from Standard American English

pronunciation only when these deviations interfere with the function of language, hindering interindividual oral communication or causing difficulties in encoding and decoding of written messages. While there may be variability in the pronunciation of words such as route (both [rut] and [rowt] are acceptable) or what [what] or [wat]), and now may be heard as [neow] or [naw] (Dickerson, 1975), the speaker of one variant has no trouble understanding the speaker of another. However, when a speaker cannot discriminate orally or aurally between "light" and "right," or between "health department" and "hell's department," then there is a situation which may potentially involve ridicule as well as miscommunication. More importantly, teachers' perceptions of student academic performance are often confounded by attitudes toward students' speech styles.

Cohen (1973) has noted that both teachers and mainstream students who hold preconceived attitudes about language minority children tend to equate low reading ability (or reading achievement) with low intelligence (DeAvila, Duncan, Ulibarri, Fleming, Costa, & Wainwright, 1979) and that these attitudes become part of a self-fulfilling prophecy which includes the language minority student as co-conspirator. A number of other studies of both children and adults have reported that those

individuals with heavily accented English are often thought of as "lower class," and what they say is discounted by others (e.g., Giles, 1970; Weener, 1967). Further, despite professional competence acquired in another country, work activities in the United States may be hindered for the rest of their lives (Coates & Regdon, 1974).

Children who "talk funny" are often viewed as being of overall low ability by peers and teachers alike. Frender, Brown, and Lambert (1970) have suggested that the speech style of lower class children may hinder their advancement in school. Williams (1970) has shown that teachers' status ratings of children are influenced by such linguistic cues as pronunciation of sounds like th. Seligman, Tucker, and Lambert (1972), in an exploration of the influence of speech style in relation to other personal stimulus cues on teacher expectation of pupil behavior, report that "the boys with good voices were always evaluated significantly more favorably than those with poor voices" (pp. 131-142). Voices were evaluated on pronunciation, speed of speech, pitch, quality and individual characteristics (Seligman et al., 1972). Brown (1969), Lobov (1966), Ryan, Curranza, and Moffle (1977), and Tucker and Lambert (1969) have all found that spoken language exerts a significant influence on a listener's perception of the speaker's personality.

First Language Acquisition of Lexicon

Language is a cooperative behavior, providing a means for one human being to convey information to others. The form this verbal information takes is a word, or strings of words, combined into phrases and sentences. For this reason, the success a person has in conveying information depends on skill in manipulating the words of his/her mental dictionary and assumes a knowledge of how these words are strung together to form a meaningful utterance:

In order to utter or understand a sentence, a person must have a mental dictionary that contains the words in that sentence. He must also have a set of rules for combining dictionary entries into a meaning for the sentence as a whole. In the mental dictionary, all that we know about the meaning of the word must be organized and represented in some economical form (Cazden, 1972, p. 65).

For a monolingual, this mental dictionary comprises the lexicon of one language. As a child begins to develop a dictionary of meanings--somewhere between nine and twelve months, the first word will be uttered--the first entries are often one word sentence-like utterances, called holophases ("mama," "baby," "ball"), or they may be two- or three-word telegraphic utterances ("shoe gone"). As the child matures, a dictionary of words is acquired, each with its own particular meaning; for example, ball has a matrix of phonological features (/bɔl/), a set of syntactic

markers that define it as a common noun, and a cluster of semantic features which might include "physical object," "nonliving," "round and rubber."

There are a number of hypotheses as to how word meanings are modified and elaborated. Anglin (1970) suggests that a child goes from the concrete to the abstract, or from subordinate to superordinate categories. Clark's (1973) hypothesis called semantic features acquisition, proposes that with the first use of identifiable words, children have acquired only some of the semantic features or components that are present in the lexicon of an adult. In fact, the child's dictionary "entry" might well carry features quite different from an adult's:

If, for example, the meaning of dog is defined by the features "physical object," "living," "small," and "animal," the child will give this word an extension an adult would not. The child's category might include cats, mice, guinea pigs, and other small animals. As other features are added to the definition, the child will gradually narrow down this initial, very general meaning (McLaughlin, 1978, pp. 32-33).

According to this hypothesis, the meaning of a particular lexical item undergoes unsuccessive stages of finer and finer discrimination.

A third hypothesis (Bierwisch, 1967) is that there are certain semantic universals common to all languages that "reflect the basic dispositions of the cognitive and

perceptual nature of the human organism" (pp. 1-36). As these universal, primitive features are part of biological endowment, the child only has to acquire the rules for combining primitives into lexical items. If these universal lexical categories could be identified, one could then make generalizations about children's lexical categories from distinct linguistic communities.

However children acquire and refine the entries in their mental dictionary, they must complete another task involving the acquisition of semantic relations, (i.e., the acquisition of a set of word relationships which the child attempts to communicate through language). Among those listed by Brown (1973) are agent and action (baby lunch, or daddy hat). Thus, two tasks are involved in lexical or semantic development: (1) the building of the items in the mental dictionary, each with its cluster of semantic features, and (2) the acquisition of an understanding of the semantic relationship between those items (McLaughlin, 1978).

Second Language Acquisition of Lexicon

Meara (1980) deplored the fact that semantic processing and vocabulary development is one of the least studied aspects of second language acquisition. Meara (1980) pointed out that "learners themselves readily admit that they

experience considerable difficulty with vocabulary, and once they have passed the initial stages of acquiring their second language, most learners identify the acquisition of vocabulary as their greatest single source of problems" (p. 221). Villavicencio (1980) notes that his Spanish students tell him "that they have really learned a great deal, but that they still cannot express themselves properly because they need more words." Levenston (1979) has also criticized the general neglect of vocabulary learning by linguistics in favor of studies of syntax development and syntactic processing.

There is a wide variety of hypotheses as to how a bilingual actually acquires a second language lexicon and even more notions and descriptions of the linguistic differences between children who simultaneously acquire two languages (e.g., Burling, 1959; Leopold, 1939-1949; Ronjat, 1913; Smith, 1935) versus those who acquire the second language subsequent to the first (Cancino, Rosansky, & Schuman, 1974, 1975; Dato, 1971; Ervin-Tripp, 1970; Fillmore, 1976; Hakuta, 1974). In terms of the relationship between bilingualism and lexical acquisitions, the findings of the studies are varied. The observational methods and units of analysis also vary widely. However, there are a number of studies of acquisition of bilingualism which seem to indicate that at certain stages

in linguistic development, lexical items may be a problem for bilinguals, regardless of whether the two (or more) languages are acquired simultaneously or successively. This problem often takes the form of what is termed "linguistic interference," "mixing," or "code switching." For example, Leopold (1939) reported his daughter's struggle with synonyms and shifts from one word in one language to its equivalent in the other. Burling (1959) and Tabouret-Keller (1962, cited in McLaughlin, 1978) reported a tendency on the part of their subjects to mix words from different languages in the same sentence. Volterra and Taeschner (1975) found that the two children they studied, who were acquiring Italian and German simultaneously, passed through three stages: (1) the development of a single lexical system with a given meaning expressed in either one language or the other, but not both; (2) ability to distinguish the two different lexicons but the same syntactic rules applied to both languages (at about 2 years); (3) the two languages were differentiated both in lexicon and in syntax, and the child associated one language with particular persons or situations (2 1/2 years).

First Language Acquisition of Syntax

Prior to the 1960s, most research in first language acquisition was based on a model drawing from S-R tradition in psychology. According to Skinner (1957), the processes of language learning were identical to the processes of learning in any other domain of behavior, the association of stimulus and response under reinforcement conditions. Syntax was acquired like other verbal responses: the child learned to "name things" and how to string "words" together in a meaningful way through parental reinforcement. According to this model, there was no difference between the way a child learned a first language and the way an adult learned a second one, as both processes consisted of fitting lexical items into a framework in the correct order, with errors corrected through selective reinforcement.

During the 1960s, there was a significant shift in first language theory, mostly attributable to the writings of Noam Chomsky (1957, 1959, 1964), who argued that Skinner's theory was "erroneous in its assumptions, untestable, subjective, and cluttered with vague and poorly defined concepts," (McLaughlin, 1978). Chomsky and other linguists and psycholinguists (Brown, 1973; Garrett & Fodor, 1968; Katz, 1966; McNeill, 1970) argued that a child must be innately predisposed to learn his first language.

McNeill (1970), argued for a Language Acquisition Device (LAD), a specific innate ability in young children to process linguistic information and actively construct the syntax of their language. It was further believed that neither parental correction nor imitation could account for children's grammatical constructions, and that syntax was central to both definition and description of language (Tremaine, 1975).

Chomsky's primary contribution to this theory of language was to view language as a hierarchy. According to this view, language consists of a component which produces deep structures; a set of transformations which operate on the deep structure; and a set of surface structures, which are the result of the transformations. In this way, the ultimate meaning of a sentence is a function of the transformational rules (for generating a phrase, a clause, or a sentence) and the meaning of the individual lexical items.

Another approach to language acquisition is "process analysis," a model concerned with internal cognitive processes rather than with external, S-R events. Linguistic models, whether transformational or case grammar (Fillmore, 1968, 1971), emphasize linguistic competence, what a person must know to comprehend and produce meaningful utterances. Process models are concerned with

language behavior occurring in real time: not only what people must know, but what it is they do in such comprehension and production (McLaughlin, 1978). A process model of linguistic behavior would attempt to account for such information as "changes in the mental state of the speaker," "speaker or listener's processing capacity, as found in the limitations on what rules can be applied, how many can be applied at a time," and "time required to say or understand an utterance," (Clark & Haviland, 1974). Processing models account for the inferential processes that a listener or speaker goes through in order to produce or comprehend an utterance, for example, knowing that "could you tell me what time it is?" does not require a "yes" or "no" answer (Gordon & Lakoff, 1971; McLaughlin, 1978).

One of the more recent notions of language processing is communicative competence. Originally put forth by Hymes (1967, 1972), it refers to the knowledge of the rules for understanding and producing both the referential and social meaning of language in a manner which facilitates interactions in a particular sociolinguistic environment. This behavior includes learning to appropriately use various codes (formal, colloquial and slang) with different people in different situations. Whereas N. Chomsky (1965) defined competence as the "idealized knowledge" of language

possessed by the speaker, and performance as the actual usage of language in concrete situations, Hymes (1971) found somewhat too naive the view of performance as an imperfect manifestation of an underlying system (that is to say the speaker's idealized knowledge of deep structure). Rather, Hymes argues for an extension of the "notion of competence as tacit knowledge from grammar to speaking as a whole" (p. 16). Thus his use of the term competence is ultimately more comprehensive than that of Chomsky: "I would therefore take competence as the most general term for the speaking and hearing capabilities of a person" (Hymes, 1971, p. 16).

While some researchers view performance versus competence or grammatical appropriateness versus social appropriateness as an either/or notion, others see the necessity of reconciling the two views:

The two points of view, the sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic, can certainly be distinguished at the moment (and linguists tend to favor the one or the other according to their particular interests). But ultimately they must be reconciled. The ability to use one's language correctly in a variety of socially determined situations is as much and as a central part of linguistic 'competence' as the ability to produce grammatically well-formed sentences (Lyons, 1970, p. 287).

In summary, regardless which theory of language acquisition is espoused, there seems to be an agreement among researchers as to what is produced. At the first

stages of language development, subsequent to the babbling stage, the child produces one, two or three word utterances, which, may carry syntactic markers, but depend primarily on semantic relations for meaning (Bloom, 1970). As the complexity of language increases, children begin to use noun phrases with modifiers (Brown & Bellugi, 1972), then add demonstrative pronouns and articles, possessive pronouns, and so on; by age 5 or so, children have acquired most, but not all of the syntactic rules of their language. Menyuk (1971) concluded that 5 to 7 year olds have not mastered participial completion, iteration, nominalization, pronominalization, conjunction with if and so, and auxiliary have. Palermo and Molfese (1972) have also suggested that a 5-year-old is far from having acquired the equivalent of a native speaker's facility with the language. Carol Chomsky (1969) concluded that there are a number of syntactic structures still being acquired by children up to age 10 including complex structures without contextual or semantic clues. Other studies suggest that acquisition of syntax may, in fact, continue up to the age of 12 or so (De Avila & Duncan, 1982).

Second Language Acquisition of Syntax

Many of the various notions, theories and hypotheses with respect to first language acquisition have been

applied to second language acquisition research. However, none has been found satisfactory to explain the phenomenon of bilingualism and relatively little is known about how bilingual children acquire, store and retrieve concepts in their two languages (Padilla, 1977). In general, studies of children's second language acquisition tend to fall into two categories: simultaneous acquisition of two languages, and successive acquisition of two languages. McLaughlin (1978) notes that the former tend to be anecdotal and impressionistic, while the latter have employed somewhat more objective forms of analysis.

Simultaneous Acquisition of Two Syntactic Systems

Ronjat (1913), in one of the earlier studies of child bilingualism, raised his son to speak both German and French, but he and his wife strictly observed the une personne: une langue restriction, and reported that the child had no difficulty keeping the languages separate. The child showed very few signs of syntactic interference, even in syntactic word order. Vildomec (1963) has subsequently reported that the boy was still equally fluent at 15.

Leopold (1939, 1949) also observed the one person: one language dictum, but his daughter Hildegard was exposed to English far more than German, which she used in private

with her father. As a result, her bilingualism was somewhat unbalanced. Leopold's (1947) descriptions of syntactic development in the child are not dissimilar to observations made by later child language researchers. While he observed no early syntactic interference between the languages, after age two, with increased exposure to English, the influence of English syntax on German sentences and phrases was greater. McLaughlin (1978) reports a number of studies of bilingual children with mixed findings: despite lexical mixing, Burling (1959), reported that his son was able to keep Garo and English syntax separate; Oksaar (1969, 1970) reported considerable syntactic mixing in her Swedish-Estonian bilingual child; and the Italian-German bilingual children studied by Volterra and Taeschner (1975) described their subjects as developing initially a single syntactic system which was different from either first language system.

A number of researchers have looked at the developmental similarities and differences in the simultaneous acquisition of two syntactic systems. Both Imedadze (1960) and Mikes (1967, cited in McLaughlin, 1978) noted that the order in which various syntactic structures are acquired by bilingual children is the same as for monolinguals. Carrow (1971), however, has reported that 3- to 10-year old bilingual Mexican-American children were

delayed in specific syntactic areas (tense markers, pronouns, negatives) as compared to English speaking children, although the sequence of development was the same for both groups and for the bilingual group in both languages. In a study of Italian-English bilingual children, Kessler (1971) also reported simultaneous acquisition when a syntactic structure was shared by both languages.

Successive Acquisition of Two Syntactic Systems

Results of developmental studies on successive acquisition of two syntactic systems are not extensive. Ravem (1974) and Milon (1974) have noted that bilingual children progress through syntactic stages (questions and negative constructions) similar to those of monolinguals. However, Politzer (1974) reports that bilingual children in his study did not manifest the same developmental patterns as monolinguals. Other findings are also mixed. Ervin-Tripp (1974) found similar strategies in first and second language acquisitions with regard to acquisition of simpler to more complex sentences. McLaughlin (1978) views the second language acquisition of syntax (and other linguistic aspects) as being similar "in its basic features and developmental sequences for the bilingual child and the monolingual child" (McLaughlin, 1978, pp. 91-92).

In view of these and other studies (Corder, 1967; Selinker, 1972), a number of researchers have speculated that the processes of first and second language are essentially the same, or that L1 =L2. Dulay and Burt (1973, 1974), however, conducted an error analysis of speech samples of 179 Spanish-English bilinguals and concluded that "children do not use their 'first language habits' in the process of learning the syntax of their new language" (1974; pp. 129-136). Hakuta and Cancino (1977) question both Dulay and Burt's unit of analysis (error analysis) and the equal weighting given to interference and intralingual errors. Cazden, Cancino, Rosansky and Schuman (1975), Fillmore (1976), and Hakuta and Cancino (1977) all suggest that there is individual variation in the way learners acquire a second language.

Findings with regard to developmental sequence of syntax acquisition in bilingual children, whether acquired simultaneously or sequentially, are inconsistent and inconclusive. Results of studies of syntactic "interference" (errors) from one language to another, regardless of manner of acquisition, are also ambiguous and inconclusive.

The Monitor Theory

Krashen (1982) proposes a model that addresses the complexity of second language acquisition (SLA) from a tri-

dimensional linguistic, social/psychological, and cognitive perspective. Consisting of five hypotheses, his theory can be summarized as follows:

1. The acquisition-learning hypothesis. Adults have two distinct ways of developing competence in a second language: (1) by subconsciously acquiring, much as children acquire their mother tongues, or (2) by learning--by the accumulation of conscious knowledge of the rules of the language.
2. The natural order hypothesis. The acquisition of grammatical structures proceeds in a predictable order for all second language acquirers of a given target language.
3. The monitor hypothesis. What learners have learned (as opposed to acquired) is used for only one purpose. It functions as a monitor to allow learners to make changes in the form of what they have spoken or written. Acquisition, on the other hand, "initiates" utterances in a second language and is responsible for fluency.
4. The input hypothesis. Learners acquire language by receiving comprehensible input and attending not to its form, but to its message. In order to progress in second language acquisition, the comprehensible

input must contain some structures that are beyond the learners' current level of competence.

5. The affective filter hypothesis. A filter exists in each learner. This filter screens the input to which the learner is being exposed. If the learner's attitudes are positive, more of the input will be received; if negative, the input will not be received as well by the language acquisition device.

Krashen (1982), believes that two conditions are necessary for second language acquisition. The first is that learners must obtain comprehensible input that is a bit beyond their current acquired level of competence. The second is that successful learners need to have a low or weak affective filter which will let the input in.

The Nature of Bilingualism

In the process of acquiring a second language, a child becomes bilingual if he or she does not totally lose his/her mother tongue. For many educators and parents, the major worry connected with a child becoming bilingual is its effects on personality development and intellectual capacities. If the advantages and disadvantages of being bilingual are to be understood, it is necessary to find a precise and adequate definition of bilingualism.

What is Bilingualism?

According to Beardsmore (1986), it is not an easy task to propose a generally accepted definition of bilingualism. If we turn to just a few definitions, their inadequacies immediately become apparent.

In . . . cases where . . . perfect foreign-language learning is not accomplished by loss of the native language, it results in bilingualism, native-like control of two languages. After early childhood few people have enough muscular and nervous freedom or enough opportunity and leisure to reach perfection in a foreign language; yet bilingualism of this kind is commoner than one might suppose, both in cases like those of our immigrants and as a result of travel, foreign study, or similar association. Of course one cannot define a degree of perfection at which a good foreign speaker becomes bilingual: the distinction is relative (Bloomfield, 1935, pp. 55-56).

In this quotation, there is a clear contradiction between what is said in the first sentence with reference to native-like control of two languages and the final sentence which mentions relative degree of ability.

Two of the major specialists in this branch of linguistics have attempted definitions which are vague and consequently raise as many questions as those they attempt to avoid. Mackey, for example, states:

It seems obvious that if we are to study the phenomenon of bilingualism we are forced to consider it as something entirely relative. We must moreover include the use not only of two languages, but of any number of languages. We shall therefore consider bilingualism as the alternate use of two or more languages by the same individual (Mackey, 1957, p. 51).

Weinreich (1953) offers a very similar statement:

The practice of alternatively using two languages will be called here BILINGUALISM, and the persons involved BILINGUAL. Unless otherwise specified, all remarks about bilingualism apply as well to multilingualism, the practice of using alternately three or more languages (p. 5).

The following, totally different type of definition provides a startling contrast with the above:

Bilingualism is the condition in which two living languages exist side by side in a country, each spoken by one national group, representing a fairly large proportion of the people (Aucamp, 1926, in Beziars & Van Overbeke, 1968, p. 113).

Here the definition could well be considered as referring to unilingual communities living in a same country and having very little to do with bilingual speakers.

The above illustrations show the potential confusion that definitions can provoke. Rather than attempting to provide a definition of bilingualism, which is likely to be unsatisfactory given the present state of our knowledge about language in general, most specialists prefer to work within the framework of a typology of bilingualism which allows for a clear delimitation of the particular area of investigation within a larger field (Beardsmore, 1986). Typologies, which are descriptive labels, have the advantage of allowing the researcher to work within a clear frame of reference which is adapted to the researcher's need and avoids the dangers of overgeneralization to cases that cannot be easily encompassed.

One of the most important distinctions to be made in this field is between societal and individual bilingualism. Societal bilingualism, an area extensively studied by Fishman (1965-1980) and his disciples, is more involved with the sociology of language than with sociolinguistics or pure linguistics. The point where societal or group bilingual studies diverge most from the investigation of individual bilingualism is in the cases where one is examining multilingual federations, nations or societies whose major component consists of unilingual individuals living in close proximity. Such multilingual states as Belgium and Switzerland are clear illustrations of societal bilingualism based on the principle of territorial unilingualism (Mackey, 1976, p. 83) where the majority of the inhabitants are monoglots. Even in multilingual societies of this nature, however, there are usually large numbers of individual bilinguals who function as linguistic mediators between the different groups. These mediators represent the link between societal and individual bilingualism.

Halliday, McKintosh and Strevens (1970) mention ambilingualism to describe the person who is capable of functioning equally well in both languages in all domains of activity and without any traces of one language when using the other. For some people, this type of person is

the only "true" bilingual (Thiery, 1976), but if that is the case, there may be very few "true" bilinguals.

Ambilingualism should not be confused with equilingualism, although there may be points of similarity. Equilingualism, alternatively called balanced bilingualism, occurs when a speaker's mastery of two languages is roughly equivalent and where this ability may match that of monoglot speakers of the respective languages if looked at in broad terms of reference. However, even in these cases the notion of balanced bilingualism should be treated with caution (Fishman et al., 1971). Furthermore, Dornic (1978, 1979) has shown how atypical the balanced bilingual is once one looks beyond surface, impressionistic evaluations of ability in two languages, stress, fatigue, and emotional upsets can bring out a hidden imbalance masked by good pronunciation and apparent accuracy under normal circumstances.

Obsession with monoglot norms of reference has led to the notion of semilingualism (Haugen, 1977), which has been considerably promoted by Skutnabb-Kangas and Toukomaa (1976). Semilingualism has been based on comparisons of Finnish immigrant children living in Sweden in their Finnish and Swedish performance with monoglot children living respectively in Finland and Sweden. The findings reveal that the Finnish immigrant children's ability in

both languages shows signs of considerable retardation. It may well be that inadequate development of either of a bilingual's languages may be attributable to the peculiar social circumstances of certain immigrant populations where ghetto-like conditions isolate the speaker from the rich linguistic environment of the host community, driving him back into the more restricted world of the home-group. This home group, cut off as it is from the varied range of linguistic input that is available in the country of origin, could well be the starting point of certain atrophied language development. T'Sou (1981) discusses the case of what he calls SWONALS or speakers without a native language. Such people are culturally displaced isolated adults in a foreign environment, and SWONALS suffer language loss in L1 without compensatory gain in L2. T'Sou (1981) describes the case of the Chinese SWONAL, an adult immigrant to the United States with few contacts with either Chinese or English speakers.

The debate about semilingualism has long been developed around the type of bilingual education to be provided for Finnish immigrants in Sweden, yet studies of bilingual education in other parts of the world, although not specifically dealing with immigrants, contradict the evidence put forward to support the notion of semilingualism. The notable case is immersion programs in

Canada (Swain & Barik, 1978; Swain, 1980; Swain & Lapkin, 1982). In immersion programs, English-speaking children from middle-class background receive all their instruction, or part of it, in French during the first few years of schooling, yet do not become semilingual. Instead, these children end up with an equivalent English mastery to that of their peers and a better mastery of French than children who go through a standard French-as-a-foreign-language program. Thus, English-speaking children in these immersion programs achieve a certain degree of French-English bilingualism at no cost to their first, dominant language.

Parenthetically, immersion programs should not be confused with submersion programs, often referred to as "sink or swim" models. A submersion program is a curriculum organized for native language speakers but often used with language minority students. No special instructional activities focus upon the needs of language minority students (California State Department of Education, 1982).

Lambert (1974) distinguishes between two categories of bilingualism. In additive bilingualism the second language brings to the speaker a set of cognitive and social abilities which do not negatively affect those that have been acquired in the first language. The two linguistic

and cultural entities combine in a complementary and enriching fashion. Such a situation occurs when a society attributes positive values to both languages and considers the acquisition of a second language as an extra tool for thought and communication.

The opposite situation arises with subtractive bilingualism, where the second language is acquired at the expense of the aptitudes already acquired in the first language and instead of complementarity between two linguistic and cultural systems, there is competition. This situation is often found where ethnolinguistic minorities are present and is most easily created when schooling is conducted in a language different from that spoken in the home environment.

In regard to early bilingualism and late bilingualism, Beardsmore (1986) presented some empirical evidence which revealed that on certain linguistic and cognitive skills, the older learner has an advantage. Swain (1981) analyzed test results for anglophone children learning French and showed how in some aspects, the pupil who began schooling in the foreign language at approximately age 13 compared favorably with the younger pupil who had begun at age 5. Interpretation of these findings were that the older learner is more cognitively mature, more able to abstract, classify and generalize in formulating and applying L2

rules. The older learner also has a greater "world knowledge" which he can transfer to L2.

In further studies designed to explain this difference, Swain (1981) and Cummins (1979, 1980) distinguish between "basic interpersonal communicative skills" or BICS, and "cognitive and academic aspects of language proficiency" or CALP. Both are significant for understanding differentiated progress rates for early and late bilinguals. CALP refers to the demands inherent in the educational system, such as literacy skills, and BICS refers more to language use which reflects manifestations such as oral fluency, accent and certain aspects of sociological competence. Swain and Cummins also argue that CALP is cross-lingual and that once its features have been learned, they are applicable to any language context. In this way, the older learner can more easily transfer the abilities required for handling decontextualized language, as implicit in literacy activities, once they have been acquired in L1.

Bilingualism and Bilingual Education

Cummins (1981a) has argued that an understanding of bilingual education requires an understanding of the nature of language proficiency and the developmental relationship

between first language proficiency and second language proficiency.

In regard to the nature of language proficiency, Cummins (1981a) has proposed that a child's ability to use his first and second language can be conceptualized in terms of two distinct continua (see Figure 2.1). The first continuum is related to the degree of contextual support available for expressing or comprehending meaning through language. This continuum is characterized at one extreme as context-embedded and at the other extreme as context-reduced. In the case of context-embedded language use, meaning conveyed by language is supported by a wide range of non-linguistic or paralinguistic cues.

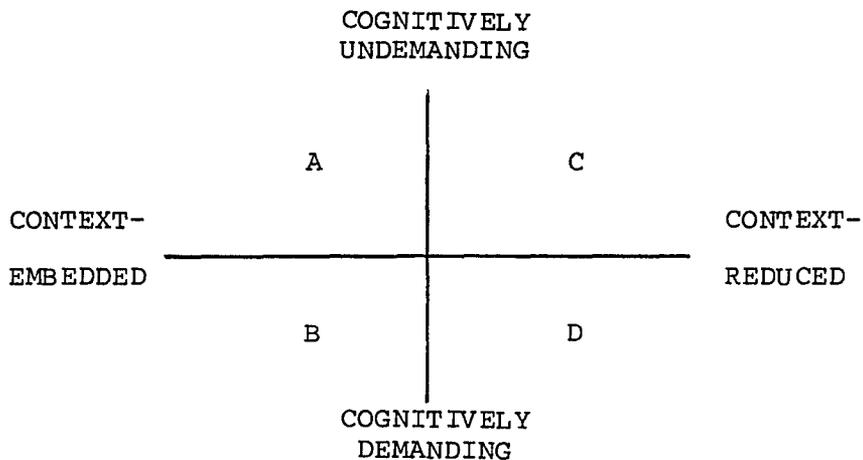


Figure 2.1. Cummin's Model of Language Proficiency Development (1981a).

An example of such language use would be a conversation between two individuals who know one another and who are talking about a familiar topic. In such communication, there is no need for the interlocutors to use linguistically elaborated or precise messages to convey the intended meaning; much of what they want to convey can be left unsaid or implicit. Context-embedded communication of this type is characteristic of much day-to-day language use. Furthermore, children's experience with language prior to formal schooling is usually of this sort. This type of language proficiency is acquired when children learn their first language.

In contrast, context-reduced communication lacks such contextual support and the message must be conveyed in a linguistically explicit and detailed fashion if it is to be effective. An example of context-reduced communication would be listening to a lecture on an unfamiliar topic. In that case, meaning must be conveyed in a linguistically explicit and elaborated way. Much of what goes on in school during academic instruction is of this sort, the teacher is trying to teach the learner knowledge and skills that are not already known and that cannot be explicated easily by reference to their day-to-day experiences. Certainly the essence of reading and writing for academic

purposes is explicit and precise use of language to convey meaning.

The second continuum is independent of the first one and is defined in terms of the degree of active intellectual or cognitive involvement required by a communication task. Cognitive involvement can be conceptualized in terms of the amount of information the individual must process simultaneously or in close succession in order to carry out or complete communication. Another way of conceptualizing this continuum is in terms of the degree of automaticity or mastery of the linguistic skills needed to achieve communication. The kind of language used to do one's shopping, buy lunch in a cafeteria, or talk about last night's television programs would be examples of cognitively undemanding communication tasks. Cummins (1981a) suggests that examples of cognitively demanding communication would be writing an essay on an abstract topic or persuading others that your point of view is correct:

In these situations, it is necessary to stretch one's linguistic resources (i.e., grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competencies) to the limit in order to achieve one's communicative goals (p. 13).

The cognitive continuum of Cummin's model is intended to address developmental issues of language proficiency. Tasks may often be cognitively demanding the first time

they are performed, but become less demanding with practice. Thus, language tasks and skills move from the cognitively demanding to the cognitively undemanding end of the continuum as the individual achieves mastery of the requisite linguistic skills.

Cummins argues that a major reason why language minority students often fail in all-English programs is that such programs required the language proficiency (namely, context-reduced) that is not the same as the language proficiency they bring to school with them (namely, context-embedded). Moreover, because of language minority students' non-English background, the English curriculum is more context-reduced and cognitively demanding for them than for native English-speaking students. Cummins points out that educational personnel are often "fooled" by minority students' glib use of English for primary social interaction, and conclude that they are prepared to handle academic instruction through English. In addition, all-English schooling can impede the academic development of language minority students, if the cultures of the classroom and school are different from that of the student's home and therefore so cognitively demanding that the student is effectively precluded from full participation in the curriculum.

In regard to the developmental relationship between first language proficiency and second language proficiency, Cummins (1981a) notes:

The argument that if minority children are deficient in English, then they need instruction in English, not in their L1, implies: (a) that proficiency in L1 is separate from proficiency in English, and (b) that there is a direct relationship between exposure to a language (in home or school) and achievement in that language (p. 22).

Cummins has referred to this conceptualization of bilingual proficiency as the Separate Underlying Proficiency (or SUP) model. In fact, there is no evidence in support of this model. Rather, available evidence supports a model of bilingual proficiency that is developmentally interdependent; that is, development of proficiency in one language can contribute to development in another language (Genesee, 1987; Snow, 1985). Cummins has referred to this perspective as the Common Underlying Proficiency (or CUP) model. He postulates further that interdependence between first and second language proficiency development is most characteristic of context-reduced, cognitively demanding language proficiency (e.g., literacy skills for academic purposes). It is less likely to characterize the development of interpersonal communication skills which are context-embedded and cognitively undemanding. There is much evidence that second language literacy proceeds quite quickly if literacy skills have already been learned in the

first language (Cummins, Swain, Nakajima, Handscombe, & Green, 1984; Skutnabb-Kangas, & Toukomaa, 1976).

In summary, according to Cummins, native language instruction for language minority students is advisable and beneficial because it serves to strengthen and broaden the language skills that they have upon starting school. Their first language skills, at least insofar as these are developed to be adequate for academic purposes, will support and facilitate English language development as a result of linguistic interdependence.

Differences Related to Sex, Age, and Socioeconomic Status

Sex-Related Differences

Recent studies indicate that sex differences in academic achievement have been noticeable. For example, reading data on three age groups (nine, thirteen, and seventeen year olds) collected by the National Assessment of Educational Progress (1981) show that females scored about five percent higher than males.

Educators who believe that learning differences between the sexes are present at birth point to differences that have been found in the brain functioning of boys and girls (Restak, 1979). Research indicates that for most people, the left hemisphere (half) of the brain specializes in verbal tasks, while the right hemisphere specializes in

nonverbal functions. Females have more right hemispheric processing in verbal functions, compared to males (Sherman, 1977). Related studies also indicate that the right hemisphere of the female brain has more verbal capacity than that of the male (The University of Chicago, 1979). At the same time, laboratory research suggests that sex hormones play a direct part in influencing the growth and development of the brain (Carter & Greenough, 1979).

Age-Related Differences

Studies in both natural and formal school settings have found that those who begin second language (L2) acquisition as older children or adolescents acquire academic types of skills in the L2 at a faster rate than those who begin as younger children (e.g., Burstall, 1974; Cummins, 1981b; Ekstrand, 1976, 1978; Ervin-Tripp, 1974; Skutnabb-Kangas & Toukoma, 1976; Snow & Hoefnagel-Hohle, 1978; Swain, 1981).

The finding that older learners are more efficient than younger learners at acquiring context-reduced, academic skills in the L2 can be established in a variety of learning, contexts and socio-cultural settings, lending strong support to Cummins' (1983) hypothesis that relative cognitive maturity and schooling experience in the native language (L1) may be an advantage in performing certain kinds of L2 tasks. It should be noted that the fact that a

task is presented in the oral mode does not necessarily make it context-embedded, unrelated to academic skills, or cognitively undemanding (Harley, 1986).

Differences Related to Socioeconomic Status

According to Ornstein and Levine (1985), individuals very high in occupational prestige, amount of education, income, and housing value are high in socioeconomic status (SES). They are viewed by others as upper-class persons and are influential and powerful in their communities. Conversely, persons low in socioeconomic status are viewed as lower class. They do not generally exert much power or influence.

Robert and Helen Lynd (1929) conducted a study to investigate relations between social class and achievement in the educational system. These researchers concluded that parents, regardless of social class level, recognize the importance of education for their children; however, working class (low SES) children do not come to school academically equipped to deal with the verbal symbols and behavioral traits required for success in the classroom.

Several studies have since documented the close relationship between social class and achievement in the educational system. For example, a clear picture of this relationship has been provided by the National Assessment

of Educational Progress (NAEP), which periodically collects achievement information from nationally representative samples of students. As shown in a NAEP (1981) report, reading scores of 13-year-old students in 1979 varied directly with their social class. Students whose parents had not graduated from high school (that is, low SES students) had an average score of 53 percent correct on the NAEP reading test, whereas high SES students (that is, those with college educated parents) had an average score of 65, nearly one-fourth higher than the low SES group. In another study, Eckland and his associates (1981) point out another kind of relationship between social class and academic ability. Eckland et al.'s study indicates that 50 percent of the students in the highest social class were also among the students with the highest academic ability. In contrast, only 11 percent of students in the lowest social class were in the high ability group.

CHAPTER 3

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

This ex post facto study investigated the experimental impact of a Vietnamese/English transitional bilingual education (TBE) program (kindergarten through second grade) on program participants' native and second oral language proficiency. The purpose of this chapter is to describe the following:

1. The design and analysis
2. The population
3. The treatment
4. The instrumentation
5. The procedures

The Design and Analysis

The following hypotheses and their statistical analyses describe the design of this ex post facto study:

Hypothesis 1: There will be no difference in Vietnamese oral language proficiency for Vietnamese students as a result of their 3-year exposure to an experimental transitional bilingual education program across sex, age, socioeconomic status (SES), and grade levels.

A 2 (Sex) X 2 (Age) X 3 (SES) analysis of covariance was calculated to test hypothesis 1. Specifically, Sex (male vs. female), Age (younger than 5 1/2 years vs. 5 1/2 years or older), and SES (free lunch vs. reduced price lunch vs. full price lunch) constituted the independent variables for the analysis, time 2 (second grade) Vietnamese scores the dependent variable, and time 1 (kindergarten) Vietnamese scores the covariate. This analysis examined time 2 differences in Vietnamese language proficiency across the three independent variables while simultaneously controlling (covarying) for time 1 Vietnamese language proficiency differences.

Time 1 and time 2 Vietnamese language proficiency was measured by means of Language Assessment Scales (LAS).

Hypothesis 2: There will be no significant difference in English oral language proficiency for Vietnamese students as a result of their 3-year exposure to an experimental transitional bilingual education program across sex, age, socioeconomic status, and grade levels.

A 2 (Sex) X 2 (Age) x 3 (SES) analysis of covariance was calculated to test hypothesis 2. Specifically, Sex (male vs. female), Age (younger than 5 1/2 years vs. 5 1/2 years or older), and SES (free lunch vs. reduce price lunch vs. full price lunch) constituted the independent variables

for the analysis, time 2 (second grade) English scores the dependent variable, and time 1 (kindergarten) English scores the covariate. This analysis examined time 2 differences in English language proficiency across the three independent variables while simultaneously controlling (covarying) for time 1 English language proficiency differences.

Time 1 and time 2 English language proficiency was measured by means of Language Assessment Scales (LAS).

Hypothesis 3: There will be no significant difference in English oral language proficiency for Vietnamese students as a result of their 3-year exposure to an experimental transitional bilingual education program across Vietnamese oral language proficiency and grade levels.

To address this hypothesis, time 1 Vietnamese language proficiency was dichotomized into low (scores of 3 or less) and high (scores in excess of 3), and was construed as an independent variable in an analysis of covariance where time 1 English proficiency scores constituted the covariate, and time 2 English proficiency scores the dependent variable.

Hypothesis 4: A correlational investigation was conducted of the relationship between Vietnamese (L1) and English (L2) oral language proficiency for Vietnamese

students influenced by a 3-year (K-2) experimental transitional bilingual education program.

In order to adequately examine hypothesis 4, the following three sub-hypotheses were postulated:

Hypothesis 4.1: There will be no significant relationship between Vietnamese proficiency in kindergarten and Vietnamese proficiency in second grade as revealed by scores on the Language Assessment Scales (LAS).

This hypothesis was addressed by calculating Spearman's rho correlation coefficients between time 1 Vietnamese language proficiency scores and time 2 Vietnamese language proficiency scores.

Hypothesis 4.2: There will be no significant relationship between Vietnamese proficiency in second grade and English proficiency in second grade as revealed by scores on the LAS.

This hypothesis was addressed by calculating Spearman's rho correlation coefficients between time 2 Vietnamese language proficiency scores and time 2 English language proficiency scores.

Hypothesis 4.3: There will be no significant relationship between Vietnamese proficiency in kindergarten and English proficiency in second grade as revealed by scores on the LAS.

This hypothesis was addressed by calculating Spearman's rho correlation coefficients between time 1 Vietnamese language proficiency scores and time 2 English language proficiency scores.

The Population

Initially, the names of 250 Vietnamese-American students who participated in a transitional bilingual education program in a California school district were gathered. These children entered kindergarten at the beginning of the 1984-85 school year, and were in second grade during the 1986-87 school year. Later all pupils who had LAS data (Vietnamese and English) for both kindergarten and second grade were selected. The number of female children was not equal to the number of male students: 65 girls and 61 boys were selected as subjects of the study. Also, due to historical events in Vietnam as well as to immigration conditions, the subjects identified differed noticeably in age upon entering kindergarten: 55 pupils were less than 5 1/2 years of age while 71 others were 5 1/2 years or older when they entered kindergarten. Furthermore, because of the heterogeneity among the Vietnamese refugees who arrived in the United States after the collapse of South Vietnam, the subjects differed from one another in socioeconomic status: among the children identified for the study, 45 received free lunch in

school, 23 paid reduced price, and 58 paid full price for their lunch.

The Treatment

As indicated earlier, 126 subjects were selected from a group of 250 children who were exposed to a Vietnamese-English transitional bilingual education program from kindergarten to second grade, and had the appropriate LAS data for both grades.

This transitional bilingual education program was designed to attain the following 3-year goals:

A. Basic Skills:

- 1.1 To increase the number of Vietnamese limited-English-proficient (LEP) students who can participate successfully in the district education program.
- 1.2 To eliminate the disproportionate representation of Vietnamese LEP students in the lowest skill levels in basic skills achievement.

B. Subject Matter Curriculum:

- 2.1 To provide Vietnamese LEP students with a comprehensive education equal to that offered to English-dominant students.

C. Self-Esteem/Multicultural Curriculum:

- 3.1 To develop in all students strong self-esteem and self-knowledge.

D. Staff Training:

- 4.1 To develop knowledge, skills, and attitudes supportive of bilingual multicultural education.
- 4.2 To develop bilingual instruction skills among district staff.
- 4.3. To provide orientation and training on Vietnamese culture.

E. Parent Education:

- 5.1 To organize parent and community groups for meaningful participation in the program.
- 5.2 To develop parents' capacity to reinforce the learning of their children.

Vietnamese language arts and reading instruction as well as bilingual instruction in such content areas as mathematics, science, and social studies was given at grade levels K-2. Instruction in English-as-a-second-language (ESL) was provided on a regular basis: each school day, children in kindergarten received a 30-minute lesson, and students in first and second grades, a 40-minute lesson. The proportion of instructional time conducted in the children's native language (Vietnamese) was 50 percent in kindergarten, 40 percent in first grade, and 30 percent in second grade.

Thus, like many transitional bilingual education programs in other parts of the United States, the bilingual

education program designed for Vietnamese students involved in this study can be defined in the following terms: initial academic instruction through the medium of the students' home language accompanied by English-as-a-second-language (ESL) instruction. The use of the home language during this time, both in school for academic purposes and out of school, through normal contact with native speakers serves the dual functions of (1) allowing academic instruction to be given in a language that the students know and, therefore, can learn through, and (2) making more time available for English language learning. This is continued until it is deemed that the student can receive all curricular instruction through English, at which time instruction through the home language is discontinued. The program is also expected to teach and support the students' home culture. The primary goal of this bilingual education program is clearly to teach the students enough English language skills so that they can be integrated into all English classes. According to Genesee (1987), this type of program clearly aims for transitional subtractive bilingualism.

The Instrumentation

The instruments used for assessing the subjects' language proficiency in English and Vietnamese include the English version and the Vietnamese version of the Language

Assessment Scales (LAS) developed by De Avila and Duncan. The English version of the LAS has been available since 1975 as a publication of the Linguametrics Group, Corte Madera, California. The Vietnamese version of the LAS was written in 1982 by a team of Vietnamese teachers in San Jose Unified School District, California, in accordance with the English version of the instrument.

The LAS Scores and Levels

LAS users have a number of options for tabulating LAS scores, calculating proficiency level, preparing summary reports, and providing feedback to teachers.

If a LAS total score is to be derived manually, the following steps should be followed:

1. Count number of items correct in the subscales for Phonology, Lexicon, and Syntax, which reflect the raw score of these sections.
2. Record raw score for production (story retelling).
3. Calculate the total of raw score.
4. Obtain converted total score, using the conversion tables provided in the Scoring and Interpreting Manual for the LAS.
5. Convert total score to level.

The meaning of the total score on the LAS Level I may be interpreted in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1. Normative interpretation of LAS Level I scores.

Total Score	Oral Proficiency Level	Interpretation
85-100	5	Fluent (Proficient) Speaker
75-84	4	
65-74	3	Limited Speaker
55-64	2	Non-speaker
0-54	1	

Source: Duncan and De Avila (1983).

In this study, the subjects' ability to communicate in their native and second language was examined in terms of the five levels of oral proficiency presented in Table 3.1.

The development of the LAS was based on the view that language consists of four linguistic aspects: phonology (phonemes, stress, rhythm, and intonation), lexicon (the "words" of the language), syntax (the rules for comprehending and producing meaningful utterances), and pragmatics (the appropriate use of language to obtain specific goals).

Within each of these primary subsystems, the LAS focuses on the following (see Table 3.2):

Table 3.2. Linguistic aspects measured by the LAS.

Subsystem	<u>LAS</u> Focus
Phonology	Phoneme Discrimination Phoneme Production
Lexicon	Concrete nouns
Syntax	Oral (sentence) Comprehension Oral Production (story retelling) Written Production (optional, Level II)
Pragmatics	Language Observation Form (optional, and when student's score falls in "gray area" bandwidth)

Source: De Avila and Duncan (1982).

Phonology. The decision to include phonemic items in the LAS was based on the facts (1) that phonemic differences exist from language to language, many of which differences carry a high information load, and (2) that preliminary research findings suggest a relationship between English phonemic ability and school achievement, as well as a belief that if children's difficulties with phonemic aspects are identified, given appropriate models, these difficulties can be overcome (De Avila & Duncan, 1982).

Selecting criteria for the inclusion of specific phonemic items in the LAS subscales involved a consideration of the following questions:

1. Which phonemes would hinder communicative competence (i.e., would hinder decoding or encoding and/or motivate ridicule)?
2. Which phonemes are so dialectical in nature that there are no "standards" even among native speakers?
3. What is the hierarchy of difficulty among the phonemes for non-native speakers?
4. Which phonemes are developmental in nature?

The authors of the LAS present a table summarizing the presence or absence of a particular phoneme in English and nine other languages, including Spanish, Cantonese, Mandarin, Tagalog, Ilocano, Korean, Japanese, Vietnamese, and Samoan. If a particular English phoneme does not exist in a speaker's first language, and if that phoneme carried a high informational load in English, then the authors of the LAS would predict that it would cause encoding and/or decoding difficulties (De Avila & Duncan, 1982, p. 15). Sources of this tabulation include Chomsky and Halle (1968), Clary and Dixon (1963), Duncan (1979), Falk (1978), Halle (1962), Los Angeles Public School System (1982), Nguyen (1980), Stockwell and Bowen (1965), and Tsuzaki (1979).

Lexicon. De Avila and Duncan (1982) took particular care to avoid possible problems by including lexical items

(1) which are concrete nouns, (2) which require elicited single word responses, (3) which do not require inflectional markers, (4) which are commonly acquired by native-speaking students irrespective of environment, and (5) which can be scored by a procedure which allows for regional/dialectal variations (pail or bucket; platano or banana; sofa or couch, etc.).

The 20 items which comprise the Lexical section for the LAS, Form A (De Avila & Duncan, 1977) were selected from Thorndike-Lorge (1952) at five levels of frequency. The 20 items which comprise the Lexical section for the LAS, Form B were drawn from the Kucera-Francis (1967) list.

Syntax. The LAS utilizes a discrete point assessment of comprehension adopting a procedure used by Fraser et al. (1963), Hall and Turner (1971), and Osser, Wang, and Zaid (1969). In this task, the student listens to a sentence recorded on an audio cassette and then is asked to point to one of three pictures which illustrates the sentence. The sentences cover a range of language-specific syntactical markers including plurals, possessives, negatives, tense, number, active versus passive voice, do as auxiliary, comparative adjectives, etc. To measure oral production, the LAS utilizes a story retelling procedure to elicit a language sample from which qualitative ratings are made.

Pragmatics. The fourth area of language covered by the LAS is a measure of the student's ability to use the language for his/her own ends (pragmatics). The LAS attempts to assess this in the Observation section by having the instrument administrator rate the student on a scale of 1 (fail) to 5 (succeed fully) on his/her ability to carry out certain relevant tasks requiring language (i.e., describing his/her family composition, describing a science experiment, etc.).

The Observation section of the LAS includes ten items covering a range of sociolinguistic tasks pertinent to success in the school environment. This section is optional; however, its use is urged when student's score falls either on or very near the proficiency level cutoff points (Archuleta & Cervantes, 1979).

Reliability of the LAS

Internal Reliability. De Avila and Duncan (1982) summarized point biserial correlations between the test items comprising each subscale and the subscale total of the LAS. In addition, they provided the correlation between each item and the test total score summed across subscales. Examination of these statistics reveals that the range of item-to-subscale correlations for phonemes is from .25 to .60. The average point biserial for the subscale was .46. Since the total test score is based on

the sum of all of the subscales, the correlations within the phoneme subscale are slightly higher than for item-total test score correlations. The range of correlations between phoneme items and total test score was .10 to .47, the average being .33, which, like the within-scale correlations, is well within acceptable limits as defined by psychometric requirements. Similar results were obtained for each of the remaining three subscales. The data presented in these analyses were based on a sample of 295 urban, rural Mexican-American and Chinese students residing in Texas (El Paso) and California (Bay area).

Test-Retest Reliability. The test-retest reliability of the LAS has been examined for the LAS-I total score and for the levels of language classifications produced from the total score (Ulibarri & Costa, 1979). Subjects for this study consisted of a sample of 64 students randomly selected from a population of 300 students who were participating in a bilingual education program in a northern California bay area school district. The population of 300 students included first, third, and fifth graders, who were tested on the LAS-I as part of the bilingual program's testing procedures.

The 64 students were randomly assigned to either an English or Spanish retesting group. Twenty-nine were retested in English and 35 in Spanish over a two-week

period. In most cases, subjects were retested within one week of the initial testing period. The initial testing procedure was changed in that different test administrators and scores had to be used.

The results of the study were analyzed by examination of different sources of error variance. These included computation of internal item consistency (Cronbach's Alpha and Split-Half procedures), test-retest correlations (Pearson r) and the standard error measurement. The sources of error are summarized by De Avila and Duncan (1982, p. 74) in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3. Type of reliability according to source of error variance computed for LAS-I test-retest data.

Type of Reliability	Source of Error Variance
Cronbach's Alpha	Item Content Sampling and Heterogeneity
Test-retest (Pearson r)	Time Sampling
Split-half	Content Sampling
Standard Error of Measurement	Combined Sources

The results of the test-retest correlations and average reliabilities (from time 1 to time 2) study for LAS English

and Spanish subscales and test totals are given in Table 3.4.

Validity of the LAS

De Avila and Duncan (1982) approached the question of validity in several ways. They examined the theory concerning the hypothesized relationship between school achievement and oral language proficiency as assessed by the LAS. In addition, these authors discussed data bearing on both criterion and discriminate validity of the test. With respect to school achievement, a number of studies were reviewed which showed consistent positive correlations across both Level I and II tests. These data were presented for both total test and subscale scores. While slightly different results were reported from study to study, depending on which LAS subscale was being used (i.e., phonemic discrimination vs. comprehension) to predict which aspect of achievement (i.e., reading comprehension vs. math computation), there was a basically consistent linear relationship. This relationship was taken to imply that oral language proficiency as assessed by the LAS could be viewed as a necessary (although not sufficient) precondition for school achievement.

The data presented which addressed the discriminate validity of the LAS showed the test to be extremely capable

in discriminating limited from native speakers (De Avila & Duncan, 1982, p. 127).

Table 3.4. Reliability of LAS-I: English and Spanish (N=64).

<u>LAS</u> Subscale	Test-Retest		Cronbach's Alpha*		Split- Half*	
	<u>LAS</u> Eng	<u>LAS</u> Sp	Eng	Sp	Eng	Sp
Minimal Pairs	.83	.36	.78	.82	.78	.67
Phonemes	.89	.64	.88	.97	.90	.85
Lexical	.92	.85	.89	.95	.77	.96
Comprehension	.72	.60	.64	.71	NA	.76
Oral Production	.71	.92	Inter-rater = .92**			
<u>LAS</u> Total	.88	.96	.94	.95	.85	.60

*Average reliabilities for test and retest.

**Based on data reported in LAS Test Manual (1977).

Source: De Avila and Duncan (1982, p. 75).

In addition to general questions of predictive and discriminate validity, De Avila and Duncan examined in empirical terms the deeper question of construct validity. Factor analytic results revealed the LAS to be comprised of a set of subscales which formed a consistent cluster which differed from clusters formed by tests of cognitive style, intellectual development, and school achievement. These

data illustrated the "convergent/discriminate" validity of the LAS.

The concurrent validity of the LAS was also examined using a number of different studies which attempted to show the relation of the LAS scores to those produced by (1) other tests of linguistic proficiency, and (2) to teacher judgments. Studies by Dalton (1979) and Jackson (1980) revealed a substantial degree of consistency between teacher judgment of linguistic proficiency and performance on the LAS.

In summary, it can be said that the LAS constitutes a convergent approach to language proficiency which is made up of both discrete point and integrative procedures. The net result seems to be a stable set of subscales which, when combined, produce a total score capable of predicting the probability of success in an all-English speaking classroom.

The Procedures

Upon selection of all students who participated in the bilingual education program, the school records of these children were examined. First, the scores they obtained on the Language Assessment Scales which measured their proficiency in English and Vietnamese at the beginning of their kindergarten year (pretest, Fall 1984) and at the end of their second grade year (posttest, Spring 1987)

were recorded. Second, the subjects' birthdates were observed. Third, each subject's sex was noted. Finally, the children's socioeconomic status was taken into consideration by means of the school information which indicates whether a child had totally paid, reduced price, or free lunch in school.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

The results of this study are presented in terms of differences in Vietnamese (native) and English (second) oral language proficiency across sex, age, socioeconomic status (SES), and grade levels for Vietnamese students as a result of their 3-year (K-2) exposure to an experimental transitional bilingual education program. These results are also presented in terms of differences in English language proficiency across Vietnamese language proficiency. At the same time, findings of a correlational investigation of the relationship between Vietnamese (L1) and English (L2) oral language proficiency are reported.

The language proficiency scores for both Vietnamese and English range from 1 to 5. It was assumed that these scores represent true interval level measurement. For this reason, the data of this study were analyzed by means of parametric techniques. However, as a precaution, nonparametric techniques were also utilized, and the results from this method were the same as the findings from the parametric approach. The statistical treatments used were analysis of covariance and Spearman's rho correlation. Tukey post-hoc tests were calculated where appropriate.

Difference in Vietnamese Language Proficiency
Across Sex, Age, Socioeconomic Status,
and Grade Levels

Hypothesis 1 stated that there would be no difference in Vietnamese oral language proficiency for Vietnamese students across sex, age, socioeconomic status, and grade levels as a result of their 3-year exposure to an experimental transitional bilingual education program

The LAS mean scores for Vietnamese oral language proficiency and corresponding standard deviations according to sex, age, socioeconomic status, and grade levels are reported in Table 4.1. Table 4.2 presents an analysis of covariance where Vietnamese proficiency at time 2 (second grade) is the dependent variable, Vietnamese proficiency at time 1 (kindergarten) is the covariate, and sex, age, socioeconomic status, and grade levels are the independent variables.

From this analysis it will be noted that main effects were found for sex and socioeconomic status, but not for age. In addition, there were no significant interactions found. This indicates that for Vietnamese oral language proficiency, females scored significantly higher than males.

Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey procedure demonstrated that low SES students scored significantly

Table 4.1. Means and standard deviations for Vietnamese oral language proficiency.

Language	Whole Group n=126	Sex 1 (M) n=61	Sex 2 (F) n=65	Age Group 1 (Younger) n=55	Age Group 2 (Older) n=71	SES1 (Low) n=45	SES2 (Middle) n=23	SES3 (High) n=58
VN1								
Mn	3.58	3.16	3.97	3.11	3.94	3.04	3.61	3.98
SD	.85	.73	.77	.71	.77	.74	.84	.71
VN2								
Mn	2.51	2.42	2.60	2.46	2.55	2.38	2.57	2.59
SD	.91	.76	.83	.76	.84	.75	.94	.74

Note: Mn = Mean
 VN1 = Vietnamese in Kindergarten
 VN2 = Vietnamese in Second Grade
 SD = Standard Deviation

Table 4.2. Source table from analysis of covariance depicting the relationship between time 2 Vietnamese language proficiency and subjects' sex, age, socioeconomic status and grade levels; controlling for time 1 Vietnamese language proficiency.

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Time 1 Vietnamese**	91.14	1	91.14	972.32*
<u>Main Effects</u>				
Sex	.65	1	.65	6.91*
Age	.14	1	.14	1.47
SES	.85	2	.43	4.54*
<u>2-Way Interaction</u>				
Sex x Age	.10	1	.10	1.02
Sex x SES	.07	2	.03	.35
Age x SES	.22	2	.11	1.15
<u>3-Way Interaction</u>				
Sex x Age x SES	.13	2	.07	.72
Residual	10.59	113	.09	

p<.05

**Identifies covariate

lower than the two other groups (middle and high SES) while there was no significant difference between middle SES and high SES students. It can be concluded that for Vietnamese oral language proficiency, there was a significant difference due to sex and socioeconomic status, but there was no significant difference due to age.

Table 4.3 presents a detailed breakdown for Vietnamese oral language proficiency when measured at two points in time (kindergarten and second grade). This table demonstrates that the number of students who were fluent in Vietnamese decreased as they progressed through the three grades.

Difference in English Language Proficiency
Across Sex, Age, Socioeconomic
Status, and Grade Levels

Hypothesis 2 anticipated that there would be no significant difference in English oral language proficiency for Vietnamese students across sex, age, socioeconomic status, and grade levels as a result of their 3-year exposure to an experimental transitional bilingual education program. The mean scores on the LAS for English language proficiency and corresponding standard deviations according to sex, age, socioeconomic status, and grade levels are reported in Table 4.4. This table shows that sex, age, and socioeconomic status affected the subjects' acquisition of English as L2.

Table 4.3. Breakdown for Vietnamese oral language proficiency in kindergarten and second grade.

Vietnamese Kindergarten LAS Levels (n)	Vietnamese Second Grade					LAS Means (n)
	LAS Level (n)	LAS Level (n)	LAS Level (n)	LAS Level (n)	LAS Level (n)	
5 (19)	5 (1)	4 (17)	3 (1)	2 (0)	1 (0)	4.00
4 (46)	5 (0)	4 (0)	3 (41)	2 (5)	1 (0)	2.89
3 (50)	5 (0)	4 (0)	3 (1)	2 (44)	1 (5)	1.92
2 (11)	5 (0)	4 (0)	3 (0)	2 (0)	1 (11)	1.00
1 (0)	5 (0)	4 (0)	3 (0)	2 (0)	1 (0)	
LAS Mean 3.58						2.51

Table 4.4. Means and standard deviations for English oral language proficiency.

Language	Whole Group n=126	Sex 1 (M) n=61	Sex 2 (F) n=65	Age Group 1 (Younger) n=55	Age Group 2 (Older) n=71	SES1 (Low) n=45	SES2 (Middle) n=23	SES3 (High) n=58
ENG 1								
Mn	1.02	1.00	1.03	1.00	1.03	1.00	1.04	1.02
SD	.13	0	.17	0	.17	0	.21	.13
ENG 2								
Mn	3.25	2.83	3.65	2.74	3.64	2.78	3.09	3.68
SD	.99	.80	.99	.68	.91	.78	.94	.81

Note: Mn = Mean
 ENG 1 = English in Kindergarten
 ENG 2 = English in Second Grade
 SD = Standard Deviation

Table 4.5 presents an analysis of covariance where English proficiency at time 2 (second grade) is the dependent variable, English proficiency at time 1 (kindergarten) is the covariate, and sex, age, socioeconomic status, and grade levels are the independent variables. This analysis showed that for English oral language proficiency, females scored significantly higher than males, and older students scored significantly higher than younger students.

Tukey post-hoc tests indicated that for English oral language proficiency, scores increased linearly with socioeconomic status increment. That is, the low SES students scored significantly lower than the middle and high SES students, and the middle SES children scored significantly lower than the high SES pupils. One can conclude that for English oral language proficiency, there was a significant difference due to sex, age, and socioeconomic status.

Table 4.6 presents a detailed breakdown for Vietnamese language proficiency in kindergarten and English language proficiency in second grade. This table reveals that the number of students who became fluent in English in second grade corresponds to the number of students who were fluent in Vietnamese in kindergarten.

Table 4.5. Source table from analysis of covariance depicting the relationship between time 2 English language proficiency and subjects' sex, age, socioeconomic status, and grade levels; controlling for time 1 English language proficiency.

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Time 1 English **				
<u>Main Effects</u>	1.13	1	1.13	3.27
Sex	20.77	1	20.77	60.00*
Age	22.23	1	22.23	64.22*
SES	29.09	2	9.55	27.58*
<u>2-Way Interaction</u>				
Sex x Age	.90	1	.90	2.60
Sex x SES	.32	2	.16	.47
Age x SES	.69	2	.35	1.00
<u>3-Way Interaction</u>				
Sex x Age x SES	0	2	0	0
Residual	39.12	113	.35	

**Identifies covariate
p<.05

Table 4.6. Breakdown for Vietnamese oral language proficiency in kindergarten and English oral language proficiency in second grade.

Vietnamese Kindergarten LAS Levels (n)	LAS Level (n)	LAS Level (n)	English LAS Level (n)	Second Grade LAS Level (n)	LAS Level (n)	LAS Means (n)
5 (19)	5 (16)	4 (3)	3 (0)	2 (0)	1 (0)	4.84
4 (46)	5 (0)	4 (30)	3 (15)	2 (1)	1 (0)	3.63
3 (50)	5 (0)	4 (0)	3 (29)	2 (21)	1 (0)	2.58
2 (11)	5 (0)	4 (0)	3 (0)	2 (11)	1 (0)	2.00
1 (0)	5 (0)	4 (0)	3 (0)	2 (0)	1 (0)	
LAS Mean						3.26
3.58						

Difference in English Language Proficiency
Across Vietnamese Language Proficiency
and Grade Levels

Hypothesis 3 assumed that there would be no significant difference in English oral language proficiency for Vietnamese students as a result of their 3-year exposure to an experimental, transitional bilingual education program across Vietnamese oral language proficiency and grade levels.

To address this hypothesis, time 1 Vietnamese language proficiency was dichotomized into low or nonfluent (scores of 3 or less) and high or fluent (scores in excess of 3), and was construed as an independent variable in an analysis of covariance where time 1 English proficiency scores constituted the covariate, and time 2 English proficiency scores the dependent variable. This analysis is presented in Table 4.7. This table shows that the effect of time 1 Vietnamese on time 2 English was significant.

An examination of cell means indicated that the pupils who scored low (nonfluent) in Vietnamese in kindergarten obtained a mean score of 2.47 in English in second grade, while the students who were high (fluent) in Vietnamese in kindergarten scored significantly higher at 3.98 in English in second grade.

Correlational Investigation

A correlational analysis was conducted to determine whether there was a relationship between Vietnamese (L1) and English (L2) oral language proficiency for Vietnamese

Table 4.7. Source table from analysis of covariance depicting the relationship between English proficiency at time 2 and Vietnamese proficiency at time 1; controlling for English proficiency at time 1.

	SS	df	MS	F
<u>Source</u>				
Time 1 English **	1.13	1	1.13	2.77
<u>Main Effect</u>				
Time 1 Vietnamese (low vs. high)	70.55	1	70.55	172.86*
Residual	50.20	123	.41	

**Indicates covariate
p<.05

Time 1: Kindergarten; Time 2: Second Grade

students as a result of their 3-year exposure to an experimental, transitional bilingual education program. Table 4.8 presents Spearman's rho correlation coefficients showing the relationship between Vietnamese and English language proficiency measured at two points in time.

Relationship Between Vietnamese in
Kindergarten and Vietnamese
in Second Grade

Hypothesis 4.1 stated that there would be no significant relationship between Vietnamese proficiency at time 1 (kindergarten) and Vietnamese proficiency at time 2 (second grade). As revealed by Table 4.8, the large correlation coefficient of .94 indicated that a strong relationship existed between Vietnamese proficiency in kindergarten and Vietnamese proficiency in second grade.

Table 4.8. Spearman's rho correlation coefficients depicting the relationship between Vietnamese and English language proficiency measured at two points in time.

	Time 1 Vietnamese	Time 1 English	Time 2 Vietnamese	Time 2 English
Time 1 Vietnamese	-	.14	.94*	.86*
Time 1 English		-	.14	.11
Time 2 Vietnamese			-	.84*
Time 2 English				-

p<.05

Time 1: Kindergarten

Time 2: Second Grade

Relationship Between Vietnamese in
Second Grade and English in
Second Grade

Hypothesis 4.2 stated that there would be no significant relationship between Vietnamese proficiency in second grade and English proficiency in second grade. A correlation coefficient of .84 presented in Table 4.8 demonstrated a statistically significant relationship between Vietnamese proficiency in second grade and English proficiency in second grade. An examination of cell means indicated that the students who were fluent in Vietnamese in second grade were also fluent in English in second grade.

Relationship Between Vietnamese in Kindergarten
and English in Second Grade

Hypothesis 4.3 stated that there would be no significant relationship between Vietnamese proficiency in kindergarten and English proficiency in second grade.

As shown in Table 4.8, a correlation coefficient of .86 indicated that a statistically significant relationship existed between Vietnamese proficiency in kindergarten and English proficiency in second grade. An examination of cell means revealed that the pupils who were fluent in Vietnamese in kindergarten were also fluent in English in second grade.

Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to present the results of the study in terms of differences in Vietnamese and English oral language proficiency across sex, age, socioeconomic status, and grade levels for Vietnamese students influenced by a 3-year (K-2) experimental transitional bilingual education program. These results were also presented in terms of difference in English oral language proficiency across Vietnamese oral language proficiency and grade levels for Vietnamese students as a result of their 3-year exposure to an experimental transitional bilingual education program. Findings of a correlational investigation of the relationship between Vietnamese (L1) and English (L2) oral language proficiency were also reported.

The results of the study were as follows:

1. For Vietnamese language proficiency, males scored lower than females; students who received free lunch (low SES) scored significantly lower than pupils who paid reduced price (middle SES) or full price (high SES) for their lunch while there was no significant difference between reduced-price-lunch and full-price-lunch students; and there was no significant difference between the scores of

younger students and the scores of their older counterparts.

2. For English language proficiency, males scored significantly lower than females; younger students scored significantly lower than older ones; and the three SES groups were statistically different from one another.
3. For English language proficiency, there was a significant difference due to Vietnamese language proficiency.
- 4.1. There was a significant positive relationship between Vietnamese proficiency in kindergarten and Vietnamese proficiency in second grade.
- 4.2. There was a significant positive relationship between Vietnamese proficiency in second grade and English proficiency in second grade.
- 4.3. There was a significant positive relationship between Vietnamese proficiency in kindergarten and English proficiency in second grade.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Restatement of the Problem

The purpose of this ex post facto study was to investigate the experimental impact of a Vietnamese/English transitional bilingual education program (kindergarten through second grade) on program participants' native and second oral language proficiency. The first set of results for this study was presented in terms of differences in Vietnamese (native) and English (second) oral language proficiency across sex, age, socioeconomic status and grade levels. The second set of results for this study was presented in terms of difference in English language proficiency across Vietnamese language proficiency. The final set of results was from a correlational analysis which investigated the relationship between Vietnamese (L1) and English (L2) oral language proficiency. These findings will be discussed in reference to appropriate theoretical and research literature related to language acquisition.

Procedures

Initially, the names of 250 Vietnamese American students who participated in a transitional bilingual education program in a California school district were

gathered. These children entered kindergarten at the beginning of the 1984-85 school year, and were in second grade during the 1986-87 school year. Later, 126 pupils were selected who had all Language Assessment Scales (LAS) data (Vietnamese and English) from kindergarten and second grade. Upon selection of these children, their school records were examined. First, the scores they obtained on the LAS which measured their proficiency in Vietnamese and English at the beginning of their kindergarten year (pretest, Fall 1984) and at the end of their second grade year (posttest, Spring 1987) were recorded. Second, each student's sex and birthdate were noted. Finally, the children's socioeconomic status was recorded based on school information indicating whether a child had totally paid, reduced price, or free lunch in school.

Data were analyzed to determine if there was a difference in Vietnamese and English oral language proficiency across sex, age, socioeconomic status, and grade levels. The statistical treatments used in this study were also aimed at ascertaining whether there was a difference in English language proficiency across Vietnamese language proficiency and grade levels, as well as whether there was a relationship between Vietnamese language proficiency and English language proficiency.

Results

The major results of this study were as follows:

1. There was a significant difference in Vietnamese oral language proficiency (L1) associated with sex and socioeconomic status, but there was no significant difference associated with age.
2. There was a significant difference in English oral language proficiency (L2) associated with sex, age, and socioeconomic status.
3. There was a significant difference in English oral language proficiency (L2) associated with Vietnamese oral language proficiency (L1).
- 4.1. There was a significant positive relationship between Vietnamese proficiency (L1) in kindergarten and Vietnamese proficiency in second grade.
- 4.2. There was a significant positive relationship between Vietnamese proficiency (L1) in second grade and English proficiency (L2) in second grade.
- 4.3. There was a significant positive relationship between Vietnamese proficiency (L1) in kindergarten and English proficiency (L2) in second grade.

Discussion

Due to the paucity of research directly related to the effects of a transitional bilingual education program on first and second language acquisition for Vietnamese

children in terms of their sex, age, and SES, this section will discuss closely related literature and research, and make appropriate comparisons to the obtained results of this study.

Sex Differences

The results of the present study indicate that for both first and second language proficiency, there were significant differences related to sex. Girls scored significantly higher than boys in both Vietnamese and English proficiency. Corresponding with some prior research that investigated sex differences in language acquisition and academic achievement, this finding can be explained in terms of differences in brain functioning, linguistic aptitude, or verbal ability.

Educators who believe that learning differences between the sexes are present at birth point to differences that have been found in the brain functioning of boys and girls (Restak, 1979). Research indicates that for most people, the left hemisphere of the brain specializes in verbal tasks, while the right hemisphere specializes in nonverbal functions (Sherman, 1977). Related studies indicate that the right hemisphere of the female brain has more verbal capacity than that of the male (The University of Chicago, 1979).

Some critics, such as Star (1979a, 1979b) and Lowe and Hubbard (1979), believe that there are no innate sex differences of any kind other than those of reproduction. Contradicting these critics' belief, Hirst (1982) cites a substantial body of evidence suggesting that females as a group show a significant superiority over males in linguistic aptitude. Deno (1982) also found evidence in recent literature reviews that females score higher than males on tests of verbal ability (e.g., Boverman et al., 1968; Buffery & Gray, 1972; Burstein et al., 1980; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974). As early as one month of age (Oetzel, 1966) and throughout the preschool years, females show slight verbal advantage over males (McGuinness & Pribram, 1979), which appears stronger and more reliable after age 10 or 11 (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974; Petersen & Wittig, 1979). Similar trends have been found in studies of disadvantaged preschool children (Burstein et al., 1980; Oetzel, 1966).

Among adults (ages 16 through 64 years), women show higher mean scores than men on the verbal subtests of the Wechsler Intelligence Scales for Adults (Matarazzo, 1972), as well as the verbal portions of advanced standardized tests generally taken by young adults, such as the Scholastic Aptitude Test and the Graduate Record Exam (Hoyenga & Hoyenga, 1979). Nash (1979) points out that

verbal ability includes components such as fluency, reading comprehension, analogies, and creative writing. Among the Wechsler tests on which females perform better than males are similarities, memory for words, and word fluency (Guilford, 1967).

Many researchers have reported that females tend to do better than males in language acquisition and academic achievement. Burstall et al. (1974) looked at 17,000 majority children learning a foreign language in Britain and discovered that the girls in the experimental sample scored significantly higher than the boys on all tests measuring achievement in French. In a recent study, Allen and Tadlock (1986) related gender to the norm-referenced achievement of a Tennessee school district of 6,000 pupils and found that on the California Achievement Test, female students scored higher than male students. Haynes and his associates (1988) examined the academic records of 72 Black female and 76 Black male tenth grade students who attended an urban, inner-city high school to find whether there were sex differences on measures of linguistic ability and study behavior. The results indicated significant sex differences; more female students belonged to the high achievement group than male students. In another study, Gullahorn (1979) presents data showing female superiority in language acquisition from the age of six months.

Collecting reading data on three age groups (nine, thirteen, and seventeen year olds), the National Assessment of Educational Progress (1981) found that females scored five percent higher than males.

In the present study, it was noted that girls scored significantly higher than boys in both Vietnamese and English language proficiency. While contradicting the belief defended by Star (1979a, 1979b) and Low and Hubbard (1979) mentioned earlier in this section, this finding supports the hypothesis proposed by Restak (1979), and confirms the majority of studies previously conducted. Such research appears to be stable across race and ethnicity, as well as SES. Thus, the findings in this study fit within generally-held propositions on the questions of sex-related differences in linguistic aptitude.

Age Differences

Data analyzed for this study show that for English proficiency, older students scored significantly higher than younger ones. This finding can be explained with national and international research related to age and second language acquisition.

In the United States, for many years, there was a commonly held belief that younger children were superior to older children and adults in second-language learning

(Penfield & Roberts, 1959; Penfield, 1964). However, when comparisons were made between adult and child second-language learners, results usually indicated that adult and adolescent learners performed better on measures of morphology and syntax than did child learners (McLaughlin, 1985). Krashen's (1982) Monitor model for second-language acquisition also suggested that adults acquire the morphology and syntax of a second-language faster than younger children.

In other countries, research with school children learning second languages contradicts the younger-is-better hypothesis. In a study conducted in England, Stern, Burstall, and Harley (1975) examined 17,000 British children learning French. These children were compared based on when they started to learn the second language. After five years of exposure, children who began at age eleven were found to be more successful language learners than children who began at age eight.

Similar results were obtained in four other large-scale European studies. Ekstrand (1964, 1976) found that for both Swedish children learning English and immigrant children learning Swedish, older children performed significantly better on evaluation tests than did younger ones. Buhler (1972) reported research with fourth or fifth grade Swiss children learning French, which indicated that

the older children did better on various tests of French language skills. Florander and Jansen (1968) found that Danish children beginning instruction in English in the sixth grade outperformed children beginning at either the fourth or the fifth grade after both 80 hours and 320 hours of instruction. Gorosch and Axelsson (1964) found that Swedish children learning English who began at the age of eleven learned faster and more accurately than those who began at age seven.

In another study, Ervin-Tripp (1974) compared the rate of acquisition of French by 31 English-speaking children aged four to nine who had been exposed to the L2 for up to nine months in Switzerland (including attendance in French-speaking schools). She reported that older children performed much better on tasks designed to measure aural comprehension of French syntax and morphology.

In a Canadian study, Cummins (1981b) reanalyzed English L2 results reported for a sample of over 1,000 immigrant children who had arrived in Toronto at various ages up to about 15 years (Ramsey & Wright, 1974). Cummins found that, when length of residence was controlled, the performance of children arriving at older ages was superior to that of children arriving at younger ages. In a further study involving 130 Japanese and Vietnamese immigrant students in Toronto, Cummins et al. (1984) again found an

advantage on academic L2 proficiency measures for students arriving at older ages.

The investigators in these studies concluded that given the same amount of exposure, older children are better second-language learners than their younger counterparts. One explanation for this finding is cognitive maturity. Older L2 learners have a maturational advantage over younger L2 learners, particularly on context-reduced, cognitively demanding types of tasks (Snow & Hoefnagel-Hohle, 1978).

In terms of the present study, the results indicate that for English language proficiency, older students scored significantly higher than younger ones. This finding contrasts with Penfield's (1959, 1964) hypothesis, but corresponds with Krashen's (1981) theory and other studies mentioned in this discussion (Stern, Burstall, & Harley, 1975; Ekstrand, 1964, 1976; Buhler, 1972; Florander & Jansen, 1968; Gorosch & Axelsson, 1974; Ervin-Tripp, 1974; Cummins, 1981b; and Cummins et al., 1984).

From the present study and the related research cited above, it is suggested that there may be an advantage for older learners on academic types of L2 tasks. The finding that older learners are more efficient than younger learners

in acquiring an L2 also lends support to Wong-Fillmore's (1985) hypothesis that older learners may be relatively better and quicker at learning certain aspects of second languages than younger learners. Furthermore, this finding reinforces Cummins' (1983) prediction that on context-reduced academic types of L2 tasks, there is a cognitive advantage for older learners.

One implication of this finding is that further research into age differences in second language acquisition will need to take the dimensions of cognitive involvement and contextual support into account. As mentioned in Chapter 2, it is necessary to distinguish between basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) (Cummins, 1979, 1980). If the aim is to compare the oral communicative competence of young children and older learners, the form of assessment must elicit natural language performance in a relatively context-embedded situation, in order not to bias the results in favor of the more cognitively mature older learners (Harley, 1986).

SES Differences

The present study revealed that for Vietnamese language proficiency, low-SES students scored significantly lower than middle- and high-SES students, and that for English

language proficiency, scores increased linearly with socioeconomic status increments. This section will discuss the national and international research related to SES differences and academic achievement in language and reading, and intelligence and creative ability. According to Ornstein and Levine (1985), there is a positive relationship between social class and educational achievement. Traditionally, working-class students have not performed as well as middle- and upper-class students.

Warner and his associates (1949) used four variables (occupation, education, income, and housing value) to classify individuals and families in three groups: upper-class, middle-class, and lower-class. Individuals very high in occupational prestige, amount of education, income, and housing value are high in socioeconomic status (SES). They are viewed by others as upper-class persons and are influential and powerful in their communities. Conversely, persons low in socioeconomic status are viewed as lower-class. They do not generally exert much power or influence.

National and international studies have been conducted to investigate the effects of SES differences in language and reading. In the United States, one of the first

systematic studies investigating relations between social class and educational achievement was Robert and Helen Lynd's study of "Middletown" (a small midwestern city) in the 1920s. The Lynds concluded that lower SES children do not come to school academically equipped to deal with the verbal symbols and behavior traits required for success in the classroom (Lynd & Lynd, 1929).

The Lynds' observations on social class and the schools were repeated by Warner and his associates in a series of studies of communities in New England, the deep South, and the Midwest. Warner et al. (1944) found that the main function of school seemed to be sorting out students according to their potential for upward mobility, a process that tended to doom low SES students to remain in the working class. The school served the middle- and upper-classes, particularly the latter, by teaching those skills that are essential for college preparation and high-status occupations. As the low-SES child is not prepared to conform to the school's middle-class standards and expectations, he or she is handicapped in the school system (Warner et al., 1944).

Several studies have since documented the close relationship between social class and achievement in the educational system. For example, a clear picture of this

relationship has been provided by the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), which periodically collects achievement information from nationally representative samples of students. NAEP (1981) reported that reading scores of 13-year-old students in 1979 varied directly with their social class. Students whose parents had not graduated from high school (that is, low SES students) had an average score of 53 percent correct on the NAEP reading test, but high SES students (that is, those with college-educated parents) had an average score of 65, nearly one-fourth higher than the low SES group.

Downing and his associates (1977) looked at 787 kindergarteners to investigate concepts of language in children from different SES backgrounds. The obtained data indicated that kindergarteners from schools in higher SES neighborhoods had significantly more advanced concepts of language than children in lower SES areas, and this conceptual development was correlated with more conventional measures of reading readiness.

Palamar's (1978) study was designated to measure, describe, and examine language differences among 104 students from the working, middle, and upper class socioeconomic groups within a single school. A battery of tests were administered to measure the following skills: receptive language, expressive language, listening

vocabulary, listening comprehension, reading vocabulary, and reading comprehension. The data analyses revealed statistically significant differences among the three socioeconomic groups on all of the measured language variables.

In England, Burstall et al. (1974) conducted a large-scale study to investigate the progress of 17,000 British children learning French. These children were compared on the basis of sex, age, and socioeconomic status. The results indicated that there was a linear relation between a pupil's socioeconomic status and his level of achievement in French. On each occasion of testing, high mean scores tended to coincide with high-status parental occupation and low mean scores with low-status parental occupation.

National and international research has also been conducted to investigate SES differences in intelligence and academic achievement. For example, in the United States, Forman (1979) administered the Wallach-Kogan Tests of Creativity, the Primary Mental Abilities Tests, and subtests from the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills to 129 second graders. The results indicated that upper-SES subjects scored better than lower-SES subjects on creativity measures. In England, Glossop et al. (1979) acquired measures of achievement for 178 fifteen- and sixteen-year-

old adolescents on reading comprehension and mathematics tests, from an English essay, and from the results of public examinations. The results showed that subjects from poorer social background obtained lower scores relative to their intelligence test scores for all the achievement measures.

The present study revealed that for Vietnamese language proficiency, low-SES students scored significantly lower than middle- and high-SES students, and for English language proficiency, scores increased linearly with socioeconomic status increments. Corresponding with the theory proposed by Ornstein and Levine (1985), these findings are in accord with much of the prior research (Lynd & Lynd, 1929; Warner et al., 1944; National Assessment of Educational Progress, 1981; Burstall et al., 1974; Downing et al., 1977; Palamar, 1978; Forman, 1979; and Glossop et al., 1979). A conclusion to be drawn from these findings is that although all of the students under investigation had been educated in the same program continuously from the beginning of their educational careers, definite social-class patterns of success in language acquisition emerged.

The finding that high-SES students scored significantly higher than low-SES students in both Vietnamese and English language proficiency may be explained by the

differences in cognitive and verbal skills reflected by social-class differences in family language environment (Ornstein & Levine, 1985). The relatively wide and diverse experience of the middle-class child is important in developing cognitive and verbal skills, but advantages centering on the language used in the home are probably even more important. Bernstein (1975, 1981) has found that although both middle- and working-class children develop adequate skills with respect to "ordinary" or "restricted" language, middle-class children are superior in the use of "formal" or "elaborated" language. Ordinary, restricted language is grammatically simple and relies on gestures and further explanations to clarify meaning. The elaborated or formal language of the middle-class is grammatically complex and provides greater potential for organizing experience within an abstract system (Bernstein, 1981). Similarly, Holland (1984) has reported that the elaborated language of the middle-class child is more independent of the context (that is, more abstract) than "ordinary" language. Both Bernstein and Holland believe that facility in using elaborated language helps middle-class children excel in cognitive development, which is essential for school success.

Relationship Between First and Second Language

The results of the present study indicate that there was a significant difference in English language

proficiency (L2) across Vietnamese language proficiency (L1) and grade levels. An examination of cell means shows that the pupils who scored low (nonfluent) in Vietnamese proficiency in kindergarten obtained a mean score of 2.47 for English proficiency in second grade, and that the students who were high (fluent) in Vietnamese proficiency in kindergarten scored 3.98 for English proficiency in second grade.

The finding that Vietnamese proficiency (L1) in kindergarten significantly affected English proficiency (L2) in second grade is consistent with the theory advanced by Genesee (1987) and Snow (1985). According to these researchers, development of proficiency in L1 can contribute to development of proficiency in L2. Cummins (1981a) referred to this as the Common Underlying Proficiency (or CUP) model for first and second language acquisition. He postulated further that interdependence between first and second language proficiency development is most characteristic of context-reduced, cognitively demanding language proficiency (e.g., literacy skills for academic purposes). There is evidence that L2 literacy proceeds quite quickly if literacy skills have already been learned in L1 (Cummins et al., 1984; Skutnabb-Kangas & Toukomaa, 1976). From this finding, one can conclude that language experiences in the

home can be important for children's later success in school (Heath, 1986)

Furthermore, the present study found that there was a significant positive correlation between Vietnamese proficiency (L1) and English proficiency (L2). One explanation for this finding is that communicative skills in one language can transfer to another (Cummins, 1981a). Minority language parents who are proud of their cultural heritage are more likely to promote development of the home language and to provide language experiences that prepare their children for the kinds of context-reduced, cognitively demanding language skills they will need in school (Genesee, 1987). Research by Dolson (1985) has indicated that Hispanic students in Los Angeles who used Spanish at home performed comparably or significantly better on a number of academic tests than similar students who used English at home. Cummins et al.'s (1984) study involving 130 Japanese and Vietnamese immigrants in Toronto showed that scores on English (L2) proficiency were positively correlated with scores on Japanese and Vietnamese (L1) proficiency.

In summary, the present study revealed that Vietnamese proficiency (L1) in kindergarten significantly affected English proficiency (L2) in second grade, and that there was a significant positive correlation between Vietnamese

proficiency and English proficiency. These findings are compatible with the theoretical viewpoints as well as the research cited above (Genesee, 1987; Snow, 1985; Cummins, 1981a; Heath, 1986; Cummins et al., 1984; Skutnabb-Kangas & Toukoma, 1976; Dolson, 1985). A conclusion which can be drawn from these findings is that educating minority language students through the home language can facilitate English language development through linguistic interdependence. Viewed from another perspective, one does not have to begin initially teaching minority language students English reading and writing skills if they have already acquired literacy skills in their home language and if they have acquired some oral/aural proficiency in English. This phenomenon is also referred to as "positive transfer" (Genesee, 1987, p. 142).

Gain in English and Loss in Vietnamese

In general, there were significant changes in the subjects' proficiency in Vietnamese and English. An examination of cell means presented in Table 4.1 (p. 90) reveals that for Vietnamese language proficiency at kindergarten, the group mean was 3.58. By the end of second grade, they scored 2.51. The difference between the two means shows a significant loss in the children's first language proficiency after their three-year exposure to a transitional bilingual education program. For English

language proficiency, Table 4.4 (p. 94) indicates that in kindergarten, the group's mean was 1.02. By the end of second grade, their mean was 3.25. The difference between the two means demonstrates a marked gain in the children's second language proficiency as a result of their three-year exposure to a transitional bilingual education program.

The concurrent gain in second language proficiency and loss in first language proficiency experienced by the students in this study is congruent with Genesee's (1987) definition of a transitional bilingual education program. According to this definition, the primary goal of a transitional bilingual education program is to teach the students sufficient English language skills that they can be integrated into all-English classes as soon as possible. Genesee (1987) points out that this type of program obviously aims for transitional subtractive bilingualism. Lambert (1974) distinguishes between two categories of bilingualism. In additive bilingualism, the second language brings to the speaker a set of cognitive and social abilities which do not negatively affect those that have been acquired in the first language. The two linguistic and cultural entities combine in a complementary and enriching fashion. The converse situation arises with subtractive bilingualism, where the second language is acquired at the expense of the aptitudes already acquired

in the first language and instead of complementarity between two linguistic and cultural systems, there is competition.

The loss in first language proficiency experienced by the Vietnamese children involved in this study can be explained by the fact that they did not receive enough instruction in their mother tongue. As these children progressed through three grades in the program, they received ever diminishing instruction in their first language. This resulted in what Lambert (1974) calls subtractive bilingualism.

Conclusions

The results of the present study indicate that there were significant differences in Vietnamese (L1) and English (L2) oral language proficiency across sex, age, socioeconomic status, and grade levels for Vietnamese children influenced by a three-year (kindergarten through second grade) transitional bilingual education program. The findings of this study also demonstrate that Vietnamese proficiency in kindergarten significantly affected English proficiency in second grade, and that there was a significant positive correlation between Vietnamese language proficiency and English language proficiency. In addition, this study found that there was a significant loss in the children's first language proficiency while

they enjoyed a marked gain in their second language proficiency.

As mentioned in Chapter 1, Vietnamese parents living in the United States encourage their children to learn as much English as possible to integrate into the American culture, and to become functional members of the American society. But these parents normally do not want their children to lose their mother tongue and to become aliens to their own culture. In other words, Vietnamese refugees want their children to gain fluency in English while striving to maintain their native language. It was found that the transitional bilingual education program designed for the subjects in this study only partially met parental aspirations.

Cummins (1981a) has argued that an understanding of bilingual education requires an understanding of the nature of language proficiency and the developmental relationship between first language proficiency and second language proficiency. There is much evidence that second language literacy proceeds quite quickly if literacy skills have already been learned in the first language (Cummins et al., 1984; Skutnabb-Kangas & Toukomaa, 1976).

According to Cummins (1981a), native language instruction for language minority students is advisable and

beneficial because it strengthens and broadens the language skills that they have upon starting school. Their first language skills, at least when adequately developed for academic purposes, will support and facilitate English language development as a result of linguistic interdependence. A premature switch to a second language may disrupt the development of the cognitive structures that undergird not only the first language, but any subsequent language as well. Such structures are "interdependent," and they must be stabilized in the learner's native language before they can support academic learning.

What type of educational program is appropriate for Vietnamese American children who wish to reach the dual linguistic goal that their parents want them to attain? According to McLaughlin (1985), there is another model of bilingual education that avoids the difficulties besetting immersion and transitional approaches. This model can be called a "reverse immersion" approach, because the minority-language child is immersed in the first language. The second language is introduced gradually, beginning in the third grade. With this model, emphasis is on instruction in the first language through the initial grades of schooling until formal language skills are solidified.

McLaughlin points out that the chief advantage of the reverse immersion approach is that minority-language children have the opportunity to use their first language as a means of developing conceptual and communicative proficiency, gaining a sense of competence in school through their first language. Once children have developed literacy skills in the first language, they will develop a sense of mastery and competence that will form the basis for success in later grades. The prime consideration is that the child should be performing at grade level in the first language before reading and writing are introduced in the second. Because older children appear to be able to acquire second languages faster than younger children, the late introduction of literacy-related instruction in the second language should not penalize the child, while a sense of mastery in literacy-related tasks in the first language should prevent the child from being overwhelmed by the task of mastering the second (McLaughlin, 1985).

In short, the results of the present study indicate that the subjects enjoyed a marked gain in English language proficiency, but suffered a significant loss in Vietnamese language proficiency after their three-year exposure to a transitional bilingual education program. The loss in the children's first language proficiency demonstrates that this program could only meet their linguistic needs

partially. An alternative model of bilingual education, the "reverse immersion" approach, suggested by McLaughlin (1985) appears to be worth considering.

Implications for Further Study

1. A replication of this study with older students would validate the present findings which were based on a sample selected from only Vietnamese pupils who had progressed from kindergarten to second grade.
2. Similar studies on a larger scale should be conducted with other ethnic groups, and different geographic areas.
3. The relationship between language proficiency and academic performance should be investigated.
4. Language assessment instruments measuring both oral and written language proficiency should be used in similar studies with older students.

APPENDIX A

LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT SCALES (LAS)

ENGLISH LEVEL I

I. MINIMAL SOUND PAIRS

Student Instructions: We're going to listen to the tape now. When you hear two words on the tape, tell me if they sound the same or different.

Examples: coat,goat — different
lean,lean - same

- | | | | | | |
|-------|--------------------------|-------|-----------------|-------|---------------------|
| _____ | 1. them-them | _____ | 11. pet-pat | _____ | 21. rico-rise |
| _____ | 2. then-den | _____ | 12. back-back | _____ | 22. ten-tan |
| _____ | 3. very-berry | _____ | 13. deep-dip | _____ | 23. set-set |
| _____ | 4. five-five | _____ | 14. meat-meat | _____ | 24. send-sent |
| _____ | 5. yellow-yellow | _____ | 15. sing-sink | _____ | 25. mold-mold |
| _____ | 6. yes-Jess | _____ | 16. rang-rang | _____ | 26. peel-pill |
| _____ | 7. hit-hit | _____ | 17. thumb-thump | _____ | 27. mob-mop |
| _____ | 8. hop-up | _____ | 18. thin-tin | _____ | 28. cold-gold |
| _____ | 9. spun-spun | _____ | 19. chain-chain | _____ | 29. whether-weather |
| _____ | 10. especially-specially | _____ | 20. shop-chop | _____ | 30. rain-ray |

Min. Prs.
Raw Score

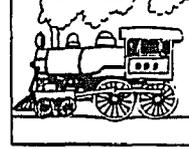
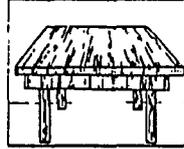
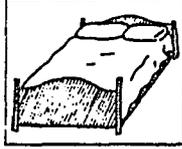
=

Conv.
Score

No. Correct

II. LEXICAL

Student instructions: I'm going to point to a picture. I want you to tell me what it is.

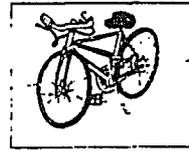
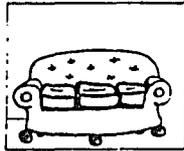
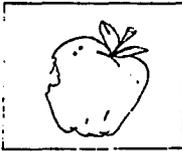


Pr.

Pr.

1.

2.

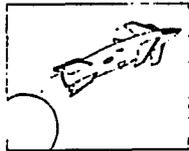
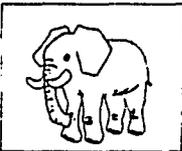
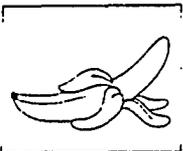


3.

4.

5.

6.

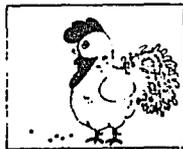


7.

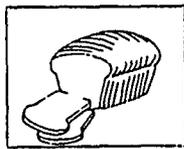
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9.

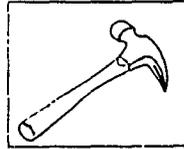
10.



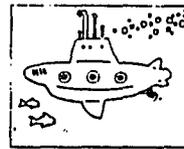
11. _____



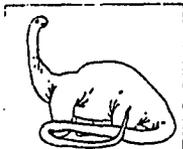
12. _____



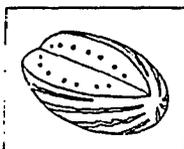
13. _____



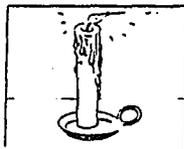
14. _____



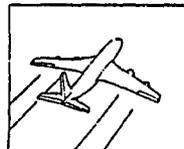
15. _____



16. _____



17. _____

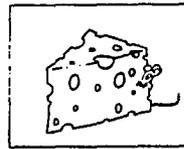


18. _____

Lexical
Raw Score

No. Correct

Conv.
Score



19. _____



20. _____

III. PHONEMES

Student Instructions: I want you to say exactly what you hear on the tape. Examples: if you hear dog, you say, "dog." If you hear, it's raining, you say, "_____."

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. _____ /ð/ <u>th</u> is | 19. _____ /z/ <u>peas</u> |
| 2. _____ My <u>f</u> ather is <u>f</u> urther. | 20. _____ The <u>b</u> oys <u>w</u> ere <u>b</u> usy. |
| 3. _____ /v/ <u>v</u> ery | 21. _____ /ɛ/ <u>bed</u> |
| 4. _____ The <u>r</u> ivers are <u>m</u> oving. | 22. _____ <u>L</u> et the <u>p</u> et in. |
| 5. _____ /y/ <u>y</u> es | 23. _____ /d/ <u>toad</u> |
| 6. _____ The <u>y</u> ard is <u>y</u> ellow. | 24. _____ The <u>f</u> ood was <u>g</u> ood. |
| 7. _____ /h/ <u>h</u> am | 25. _____ /ɪ/ <u>hill</u> |
| 8. _____ The <u>h</u> at is <u>h</u> ot. | 26. _____ He <u>b</u> it the <u>ch</u> ip. |
| 9. _____ /ə/ <u>l</u> uck | 27. _____ /b/ <u>rib</u> |
| 10. _____ He <u>h</u> ugged the <u>b</u> ug. | 28. _____ The <u>c</u> rab was in the <u>t</u> ub. |
| 11. _____ /æ/ <u>b</u> ad | 29. _____ /i/ <u>beet</u> |
| 12. _____ He <u>s</u> at on a <u>m</u> at. | 30. _____ They <u>n</u> eed the <u>f</u> eed. |
| 13. _____ /s/ <u>s</u> top | 31. _____ /g/ <u>bag</u> |
| 14. _____ The <u>s</u> nail can <u>s</u> pin. | 32. _____ My <u>g</u> um is <u>g</u> ood. |
| 15. _____ /θ/ <u>th</u> ing | 33. _____ /hw/ <u>white</u> |
| 16. _____ Old <u>K</u> athy is <u>th</u> in. | 34. _____ There's <u>w</u> hite and <u>w</u> heat. |
| 17. _____ /ç/ <u>ch</u> ea <u>p</u> | 35. _____ /p/ <u>paint</u> |
| 18. _____ He <u>ch</u> ewed his <u>ch</u> ocolate. | 36. _____ The <u>p</u> ig was in the <u>p</u> ark. |

Phon. Raw Score

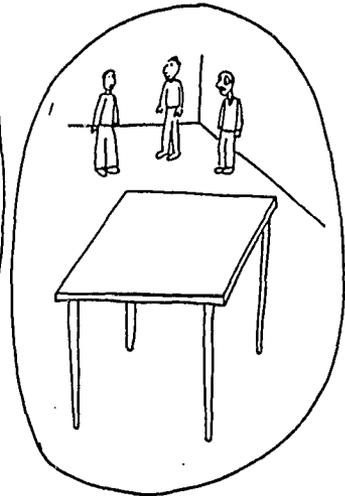
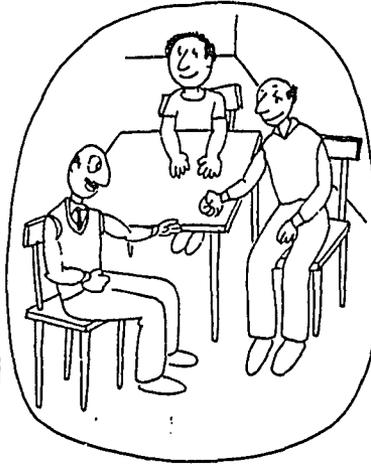
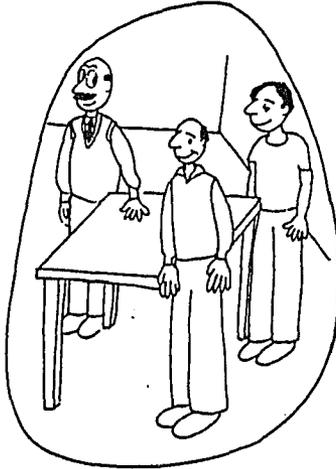
Conv. Score

=

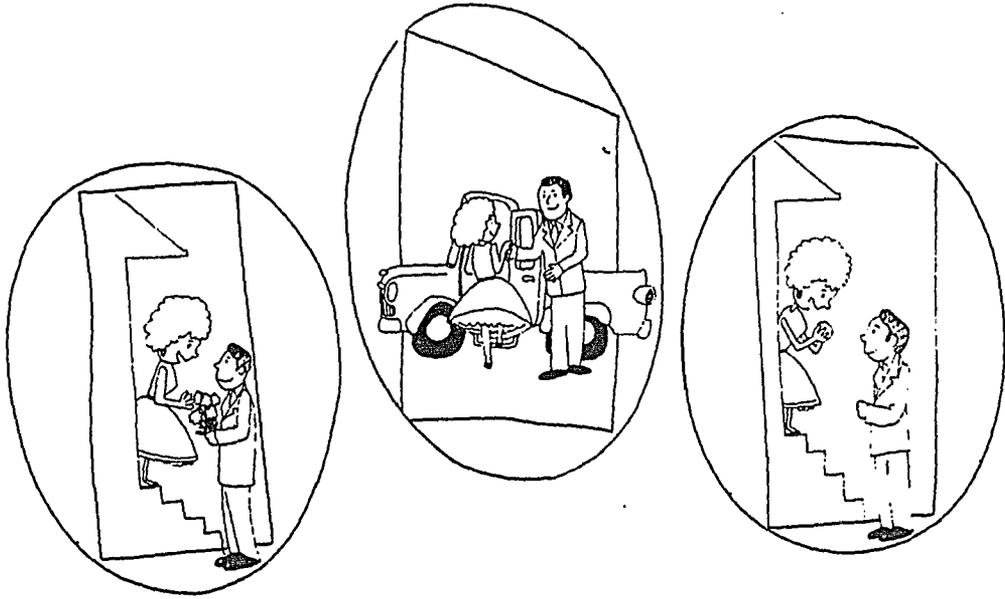
No. Correct

IV. COMPREHENSION

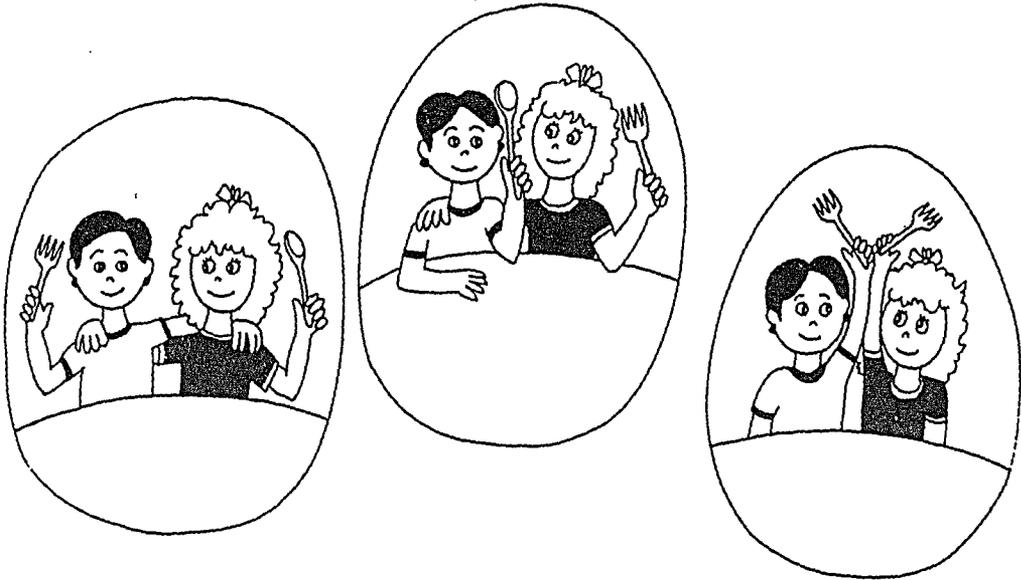
Student Instructions: Listen to the tape and then point to the picture (or put an "X" on the picture) that shows what you hear.

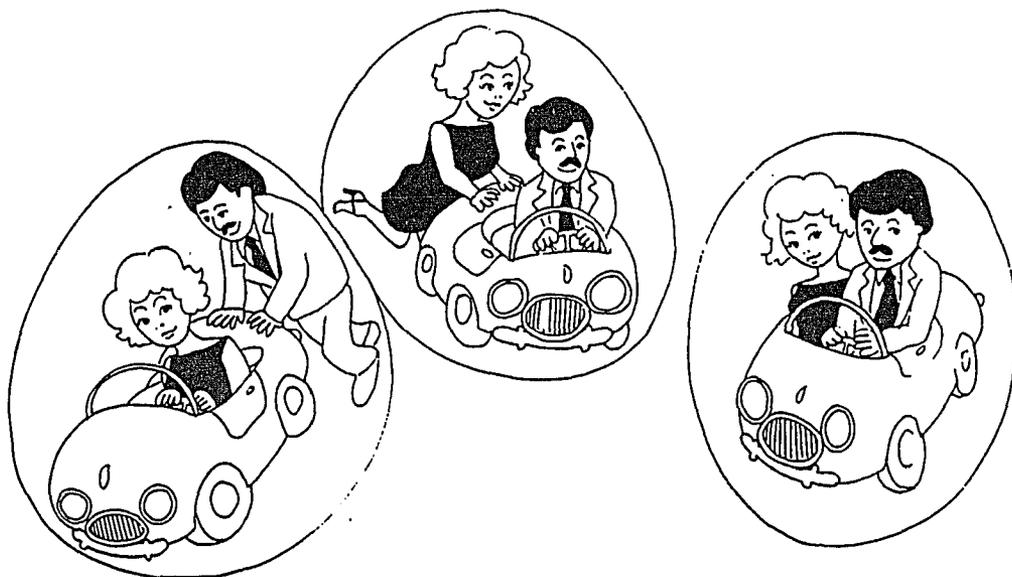


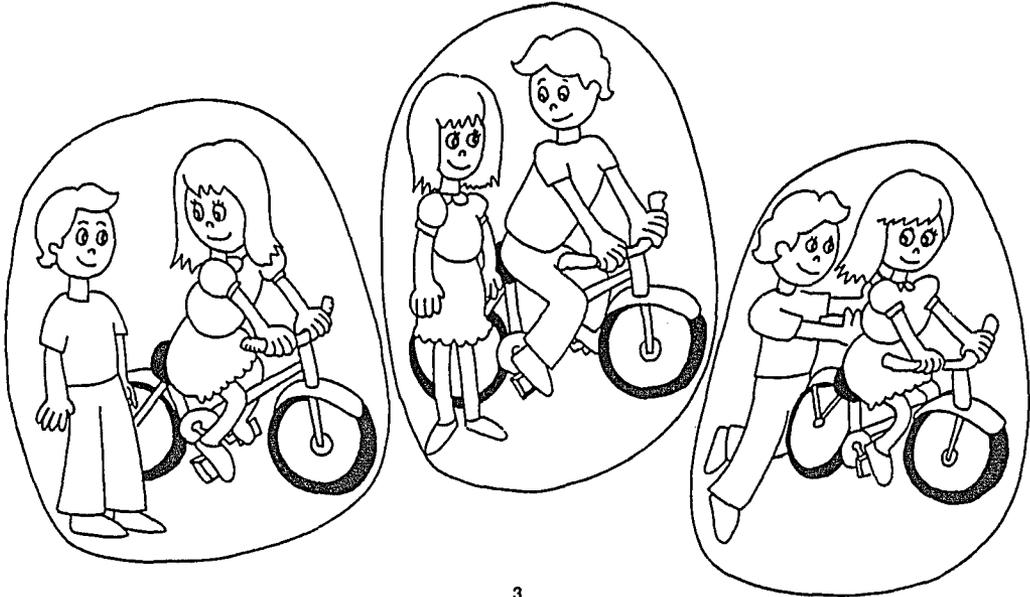
(Pr.)

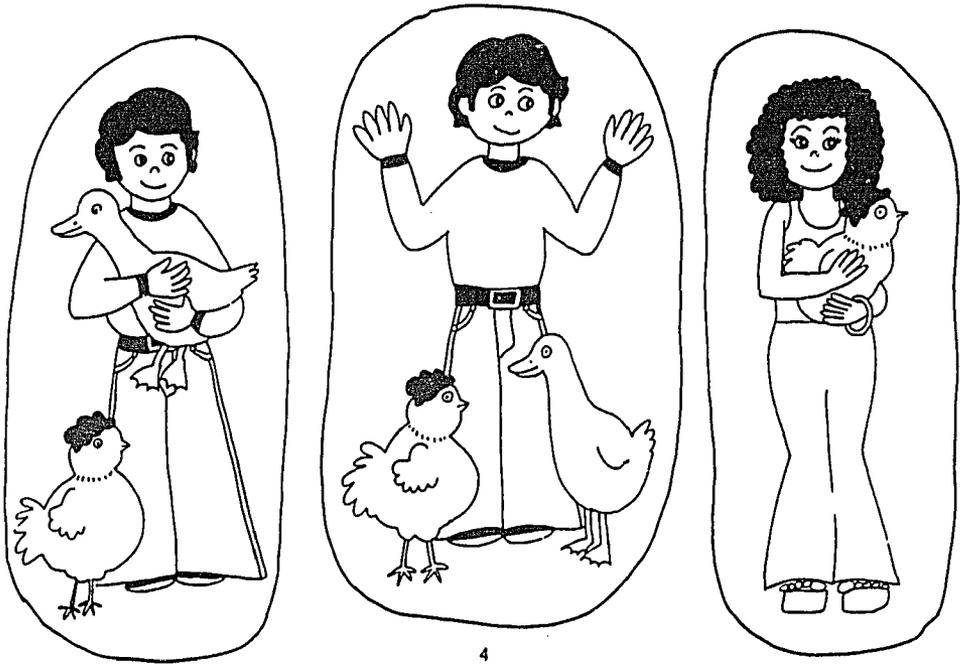


(Pr.)





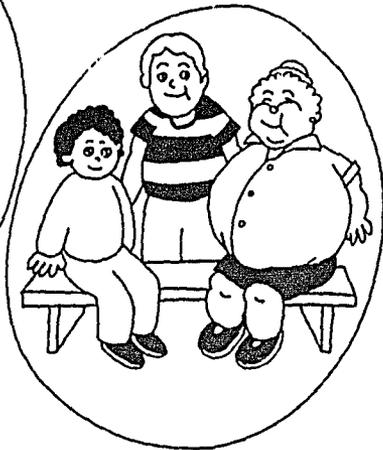
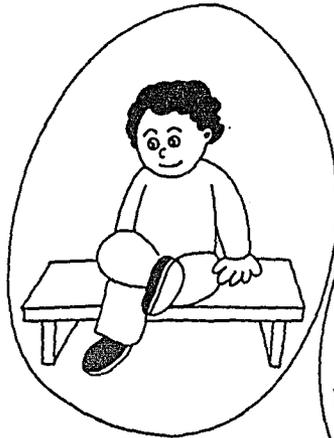
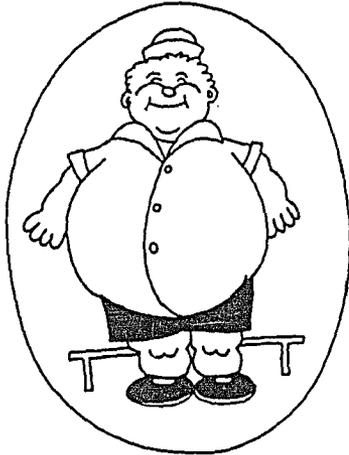


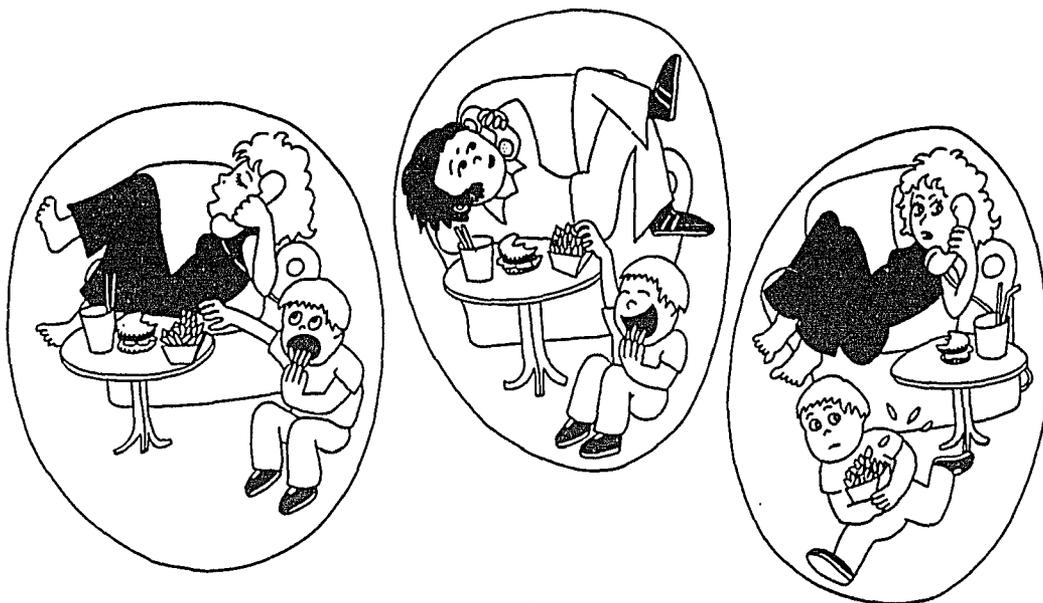


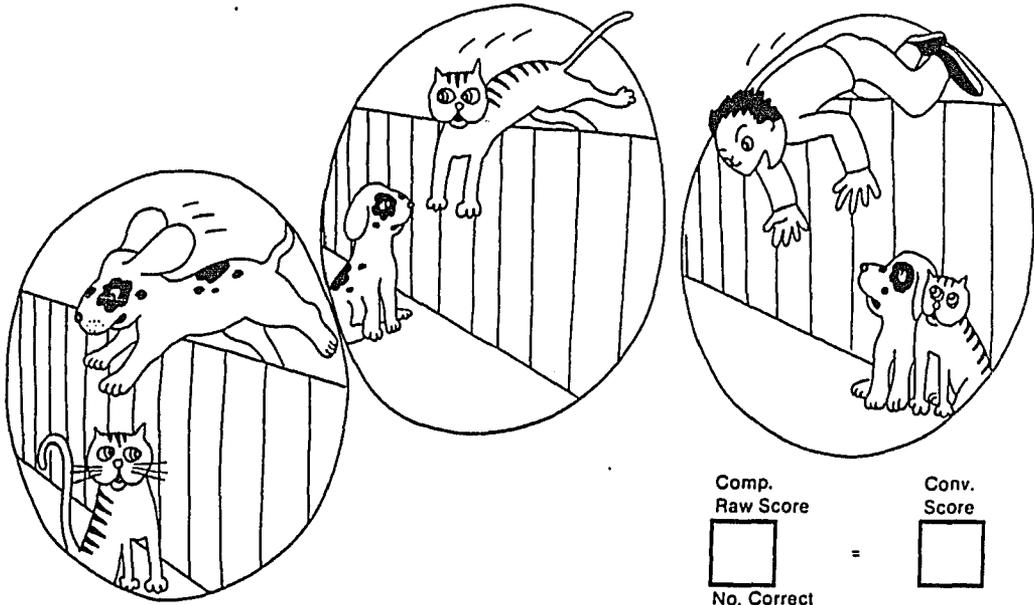












V. ORAL PRODUCTION (Storytelling)

Suggested probe questions to be used if necessary:

#1 Silly Old Monster	#2 The Crow and Pitcher	#3 The Wish Book	#4 The Fox and the Crow
1. Tell me about the silly old monster.	1. Tell me about the big crow.	1. Tell me about Tanya.	1. Tell me about the fox.
2. Why did he drink the pink ink?	2. Why was she looking and looking?	2. What did she do in the winter?	2. Why was the fox looking and looking?
3. What did the monster say after he drank the ink?	3. Why was the crow disappointed?	3. What was her wish in the winter?	3. What did the red fox wonder?
4. Tell me about the other three monsters.	4. What did the crow say to herself?	4. What did Tanya do in the spring?	4. What did the red fox say to Ms. Crow? What did the crow answer?
5. What did his friends ask him?	5. What was the crow's plan?	5. What did she wish in the spring?	5. Why did the fox say, "You sure look beautiful today Ms. Crow"?
6. Tell me about what his friends brought him.	6. How did the crow get the water?	6. What did she have fun doing in the summer?	6. What happened when the fox asked the crow if she could sing?
7. What's the silly old monster next going to do again?	7. What did the crow do after she drank the water?	7. Tell me about her summer wish.	7. What did the red fox do after the crow said "caw"?
	8. What did the crow think about the water? Did she like it?	8. What happened in the fall?	8. Then what did the crow do?
		9. Why did Tanya's father take out the wish book?	

V. ORAL PRODUCTION (Storytelling)

Circle story given #1 Silly Old Monster #2 The Crow and the Pitcher #3 The Wish Book #4 The Fox and the Crow
Student Instructions (approximate): Now we're going to hear a story. See these pictures? Well, these pictures tell a story and you're going to listen to the story on the tape. After the story is over I want you to tell me the story. So you'll have to listen very carefully so you can tell me what happened. Ready?

(After playing tape): That was a pretty good story wasn't it? Can you tell me the story now? Don't go too fast, because I have to write it down.

Examiner Instructions: Arrange story picture sheet so only 4 pictures can be seen as student listens to tape. After playing tape, ask student to retell story. BE SURE TO WRITE DOWN EVERY WORD OF STUDENT RESPONSE EXACTLY AS GIVEN. If student does not produce approximately 50 words, try probe questions such as the examples on the opposite page. Again, write down responses exactly as spoken.

Storytelling
Rating (1-5)

Conv.
Score

APPENDIX B

LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT SCALES (LAS)

VIETNAMESE LEVEL I

F O R W A R D

After the famous case " Lau vs. Nichols " , the Supreme Court ruled that it was incumbent upon the schools to accommodate the linguistic diversity: " For those identified as being of limited English Proficiency a further assessment shall be made to determine the pupil's primary language proficiency ... to the extent assessment instruments are available..."

In Santa Clara County, the number of Indochinese refugees has , increased dramatically within the last several years. And yet assessment instruments for them are still hard to find.

Through a consideration of these issues, we have adapted the format of LAS (Language Assessment Scales by Linguametrics Group) to develop the VAOLP (Vietnamese Assessment Oral Language Proficiency) to meet the above mandate.

Realizing that test development can't be a short term job but a multi-year effort requiring on-going public support for revision, validation and norming, our primary goal is to offer one of the many assessment instruments in the placement system of San Jose Unified School District where language assessment is required , at least for the time being.

VAOLP includes :

- Administration and scoring instructions.
- Vietnamese test instrument.
- Cue pictures.
- Vietnamese audio cassettes (one for each level)
- Individual score sheet.
- Group Summary Sheet.

Bài Trắc Nghiệm

VA OLP I

(của Giám Khảo)

I. CÁP ÂM TỐI THIỂU :

Lời dẫn học sinh : Khi nghe hai chữ trong bảng này, cho thầy biết âm thanh hai chữ giống hay khác nhau.

Ví dụ : đ, l - khác nhau
om, om - giống nhau

- ___ 1. đem - đem
- ___ 2. đẹp - đẹp
- ___ 3. vòng - bông
- ___ 4. năm - năm
- ___ 5. vàng - vàng
- ___ 6. đa - gia
- ___ 7. đứng - đứng
- ___ 8. hồng - ong
- ___ 9. trần - trần
- ___ 10. xuong - suong
- ___ 11. mệt - mệt
- ___ 12. bet - bet
- ___ 13. đíp - đíp
- ___ 14. kíp - kíp
- ___ 15. xiết - xiết

- ___ 16. rên - rên
- ___ 17. thôn - thôn
- ___ 18. thiên - tiên
- ___ 19. chôn - chôn
- ___ 20. sấp - chấp
- ___ 21. lâm - lâm
- ___ 22. tên - tên
- ___ 23. xếp - xếp
- ___ 24. vin - vinh
- ___ 25. toan - toan
- ___ 26. phin - phiên
- ___ 27. một - một
- ___ 28. cối - gối
- ___ 29. hoa - hoan
- ___ 30. ran - rang

- ___ 59. thốt
- ___ 60. Nó bớt án đt.
- ___ 61. xét
- ___ 62. Tí ghét con két.
- ___ 63. xua
- ___ 64. Bè Xuân xin kẹo.
- ___ 65. thu
- ___ 66. Con thỏ đi thong thả.
- ___ 67. chiếu
- ___ 68. Chim chóc liú lo.
- ___ 69. khác
- ___ 70. Lá rời lác đác.
- ___ 71. phết
- ___ 72. Năm hết tết đến.
- ___ 73. tốt
- ___ 74. Cũ rốt án tốt.
- ___ 75. hít
- ___ 76. Trói tím ám lín
- ___ 77. tốp
- ___ 78. Con cá đớp con tép.
- ___ 79. xiết
- ___ 80. Mái miết nhìn trở xiết.
- ___ 81. gấp
- ___ 82. gà gày o o
- ___ 83. hoang
- ___ 84. Để phông hóa hoan.
- ___ 85. pha
- ___ 86. Nở thỏ phị phảo.

II. NGŨ VÙNG :

Lời dẫn Giáo viên : Cho học sinh biết sẽ cho em xem hình. Sau đó, chỉ vào mỗi tấm hình và hỏi :
Cái này là gì ?

- ___ 31. Cái bận
- ___ 32. Xe lúa
- ___ 33. Con cho
- ___ 34. Trái dừa (thổm)
- ___ 35. Ghế dừa
- ___ 36. Xe đạp
- ___ 37. Con vot
- ___ 38. Trái chuối
- ___ 39. Con đao
- ___ 40. Máy may

- ___ 41. Con gà
- ___ 42. Cái chen (bát)
- ___ 43. Cái búa
- ___ 44. Chiếc tầu
- ___ 45. Con rồng
- ___ 46. Dừa hầu
- ___ 47. Cây nền (đến cây)
- ___ 48. Phi cơ (máy bay)
- ___ 49. Con cọp
- ___ 50. Trái bắp (ngô)

III. ÂM VỊ :

Lời dẫn học sinh : Em sẵn sàng chưa ? Thầy muốn em nhắc lại đúng như em nghe trong bảng.

Ví dụ : Nếu nghe cho , em nhắc lại cho.
Trời đang mưa , em nhắc lại : Trời đang mưa.

- ___ 51. Đứng
- ___ 52. Con vịt đi đứng đỉnh.
- ___ 53. Vàng
- ___ 54. Chiếc vòng quay vun vút.
- ___ 55. Đa
- ___ 56. Cũ đao học thuộc để đang.
- ___ 57. Hạt
- ___ 58. Con chim hay hót.

IV. HIỂU CÂU :

Lời dẫn học sinh : Em lắng nghe băng rồi chỉ vào tấm hình điền từ điều em vừa nghe.

- ___ 87. Cả hai đều cắm dũa.
- ___ 88. Người dẫn bà đang đẩy xe.
- ___ 89. Cô gái không ngồi trên xe.
- ___ 90. Câu trai không ôm con vịt.
- ___ 91. Cô gái nhỏ đang búng ly nước.
- ___ 92. Tất cả dân ông và đàn bà đều khóc.
- ___ 93. Con mèo nhìn con chó nhảy dây.
- ___ 94. Câu trai mập nhất đang đứng.
- ___ 95. Con chó thả búp bè của cô gái.
- ___ 96. Con mèo nhảy và con chó ngồi.

PHIẾU ĐIỂM HỌC SINH
 dùng cho
TRẮC NGHIỆM KHẢ NĂNG VIỆT NGỮ - CẤP I

Tên _____	Phái _____	Ngày thi _____	
Học Khu _____	Trưởng _____	Ngày sinh _____	Tuổi _____
Lớp _____	Ngôn ngữ mẹ đẻ _____	Giáo viên _____	Chung tộc _____
Giám khảo _____	Ngôn ngữ trắc nghiệm _____		

I. CẤP ÂM TỐI THIỂU :

Lời dẫn học sinh : Khi nghe hai chữ trong bảng này, cho thấy biệt âm thanh hai chữ giống hay khác nhau.

Ví dụ : đi, lớn - khác nhau
 om, om - giống nhau

- | | |
|---|---|
| _____ 1. đem - đem
_____ 2. đẹp - đẹp
_____ 3. vòng - bông
_____ 4. năm - năm
_____ 5. vắng - vắng
_____ 6. sa - giá
_____ 7. đúng - đúng
_____ 8. nóng - nóng
_____ 9. trần - trần
_____ 10. ruộng - ruộng
_____ 11. nét - nét
_____ 12. bet - bet
_____ 13. dịp - dịp
_____ 14. kip - kip
_____ 15. xiết - xiết | _____ 16. rên - rên
_____ 17. chôn - thông
_____ 18. chẵn - tiên
_____ 19. chôn - chôn
_____ 20. sấp - chấp
_____ 21. lăm - lăm
_____ 22. cêm - tem
_____ 23. xệp - xệp
_____ 24. vin - vinn
_____ 25. toan - toan
_____ 26. onin - onien
_____ 27. môt - môt
_____ 28. côi - gôi
_____ 29. hoa - noan
_____ 30. rân - rang |
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| _____ 59. thốt
_____ 60. Vô sót ỉn đi.
_____ 61. xết
_____ 62. Tỉ gnet con ket.
_____ 63. xua
_____ 64. ðe Xuân xin keo.
_____ 65. chũ
_____ 66. Con chó đi trong chũ.
_____ 67. chniêu
_____ 68. Chim chóc liu lo.
_____ 69. khac
_____ 70. Lá rôi lác đác.
_____ 71. chęc
_____ 72. Vằm mết tết đến.
_____ 73. tót
_____ 74. Cũ rôt ăn tót.
_____ 75. Mít
_____ 76. Trôi tìm tìm tìm
_____ 77. TSB
_____ 78. Con cá đớp con tếp.
_____ 79. Xiết
_____ 80. Mãi mết nhìn trổ xiết.
_____ 81. Gấp
_____ 82. Gã gáy o o
_____ 83. Hoang
_____ 84. Bã không hũa noan.
_____ 85. Pha
_____ 86. Vở thỏ phi phã. |
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II. NGỮ NGHE :

Đi sẵn giáo viên : Cho học sinh biết sẽ cho em xem hình. Sau đó, chỉ vào mỗi tấm hình và hỏi : Cái này là gì ?

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| _____ 31. Cái bần
_____ 32. Xe jã
_____ 33. Con chũ
_____ 34. Trái dưa (thơm)
_____ 35. Ghế dũa
_____ 36. Xe đạp
_____ 37. Con voi
_____ 38. Trái chuối
_____ 39. Con đao
_____ 40. Máy may | _____ 41. Con gà
_____ 42. Cái chên (bát)
_____ 43. Cái dũa
_____ 44. Chiếc cầu
_____ 45. Con rỗng
_____ 46. Dũa hầu
_____ 47. Cây nèn (đến cây)
_____ 48. Phi cơ (máy bay)
_____ 49. Con cạp
_____ 50. Trái bắp (ngũ) |
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III. AM VỊ :

Lời dẫn học sinh : Em sẵn sàng chưa ? Thầy muốn em nhắc lại: dung nư em nghe trong bảng.

Ví dụ : Nếu nghe cho , em nhắc lại cho.
 Trôi đano mua , em nhắc lại : Trôi đano mua.

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| _____ 51. Đứng
_____ 52. Con vịt đi đứng dính.
_____ 53. lảng
_____ 54. Chiếc vòng quay vun vút.
_____ 55. ða
_____ 56. ða đao học thuộc để dăng.
_____ 57. Mát
_____ 58. Con chim này mát. |
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V. MỜI KỂ CHUYỆN :

(Ghi ở mặt sau)

IV. HIỂU CÂU :

Lời dẫn học sinh : Em hãy nghe băng rồi chỉ vào tấm hình diễn tả điều em vừa nghe.

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| _____ 87. Cà nai đều cầm dũa.
_____ 88. Người dân đã đang cấy xe.
_____ 89. Cũ gái không ngồi trên xe.
_____ 90. Cầu trái không ồm con vịt.
_____ 91. Cũ gái nơ đang búng ly nước.
_____ 92. Tất cả đàn ông và đàn bà đều khóc.
_____ 93. Con mèo nhìn con chó nháy dĩa.
_____ 94. Cầu trái mặt nhất đang đứng.
_____ 95. Con chó thả dục bê của cũ gái.
_____ 96. Con mèo nhay và con chó ngồi. |
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APPENDIX C

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

This appendix provides some information about the origins of Vietnamese and other groups of Indochinese refugees, their arrival and resettlement in the United States, their struggle for economic self-sufficiency in this country, and educational programs set up for these refugees. The complex process of economic adjustment explains the differences in terms of socioeconomic status found among the Vietnamese children serving as subjects of this study.

The Vietnamese and Other Groups of Indochinese Refugees

The collapse of the South Vietnamese government in April, 1975 and similar political upheavals in Cambodia and Laos led to the admission of more than 760,900 Indochinese, also called Southeast Asian, refugees to the United States (U. S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1986). According to Wright (1980), 90 percent of these refugees are Vietnamese; the remaining 10 percent are divided almost equally between Cambodians and Laotians. Table C.1 shows the estimated Southeast Asian Refugee population by state as of September 30, 1985.

Origins

Vietnam, Cambodia, and Laos made up the French Indochinese Union. Before French rule, each country came

Table C.1. Estimated Southeast Asian refugee population by state. September 30, 1984 and September 30, 1985.

State	9/30/84	9/30/85	9/30/85 Percent
Alabama	2,600	3,000	0.4
Alaska	200	200	b
Arizona	4,300	5,000	0.7
Arkansas	2,300	2,500	0.3
California	285,000	303,100	39.8
Colorado	10,000	10,000	1.4
Connecticut	6,600	7,000	0.9
Delaware	300	200	b
District of Columbia	1,400	1,600	0.2
Florida	11,500	12,700	1.7
Georgia	8,300	9,700	1.3
Hawaii	6,200	6,600	0.9
Idaho	1,300	1,600	0.2
Illinois	23,400	25,300	3.3
Indiana	3,800	3,900	0.5
Iowa	8,300	8,800	1.2
Kansas	9,400	10,000	1.3
Kentucky	2,000	2,200	0.3
Louisiana	13,500	14,100	1.8
Maine	1,600	1,700	0.2
Maryland	8,500	9,300	1.2
Massachusetts	19,300	22,500	3.0
Michigan	10,000	10,400	1.4
Minnesota	22,600	24,100	3.2
Mississippi	1,700	1,800	0.2
Missouri	6,200	6,900	0.9
Montana	800	800	0.1
Nebraska	1,900	2,000	0.3
Nevada	1,900	2,000	0.3
New Hampshire	700	800	0.1
New Jersey	6,300	6,900	0.9
New Mexico	1,800	2,000	0.3
New York	24,800	28,600	3.8
North Carolina	5,000	5,200	0.7
North Dakota	800	900	0.1
Ohio	9,600	10,300	1.4
Oklahoma	8,200	8,600	1.1

Table C.1--Continued

State	9/30/84	9/30/85	9/30/85 Percent
Oregon	17,200	17,400	2.3
Pennsylvania	23,900	25,400	3.3
Rhode Island	5,100	5,800	0.8
South Carolina	2,100	2,100	0.3
South Dakota	900	1,000	0.1
Tennessee	4,500	4,900	0.6
Texas	51,300	57,200	7.5
Utah	7,800	7,900	1.0
Vermont	600	600	<u>b</u>
Virginia	21,000	20,700	2.7
Washington	32,600	34,300	4.5
West Virginia	400	400	<u>b</u>
Wisconsin	10,300	10,000	1.3
Wyoming	200	200	<u>b</u>
Guam	200	300	<u>b</u>
Other Territories	<u>a</u>	<u>a</u>	<u>b</u>
	711,000	760,900	100.0%

a Less than 50.

b Less than 0.1 percent

Source: U. S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office of Refugee Resettlement, Report to the Congress, January 31, 1986.

under a variety of cultural influences: Cambodia, by India and Siam; Laos, by Thailand and Siam; and Vietnam, by China. Western penetration into the area began in the 16th century and culminated in the 19th century French colonization of the Indochinese peninsula. In 1867, South Vietnam became a French colony. France soon established protectorates over Cambodia (1883), Central Vietnam (1884), and North Vietnam (1884). A union in 1887, under the leadership of a French governor general of these four states was formed which Laos joined in 1893. French rule continued until Japan occupied Indochina during World War II, and before the end of the war, the French announced a plan of reunion that allowed greater self-government to the member states.

Although accepted by Cambodia and Laos, Vietnamese nationalists called for the complete independence of South, Central, and North Vietnam. Bitter fighting which lasted for almost a decade, broke out in late 1946 between the French and a coalition of Vietnamese Communists and Nationalists known as the Viet Minh, led by Ho Chi Minh. Following the French defeat at Dien Bien Phu in 1954, an international conference at Geneva provided for the temporary partition of Vietnam along the 17th parallel, a division that created the Democratic Republic of Vietnam in the north, and the Republic of Vietnam in the south. The

conference mandated the withdrawal of all foreign troops from Vietnam, Cambodia, and Laos, and formulated a plan for the reunification of Vietnam to be achieved by elections in 1956. The partition was followed by refugee movement between borders and some reprisals on suspected enemies by each side.

The elections which would have reunited the north and south were cancelled in 1956 by South Vietnamese president Ngo Dinh Diem, with the support of the American government, which sought to create an anti-Communist bastion in Southeast Asia. Shortly thereafter, the South Vietnam Liberation Front (Mat Tran Giai-phong Mien Nam), known as the Viet Cong, began a campaign of guerilla warfare, backed by Ho Chi Minh, to topple the Diem regime and reunify the country (Wright, 1980). During the Kennedy, Johnson, and Nixon administrations, the United States made an enormous commitment of American manpower and resources to preserve an independent South Vietnam, but to no avail. North Vietnamese (communist) military action led to the collapse of the South Vietnamese government in 1975 (Quy Kim Pham, 1982). Cambodia and Laos, too, experienced disruptions from the war and internal political conflict. These upheavals caused thousands to flee their homelands and seek asylum in Thai-Land, Malaysia, Indonesia, Hong Kong, and Singapore.

The term Indochinese is a generic one that embraces the many Southeast Asian peoples who came under French colonial rule in the late 19th century. The peoples of Vietnam, Cambodia, and Laos are ethnically and linguistically diverse. However, the majority group in each country is ethnically homogeneous: 80 percent of those in Vietnam are Vietnamese; 85 percent of the Cambodian population are Khmers; and 50 percent of the population in Laos are Laotians, a people related to the Thai. Some of the minority groups include Chinese and Vietnamese in Cambodia; the Mon-Khmer, Yao, and Hmong in Laos; and Chinese, Thai, Muong, Nung, Hmong, and Montagnards in Vietnam (Wright, 1980).

Arrival

In April 1975, as the North Vietnamese forces moved closer and closer to Saigon, chaos prevailed throughout South Vietnam. Many Vietnamese began to fear a bloodbath, anticipating reprisals against all who had been associated with the South Vietnamese government or employed by the Americans in any capacity. Between April 21 and April 29, the American embassy helped arrange for the departure of more than 60,000 Vietnamese. The plans for evacuation were haphazard, and decisions concerning who left and who remained behind depended on the judgment of the American embassy workers who hastily processed exit visas. At the

same time, an additional 70,000 Vietnamese arranged for their own transportation, often at great expense.

In all, about 130,000 people from Vietnam, Cambodia, and Laos arrived at American receiving stations in Guam and the Philippines in the late spring of 1975. By the end of that summer, there were about 60,000 more in refugee camps in Hong Kong and Thai-Land. There the refugees awaited permission to move on to whatever countries would have them (Thernstrom, 1980).

The Refugee Camps

As the fall of South Vietnam seemed imminent, the United States government rapidly made plans to receive the refugees. On April 18, 1975, President Gerald R. Ford set up a special Interagency Task Force (IATF), representing 12 federal agencies "to coordinate . . . all United States government activities concerning evacuation of United States citizens, Vietnamese citizens, and third country nationals from Vietnam and refugee and resettlement problems relating to the Vietnam conflict." A receiving station was established in Guam, and plans to open four resettlement camps in the United States were set in motion. The first mainland reception center opened at Camp Pendleton, California, on April 29, followed by centers at Fort Chaffee, Arkansas, Eglin Air Force Base, Florida, and Fort Indiantown Gap, Pennsylvania. The Indochina

Migration and Refugee Assistance Act of 1975, enacted on May 24, provided funds for the resettlement program.

Upon arrival, each refugee received bed linens, toiletries, a meal ticket, and camp number. Living quarters afforded little privacy. At Camp Pendleton, there were tents with wooden platforms, each housing 25 people; elsewhere, army barracks provided shelter. Low wooden partitions broke up the living space into cubicles, each accommodating approximately 15 people. The refugees shared bathrooms and ate together in mess halls.

Each refugee went through a rigorous "in-processing" procedure. Representatives from various government agencies collected data on age, family size, occupation, education, skills, and religion. In order to complete security checks, officials took fingerprints and photographs. All refugees underwent medical examinations and received Social Security and Alien Registration numbers. Finally, each household head registered with one of nine private social service agencies, called VOLAGS (an acronym for voluntary agencies), which accepted responsibility for the welfare and sponsorship of the refugees once they left the camps. The nine VOLAGS were the United States Catholic Conference, the International Rescue Committee, the Church World Service, the Lutheran Immigration and Refugee Service, the American Council for

Nationalities Service, the United Hebrew Immigrant Aid Society, the Tolstoy Foundation, the American Fund for Czechoslovak Refugees, and the Travelers Aid International Social Service of America.

The camps were designated to facilitate the assimilation of the refugees as rapidly as possible. Since the Indochinese arrived during an economic recession, the resettlement workers made great efforts to find sponsors and jobs in order to keep them off the public welfare rolls. The camp administrators initiated educational programs which they hoped would hasten the process of absorption.

A typical battery of programs included schooling for children from the ages of 6 to 18, language and vocational training for adults, and lessons on such skills as how to shop, apply for a job, and rent an apartment in an American community. Each camp also administered a number of recreational programs with such activities as nightly movies and volleyball games. Most camps had at least one newspaper, which explained camp rules and various facets of American life.

All elementary and secondary educational instruction was conducted in English, and students were forbidden to use their native tongue in the classroom. As a result, most students did not understand their instructors and

appeared to be dumb or unresponsive. Furthermore, the programs stressed assertiveness and independence as basic American values, which clashed sharply with the tradition of respect for and submission to parental wishes. Many parents tried to keep their children out of school for this reason.

Refugees felt they were being pressured into abandoning traditional customs for "American" ones, and many resisted. Their resistance reached its height when it came time to find sponsors for each refugee family. The traditional Vietnamese family consists of grandparents, parents, children, and other relatives. It is not at all unusual for a single household to include 24 or more people. Most sponsors, however, whether individuals or groups, frequently drew the line at five to seven people. As the resettlement period wore on, the agencies placed considerable pressure on family heads to split up their extended families into smaller units, with only partial success.

The statistics collected at the in-processing stage indicate some unexpected characteristics of Indochinese immigration. Of a sample of slightly over 123,000 individuals, approximately 55 percent of the 1975 arrivals were male. The vast majority were young: 82 percent under 35, 65 percent under 25. Of these, men between 18 and 25

comprised the largest segment. In that age group, there were over 4,000 more men than women refugees. Many of the men had been members of the South Vietnamese military, those most likely to be able to leave Vietnam without American assistance. But the great majority of the refugees had immigrated with their extended families (Wright, 1980).

Forty percent of those interviewed during inprocessing indicated that they were Catholic, an unusually large proportion since Catholics in South Vietnam made up less than 10 percent of the population. This suggests that many who immigrated to the United States had also been part of the 1954 migration from North to South Vietnam, a hypothesis that was substantiated by a study based on interviews with refugees at Fort Indiantown Gap in the fall of 1975. Over 75 percent of those interviewed reported that they were Catholic and had been born in North Vietnam (Thernstrom, 1980).

According to the initial profile issued by the Immigration and Naturalization Service, 20 percent of all the refugees over 18 years of age had at least some university education, 38 percent reported having some secondary schooling, 18 percent had some elementary schooling, and 2 percent had none at all. Among the heads-of-household, 27 percent had some university training, 48

percent some secondary education, 17 percent some elementary education, and 1 percent none at all.

Women in Indochina generally had less educational opportunity than men. Since less than 25 percent of the household heads were women, the predominantly male head-of-household group had a higher level of education. Older refugees were usually less well-educated than younger ones, since under French colonial rule, schooling was minimal in Cambodia and Laos. In Vietnam, educational opportunities were more extensive due to the French insistence on Vietnam's cutting its ties with China. After 1954, school facilities were expanded, which accounts for the larger number of well-educated refugees among the young. Before the 1975 Communist takeover, most schools were in the cities and more than half of them charged tuition, suggesting that those refugees in the study came from an urban and relatively affluent sector of Vietnamese society (Wright, 1980).

Resettlement

The transition from camp life to life in the United States often proved difficult for the refugees. The Interagency Task Force planned to close all camps by December 31, 1975, and to facilitate this, all refugees had to be placed with sponsors as quickly as possible. As a

result, refugees were placed with sponsors too quickly, before they were ready to cope with American life.

The United States government strongly urged third-country resettlement. Despite the cooperation of the Interagency Task Force (IATF) with the United Nations High Commissioner on Refugees and considerable urging on the part of camp officials, only 6,632 Indochinese refugees resettled in other countries. Such a small percentage of third-country placement largely resulted from the unwillingness of other countries to admit refugees, other than professionals such as doctors and engineers who were easiest to resettle in the United States. Canada accepted more than half of the 6,632; 1,877 went to France; 161 to Australia; 120 to Taiwan; and 115 to the Philippines (Kelly, 1977).

Finding sponsors for the rest of these refugees was an enormous task. Sponsorship entailed a commitment to provide food, clothing, and shelter for a refugee family until it became self-supporting. Sponsors helped household heads find employment, enrolled the children in school, and provided advice and encouragement for the entire family. In addition, each sponsor accepted the financial responsibility for providing medical care when needed. Since sponsorship required a substantial monetary commitment, groups were usually better able to provide for

the refugee household than were individuals (Thernstrom, 1980).

Caseworkers at each voluntary agency matched sponsorship offers with refugees on the basis of English-language skills, job skills, and family size. Only rarely did sponsor and refugee meet before sponsorship arrangements were completed. The federal government provided a resettlement grant of \$500 per refugee, administered through the individual voluntary agency. The agency retained all or part of this grant to help defray the administrative costs of sponsorship and resettlement. Sponsorship offers were frequently tied to offers of employment.

Until late August 1975, the refugees were free to reject any sponsorship offer they found unacceptable. Some rejections were based on unsuitable climate or isolation from other Indochinese families. Many declined offers that would have required the breakup of the family. Often Catholic refugees viewed offers from Protestant congregations as attempts to proselytize them. Some feared racial prejudice; others hesitated to leave the security of camp life. By September, however, it became the general policy to allow the refugees to turn down no more than two sponsorship offers.

When the refugees found work, it was usually at jobs that required little skill, paid low wages, and offered little chance for advancement. An IATF survey taken in 1975 indicated that 85 percent of those refugees who held white-collar jobs in Vietnam had blue-collar jobs in the United States; by the summer of 1977, however, the proportion had fallen to 61 percent. The 1975 survey also indicated that 45 percent of the skilled blue-collar workers had joined the unskilled labor force because they could not find employment in the occupations for which they had been trained. Low wages and large families combined to put many refugee households well below the poverty level, and this helped to drive refugee women into the job market. By August 1977, 50 percent of all female refugees over 16 years of age held either part-time or full-time jobs. However, this supplemental income seldom raised total income above the poverty line. In the same survey, the task force reported that only 14 percent of employed refugees made more than \$200 per week; 63 percent earned \$100 to \$199; 16 percent made \$50 to \$99; and 5 percent earned less than \$50 (Wright, 1980).

As the months passed, sponsors began to find that they could not provide the long-term supplemental support required even by those households with more than one wage earner, and responsibility began to shift from sponsors to

the federal government. A November 1977 report by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (HEW) found that 33 percent of the refugee population received at least a portion of its support from federal assistance, even though 94.4 percent of the male and 92.5 percent of the female heads-of-household were in the labor force. The shift to welfare also indicates a change in attitude of many refugees toward their plight. Faced with low-paying, dead-end employment, many found that public assistance provided as much support as the demeaning jobs they had been pressured into taking. A great many also supported themselves by public assistance while they acquired English-language skills and retrained for more lucrative jobs.

Within six months of the original resettlement, a significant regrouping of the refugee population had begun. Those in the scattered, rural settlements favored by the IATF began to move to urban centers, especially those with already established Indochinese, particularly Vietnamese, communities. Los Angeles, San Francisco, New Orleans, and Dallas drew significant numbers of immigrants. This regrouping can be seen as an attempt to end the isolation that accompanied many sponsorships, and to create a supportive and viable community.

At the same time, thousands of Vietnamese, Cambodians, and Laotians kept seeking temporary asylum in Malaysia, Indonesia, Hong Kong, Singapore, and in a large number of refugee compounds in Thai-Land. Most fled their native lands to avoid forced relocation, religious persecution, or family separation. Refugees from Cambodia reported mass killing and other atrocities. Many escaped by boat from Vietnam in small unseaworthy vessels and it is estimated that only half of those who set out to sea made it safely back to shore. Many were forced to wander from port to port before being granted asylum. The remainder came overland from Cambodia and Laos. The voluntary agencies (VOLAGS) continued to make a concentrated effort to locate refugees who were waiting in camps in Hong Kong and Thai-Land and to reunite them with their relatives in the United States (Thernstrom, 1980).

Since the spring of 1975, the United States has authorized the admission of over 639,900 additional refugees, mostly Vietnamese, from Southeast Asia. Like other refugee groups, the Indochinese in the United States continue to face a number of hardships. Uprooted from their war-torn homelands, they have to cope with language barriers, cultural differences, and isolation. In many cases, radical change in social status creates crisis in self-esteem and makes adjustment even more difficult.

Economic Adjustment

The Refugee Act of 1980 and the Refugee Assistance Amendments of 1982 both stress the achievement of economic self-sufficiency by refugees soon after their arrival in the United States (U. S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1986). The achievement of economic self-sufficiency involves a balance among three elements: (1) the employment potential of refugees, including their skills, education, English language competence, health, and desire for work; (2) the needs that they as individuals and members of families have for financial resources, whether for food, housing, or child-rearing; and (3) the economic environment in which they settle, including the availability of jobs, housing, and other harder-to-measure resources.

A variety of factors can influence the speed and extent of refugees' striving toward economic self-sufficiency. Refugees often experience significant difficulties in reaching the United States and may arrive with problems, such as personal health conditions, that require attention before the refugee can find work. Some refugees, for reasons of age or family responsibilities, cannot reasonably be expected to find work. The general state of the American economy also influences on this process. When jobs are not readily available, refugees--even more than

the general American population--may be unable to find employment quickly even if they are relatively skilled and actively seek work. Household size and composition are also important, influencing the degree to which minimum wage jobs meet the requirements of families that can include several dependent children as well as dependent adults (Office of Refugee Resettlement, 1986).

Current Employment Status of Southeast Asian Refugees

In 1985, the Office of Refugee Resettlement completed its 14th survey of a national sample of Southeast Asian refugees, with data collected by Opportunity Systems, Inc. The sample included Southeast Asian refugees arriving from May 1980 through April 1985 and is the most recent and comprehensive data available on the economic adjustment of these refugees.

Results of the survey indicate a labor force participation rate of 44 percent for those in the sample aged 16 years and older, as compared with 65 percent for the population as a whole. Of those in the labor force, working or seeking work, approximately 83 percent were employed, as compared with 93 percent for the entire population. Overall, refugee labor force participation was thus somewhat lower than for the general population, and the unemployment rate was higher.

Comparisons with the general population are affected by the inclusion of numerous Southeast Asian refugees who have been in the country for only a short time, and the exclusion from the sample of refugees who arrived before May 1980. When employment status is considered separately by year of entry, the results indicate the relative success of earlier arrivals and the relative difficulties faced by more recent arrivals. Refugees arriving in 1985 had a labor force participation rate of 28 percent and an unemployment rate of 50 percent; those who had arrived in 1984 had a labor force participation rate of 42 percent and an unemployment rate of 36 percent. However, refugees who had arrived in 1980 have participated in the labor force at a stable rate of about 56 percent over the past three years and had an unemployment rate of about 18 percent.

The data on unemployment rates indicate the progress of refugees in finding and retaining jobs. In October 1982, Southeast Asian refugees had an overall unemployment rate of 24 percent; by the October 1983 survey, this figure had dropped to 18 percent, and the October 1984 survey showed a further drop in refugee unemployment to 15 percent. The 1985 survey, even excluding the 1975-1979 arrivals who were taken into account in previous samples, produced an unemployment rate of 17 percent. Economic adjustment over time is observable when examined by year of entry. For

1983 arrivals, unemployment decreased from 55 percent in 1983 to 36 percent in 1984 and to 17 percent in 1985; for 1984 arrivals, it decreased from 41 percent in 1984 to 36 percent in 1985 (Department of Health and Human Services, 1986).

The kind of jobs that refugees find in the United States are often different in type and socioeconomic status from those they held in their country of origin. For example, 39 percent of the employed adults sampled had held white collar jobs in their country of origin; 16 percent hold similar jobs in the United States. Conversely, far more Southeast Asian refugees hold blue collar or service jobs than they did in their countries of origin. The survey data indicate, for example, a tripling of those in service occupations and a quadrupling of those in semiskilled blue collar occupations. This is illustrated in Table C.2.

One background characteristic that influences refugee involvement in the labor force is English language competence. It affects labor force participation, unemployment rates, and earnings. For those refugees in the sample who were fluent in English, the labor force participation rate was similar to that for the overall population. Refugees who spoke no English, however, had a labor force participation rate of only 15 percent, and an

unemployment rate of 41 percent. Table C.3 shows the effects of English language proficiency on labor participation.

Table C.2. Current and previous occupational status.

Occupation	In Country of Origin	In United States
Professional/Managerial	10.2%	2.6%
Sales/Clerical	28.5%	13.8%
(Total White Collar)	(38.7%)	(16.4%)
Skilled	13.1%	19.9%
Semiskilled	6.1%	27.8%
Laborers	1.3%	13.6%
(Total Blue Collar)	(20.5%)	(61.3%)
Service Workers	5.8%	21.2%
Farmers and Fishers	35.0%	1.1%

Source: U. S. Office of Refugee Resettlement, Report to the Congress, January 31, 1986.

In regard to language, Table C.3 reveals a positive relationship between the refugees' ability to communicate in English and the extent to which they participate in the labor force in the United States.

Table C.3. Effects of English language proficiency.

Ability to speak and understand English	Labor force participation	Unemployment	Average weekly wages*
Not at all	14.6%	41.4%	\$187.49
A little	41.6%	19.0%	200.74
Well	53.3%	13.0%	218.67
Fluently	62.3%	20.2%	243.39

Source: U. S. Office of Refugee Resettlement, Report to the Congress, January 31, 1986.

Achieving Economic Self-Sufficiency

The achievement of economic self-sufficiency hinges on the mixture of refugee skills, refugee needs, job opportunities, and the resources available in the communities in which refugees resettle. The occupational and educational skills that refugees bring with them to the United States influence their prospects for self-sufficiency. Data from the 1985 survey indicate two basic points about the characteristics of Southeast Asian refugees at the time of their arrival. First, there is little difference in educational level between 1980 and later arrivals, averaging about five to six years for each cohort. Second, there appear to have been more refugees with no English language competence at arrival in the

earlier years and increasing proportions with some English since then. The percent of 1985 arrivals with no English speaking ability was 40 percent, virtually the same level as that indicated by the 1975 cohort. Recent increases in English language skill among newer arrivals at time of entry may reflect the provision of English training in refugee processing centers overseas (Office of Refugee Resettlement, 1986).

Refugee Education

Based on an interagency agreement between the Office of Refugee Resettlement and the Department of Education, funding has been provided for the special educational needs of refugee children who are enrolled in public and nonprofit private elementary and secondary schools. Known as the Transition Program for Refugee Children, this state-administered program distributes funds through formula grants based on the number of eligible refugee children in the states. These grants to state educational agencies are then distributed to local educational agencies as formula-based subgrants. The most significant factor in the formula for deciding a state's funding allocation is the number of eligible refugee children who have been in the United States less than one year, because the needs of recent arrivals are generally more critical and require immediate attention. More importance is also placed on the

number of eligible children enrolled in secondary schools than on children in elementary schools, because older children usually require more language and support.

Activities funded through the Transition Program include: supplemental educational services oriented toward instruction to improve English language skills; bilingual education; remedial programs; school counseling and guidance services; in-service training for educational personnel; and training for parents. Under the program, state administrative costs are limited to one percent of a state educational agency's funding allocation, and support service's costs are limited to 15 percent of each local educational agency's allocation.

During the school year 1985-1986, \$16.6 million was made available to states to provide educational services to refugee children. These funds served 82,174 refugee children nationwide. Table C.4 shows states with largest school enrollment of refugee children as of February 1985 (Office of Refugee Resettlement, 1986).

Table C.4. States with largest school enrollment of
refugee children, February 1885.*

State	Refugee Children	Percent
California	23,548	28.7
Texas	6,041	7.4
Florida	5,499	6.7
Massachusetts	4,738	5.8
Illinois	3,823	4.7
Virginia	3,175	3.9
Washington	2,969	3.6
Pennsylvania	2,947	3.6
New York	2,714	3.3
Minnesota	2,124	2.6
Ohio	2,030	2.5
Rhode Island	1,934	2.4
All Others	20,632	24.8
	82,174	100.0%
By Levels		
Elementary	37,758	45.9
Secondary	44,416	54.1

*Elementary school children are counted if they have been in the United States for less than two years; secondary school children if they have been in the United States for less than three years.

Source: State reports to the U. S. Department of Education.

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