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Sarah C. Tsai
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**A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF AMERICAN-BORN CHINESE AND
NON AMERICAN-BORN CHINESE STUDENTS' LANGUAGE LEARNING
MOTIVATION, LANGUAGE ACQUISITION, AND ETHNIC IDENTITY
DEVELOPMENT IN CHINESE LANGUAGE SCHOOLS**

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A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of
Old Dominion University in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirement for the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

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May 2004

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ABSTRACT

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF AMERICAN-BORN CHINESE AND NON AMERICAN-BORN CHINESE STUDENTS' LANGUAGE LEARNING MOTIVATION, LANGUAGE ACQUISITION, AND ETHNIC IDENTITY DEVELOPMENT IN CHINESE LANGUAGE SCHOOLS

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Chair: Gail S. Taylor, Ph.D.

This dissertation is a non-experimental comparative and correlational study. It compares the three variables of language learning motivation, language acquisition, and ethnic identity between American-Born Chinese (ABC) and Adopted Chinese students (Non-ABC) at Association of Chinese language schools on the East Coast of the United States. One hundred and eighty-two ABC and 70 non-ABC students enrolled in Chinese language classes in the fall semester of 2004 participated in this study. Additionally, this study identifies the teaching categories that are most commonly applied in the Chinese language school classroom.

The data were collected through a survey method. The research instruments used for this investigation consisted of questionnaires of students' learning motivation, language acquisition, and ethnic identity, and the nine teaching categories used by teachers. The statistical techniques adopted to analyze the data included Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and multiple regression analysis.

The results of this study indicated that ABC and non-ABC Chinese language students differed in learning motivation and ethnic identity. For the most part, ABC

students were more positive about their participation in the Chinese language schools. Additionally the nine teaching categories were found to be correlated with the three variables. For example, Learning Through Culture was correlated with Learning Motivation; Providing Reminders Instruction was correlated with Language Acquisition; and Helping Students Link Language with Content was correlated with Ethnic Identity. Moreover, this study suggests that lack of cooperative learning techniques and student readiness activities may inhibit development of effective language acquisition and positive ethnic identification in the Chinese language schools.

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Dedicated to God, for making a way for me when there seemed to be no way, and
to my family, for their unconditional support and understanding!

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ABSTRACT.....	ii
DEDICATION.....	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	v
LIST OF TABLES.....	vii
CHAPTERS	
I. INTRODUCTION.....	1
BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY.....	2
PURPOSE OF THE STUDY.....	3
RATIONALE.....	3
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE THREE VARIABLES.....	4
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS.....	7
SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY.....	10
HERITAGE LANGUAGE MAINTENANCE.....	10
RESEARCH QUESTIONS.....	12
METHODOLOGY.....	12
INSTRUMENTATION.....	13
LIMITATIONS.....	14
ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY.....	15
SUMMARY.....	15
DEFINITION OF TERMS.....	16
II. LITERATURE REVIEW.....	20
PROFILE OF CHINESE LANGUAGE SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES.....	21
PROFILE OF CHINESE ADOPTED CHILDREN AND AMERICAN-BORN CHINESE CHILDREN IN THE UNITED STATES.....	25
ADOPTED CHINESE CHILDREN (NON-ABC).....	26
AMERICAN-BORN CHINESE (ABC) CHILDREN IN THE UNITED STATES.....	28
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS.....	30
HERITAGE LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION.....	40
INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES APPLIED IN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM.....	43

SUMMARY.....	55
III. METHODOLOGY.....	57
RESEARCH QUESTIONS.....	57
RESEARCH DESIGN.....	58
POPULATION AND SAMPLE.....	58
INSTRUMENTATION.....	59
PROCEDURE.....	66
DATA ANALYSIS.....	67
IV. RESULTS.....	69
DESCRIPTIVE DATA PROFILE OF ABC AND NON-ABC STUDENTS.....	70
RELIABILITY TEST OF INSTRUMENTATION.....	72
SUMMARY.....	84
V. DISCUSSION.....	85
LIMITATIONS OF STUDY.....	92
RECOMMENDATIONS FOR RESEARCH AND PRACTICE.....	94
REFERENCES.....	98
APPENDICES	
A. BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE.....	132
B. SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE.....	134
C. SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION (GRADING REPORT CARD).....	137
D. ETHNIC IDENTITY QUESTIONNAIRE.....	139
E. TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE.....	141
F. BLUEPRINT (NINE TEACHING CATEGORIES).....	145
G. COVER LETTER.....	147
H. LOTTERY/CONSENT FORM FOR STUDENT.....	149
I. LOTTERY/CONSENT FORM FOR TEACHER.....	151
J. MEAN STUDENT BACKGROUND.....	153
K. MEAN LEARNING MOTIVATION SCORES (MINI-AMTB)	155
L. MEAN LANGUAGE ACQUISITION SCORES (GRADING REPORT CARD).....	157
M. MEAN ETHNIC IDENTITY SCORES(AMTB).....	159
N. MEAN TEACHING STRATEGIES SCORES.....	161
VITA.....	164

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	PAGE
1. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF STUDENTS' BACKGROUNDS	71
2. RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS FOR THE DEPENDENT MEASURES	73
3. MANOVA ON DEPENDENT VARIABLES	75
4. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON STUDENT LEARNING MOTIVATION	76
5. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON STUDENT LANGUAGE ACQUISITION SCORES	77
6. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON STUDENT ETHNIC IDENTITY SCORES	77
7. MEAN SCORES ON NINE TEACHING CATEGORIES	79
8. MULTIPLE REGRESSIONS WITH LEARNING MOTIVATION AND NINE TEACHING CATEGORIES	81
9. MULTIPLE REGRESSIONS FOR LANGUAGE ACQUISITION AND NINE TEACHING CATEGORIES	82
10. MULTIPLE REGRESSIONS FORETHNIC IDENTITY AND NINE TEACHING CATEGORIES	83
11. MEAN SCORES ON NINE TEACHING CATEGORIES	91

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Chinese language schools have been in existence in the United States since the 1900s. They have been responsible for providing heritage language instruction and cultural classes for American-born Chinese (ABC) children. Over the past decades, the number of Chinese children adopted by American parents (non-ABC) has increased dramatically, accounting for up to 3.5 percent of all adoptions (F.C.C.: Family with Children from China, 2001). Adoptive American parents often send their children to Chinese language schools so their children can retain or learn their native Chinese language. Many of these Chinese language schools now enroll adopted Chinese (non-ABC) children and place them together with American-born Chinese (ABC) children in the classroom. However, educating these two types of children in the same classroom may not result in effective acquisition or continuance of the Chinese language (Chinese Teachers' Annual Conference, 2002). This is due to possible differences in the motivation to learn a second language (Dornyei 2001a, 2001b, 2002, 2003; Dornyei & Csizer, 2002; Gardner, 2001; Spolsky, 2000; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995; Wen, 1997); effective acquisition of the second language (Baker, 1992; Chao, 1996, 1997; Cummins, 1981a, 1992, 2001; Curtain & Pesola, 1994; Dopke, 1992; Krashen, 1981, 1985, 1998, 2000); and ethnic identity development (Bennett, 1993; Cheng & Trueba, 1993; Cross, 1992; De Vos, 1990; DeVos & Romanucci-Ross, 1995; Feuerverger, 1991; Friedlander, 1999; Huang, 1996; Phinney 1989, 1990, 1995; Tajfel, 1978, 1981; Tajfel & Turner 1979; Tse, 1996, 1998 and 1999) differences between ABC and non-ABC children.

Background of the Study

The Chinese language schools that have existed since the early twentieth century have operated successfully outside the United States education system. According to a 1995 study conducted by the National Council of Associations of Chinese language schools, approximately 83,000 children opted to learn Chinese in 634 language schools across the country (Wang, 1996).

It was reported in the Conference Proceedings of the 29th Annual Chinese Teachers Conference at Washington, DC, that an increasing number of adopted Chinese children were enrolling in Chinese language schools (ACS, 2002). Most of these children, who were adopted as infants, are being raised by American parents. Due to the rapid increase in the number of adopted Chinese children, many Chinese language schools now enroll adopted Chinese (non-ABC) children together with the second-generation Chinese (ABC) children. The schools currently place these different types of students in the same classroom.

In this study, non-ABC children are defined as Chinese nationals adopted by American parents. Chinese nationals who immigrate with their parents (first generation) are not included in this non-ABC group. Though these first-generation children may also attend Chinese language schools, their numbers are very small. Many first-generation have Chinese as their first language and already possess rudimentary Chinese language skills.

Even though, the number of adopted children (non-ABC) is increasing, the majority of the students in Chinese language schools are second-generation children (ABC). Both groups tend to have Chinese as their second language. They are educated in

the American public or private school system and are therefore under the influence of American culture from the very beginning.

Purpose of the Study

This study was designed to compare ABC and non-ABC children on the variables of language learning motivation, language acquisition, and ethnic identity. Additionally, based on the surveys from Chinese language school teachers, this study identifies instructional strategies that are currently being applied in the Chinese language school classroom.

Specifically, this study has two major purposes. First, it will attempt to shed light on the differences in language learning motivation, language acquisition, and the development of ethnic identity between ABC and non-ABC students. Illuminating these potential differences may facilitate the development of a curriculum that expands the Chinese language learning experiences of both ABC and non-ABC students. Second, it will explore the present curriculum and instruction in Chinese language schools, thus providing a foundation for further research.

Rationale

For over a century, Chinese language schools have operated successfully outside the United States' educational system. However, a new wave of adopted children from China (non-ABC) and American-born Chinese (ABC) children have made the teaching methods and learning environments of the traditional Chinese language school obsolete. The Chinese-American community is now confronted with the challenge of teaching the Chinese language to ABC children and non-ABC children.

With the diverse population of students in Chinese language schools today, concerned educators want to create a system that requires high academic standards while affirming and celebrating Chinese culture. Educators must create new ways to achieve these standards by promoting the motivation to learn a second language, language acquisition, and positive ethnic identity. By promoting new routes to achievement, teachers enable more children to attain academic success. Unfortunately, there are almost no studies on the second language learning motivation, language acquisition, and ethnic identity of both American born and adopted children of Asian descent. Additionally, there are few studies related to effective second and/or heritage language instructional strategies for ABC students; there are none for non-ABC students. There is a definite need for research in these areas.

Relationships Between the Three Variables

Studies have indicated that learning motivation, language acquisition and ethnic identity are some of the most important factors in second language learning (Cho, 2000; Dornyei, 2000; Dornyei & Schmidt, 2001; Feuerverger, 1991; Gardner, 1991; Jo 2001; Tse, 2000). To improve the curricula of Chinese language schools and the preservation of this language in the United States, it is important to understand the differences in these variables in ABC and non-ABC students.

Learning Motivation

Learning motivation is important because it determines the extent of the learner's active involvement and attitude toward language learning (Ames & Ames, 1989).

A group of adults was surveyed to collect information regarding the challenges and

motivation related to studying their heritage language. The study indicated that the adults who were highly motivated had higher levels of language acquisition (Cho, Cho, & Tse, 1997).

In 1991, Gardner studied second language acquisition in adults. He found that motivation is strongly correlated with proficiency in a second language. Dopke (1992) found that those families whose children succeeded in maintaining fluent bilingualism differed from those who did not in two significant ways. First, the children were consistently discouraged from responding in the non-heritage language by the parents. Second, the children communicated with others (mostly members of social or religious groups) in their heritage language. Both of these factors offered language exposure that provided further motivation to the child.

Hinton (1999) also found that having peers with whom one can speak the heritage language was highly motivational. Students who belonged to churches or clubs featuring their ethnic group were more ethnically developed. These organizations provided an important social motivation for more exposure to and practice with the language. A visit to the homeland also gave many children, who might otherwise abandon their heritage language, fresh motivation to persist.

Language Acquisition

Cummins (1979, 1981ab) proposed the Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) model, showing that cognitive and academic or literacy-related skills are transferable across languages. Results from several empirical studies support the CUP model. The findings indicate that students who had preserved their ethnic language also performed well in the socially dominant language (Skutnabb-Kangas & Toukomma, 1976). In 1991,

a correlational study conducted by Danesi suggested that the heritage language group outperformed those who did not study heritage language (p. 653). Because English spelling is seen as a traditionally arduous micro-skill for language minority children, the researchers concluded that formal training in the heritage language provided children with increased cognitive ability for analyzing the linguistic aspects of both the heritage language and the school language.

Ethnic Identity

Phinney and Nakayama (1991) described ethnic identity as one's sense of belonging to an ethnic group. Minority children who have strong ethnic identities and frequent interactions with members of the same ethnic group outside of the family are more likely to maintain their own heritage language (Hinton, 1999). Ethnic identity is also correlated to students' achievement. Fordham (1986) and Turner (1992) conducted two studies that demonstrated the connection between ethnic identity development and academic achievement. Holcomb-McCoy (1997) came to the same conclusion:

[There is a] need to educate teachers and other school personnel about the impact of ethnic identity on the personal development of minority students... and they must help create a school climate that welcomes diversity and empowers students to explore their ethnic heritage. It is important, since research indicates connections linking ethnic identity development to students' academic achievement, interpersonal relationships, and self-esteem (p. 10).

Instructional Strategies

Many instructional strategies are used in language classrooms today (Friedman & Fisher, 1998; Shrum & Glisan, 2000). This study will identify nine teaching categories

that are currently being utilized in Chinese language schools. These include: helping students link language and content (Curtain & Pesola, 1994; Pappas, Kiefer, & Levstik, 1990); listening as an impetus for learning (Egan, 1992; Heimlich & Pittelman, 1986; Pesola, 1991); cooperative learning strategies (Glisan & Phillips, 1988; Johnson & Johnson, 1987; Kagan, 1990; Lipton, 1998); learning through culture (Curtain & Pesola, 1994; Pesola, 1991); taking student readiness into account (Kulik, Kulilk & Bangert-Drowns, 1990a, 1990b); defining instructional expectations (Anderson, 1994; Slavin, 1990); utilizing repetition effectively (Collier, 1999; Guess, 1985; Jimenez Raya, 2001); providing reminders (Carney, Levin & Levin, 1993; Levin, 1983); keeping students on task and (Brophy & Good, 1986; Rosenshine & Stevens, 1986); and providing ample teaching time (Anderson, 1994; Brophy & Good, 1986; Sakrismo, 1999).

These categories can be considered when developing new curricula for Chinese language schools for both ABC and non-ABC children. The use of effective teaching strategies will not only provide an environment conducive to language acquisition, but also facilitate the learning motivation and ethnic identity development of both groups of children.

Theoretical Frameworks

A brief description of current literature on the theoretical frameworks of second language motivation, second language acquisition, ethnic identity, and instructional strategies is provided below.

Learning Motivation

Motivation is defined as the impetus to create and sustain intentions and goal seeking acts (Ames & Ames, 1989). Motivation is important because it determines the extent of the learner's active involvement and attitude toward learning. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) and Gardner and Tremblay (1994a) explored four other motivational orientations: reason for learning; desire to attain the learning goal; positive attitude toward the learning situation and; effortful behavior. Non-ABC children may have less reasons for learning Chinese because there is more societal pressure to learn English. Positive attitude and behavior also play a part. There may be less desire to be associated with their ethnic group at this phase because the students are being raised by American parents, although many of the adoptive parents encourage the positive ethnic identity of their adopted Chinese children. ABC children, on the other hand, may have more reason to learn because their biological parents speak Chinese and serve as a source of support and encouragement (Dickinson, 2002).

Language Acquisition

Language acquisition is defined as learning achievement in listening, speaking, reading and writing a language. There are several theories that explore second language acquisition, such as Krashen's monitor model (1981ab, 1985, 2000), McLaughlin's information processing model (1985, 1987), Schumann's acculturation theory model (1978ab, 1986), and Cummins' language proficiency model (1981ab, 1986). To facilitate second language learning, Clark and Clark (1977), Cummins (1979, 1981ab), and Cohen (1990) emphasize the inter-relationships between the listening, speaking, reading, and writing processes.

Ethnic Identity

Ethnic identification is defined as a real awareness of self in the context of a specific community. This awareness often leads to pride in one's culture, which can serve as the foundation of a healthy self-concept (DeVos and Romanucci-Ross, 1975, 1995). The healthy development of ethnic identity is important for all adolescents; however, this may be a challenge for both ABC and non-ABC children.

According to Holcomb-McCoy (1997), the importance of ethnic identity in coping with a variety of life situations, particularly those of a stressful nature, has been a major focus of current literature. While identity development is a complex task for all adolescents; it is particularly complicated for adolescents who belong to ethnic minority groups. Adolescents, due to their membership both in an ethnic group and in the mainstream culture(s), face an extra problem with identity. Thus, the adolescent is caught between his parents' ethnic beliefs and values, and that of the mainstream society (Friedlander, 1999).

The ethnic identity of adopted children may hamper their learning in Chinese language schools since they may wish to become like their adopted parents in ethnicity. There are social and psychological concerns with this. It is suspected that non-ABC children may have an even stronger desire to be Caucasian.

ABC children also have issues with their ethnic identity. Lee (1996) and Yeh (2001) reported that many ABC children, at one time or another, wished they were Caucasians and distanced themselves from other Asian students. However, that sentiment often wears off by the time they reach adolescence. A study conducted on second-generation ABC children in the mid-southern United States shows the following

results: Of the 20 subjects aged 9-16, 15 percent wished they were not Chinese and 15 percent wanted to know more about China and its culture (Leung, 1997).

Significance of the Study

This study will contribute to our understanding of the differences between ABC and non-ABC children in terms of their second language learning motivation, second language acquisition, and ethnic identity. The study will also shed light on the relationship between the three aforementioned variables and the teaching strategies used in Chinese language schools. Through knowledge of these differences, this study may help in the development of curricula and instruction that best promote second language learning motivation, second language acquisition, and ethnic identity in ABC and non-ABC students in mixed-classroom settings.

Heritage Language Maintenance

Heritage language is often viewed by advocates as a valuable resource. Many propose that significant educational effort should be made to preserve this resource for the benefit of the individual and the nation (August & Hakuta, 1998; Cummins, 1992, 2001; Fishman, 1989; Garcia, 1983; Trueba, 1993). For example, the Canadian Education Association found that teachers in heritage language programs associated language maintenance with increased job opportunities (Cummins, 1992). This is one of many reasons why, in the current educational system, heritage languages should be viewed as valuable national resources and be maintained rather than ignored by the educational system (Campbell & Lindholm, 1987).

Additionally, heritage language benefits other language learning. Numerous studies suggest that success and proficiency in one language is directly attributed to

success and proficiency in other languages (Cummins, 1992; Skutnabb-Kangas, 1998; Skutnabb-Kangas & Phillipson, 1994; Skutnabb-Kangas & Toukomaa, 1976). In other words, the more one knows in one's native language, the more one will learn in a second language. Therefore, the development of primary language proficiency in students learning to speak English should be encouraged (Cummins, 2001; Peregoy & Boyle, 1994).

Heritage language instruction also helps to maintain intergenerational communication. In some cases, the parents of ABC children are unable to speak any English. If the children do not maintain their heritage language, they risk losing the ability to communicate well with their family members (Wong-Fillmore, 1991). Chinese language schools play a key role in helping to preserve communication between the generations.

However, it has been shown that most immigrant children prefer English (Cho, Cho & Tse, 1997). Therefore, only a small number of these children remain fluent in their heritage language. In fact, a study of language adaptation patterns found that among Latin-American students -- the group considered to be least prone to losing their heritage language -- less than half were fluent bilinguals; among Asian-origin students, less than 10 percent retained their native-language fluency (Porter & Hao, 1998). There is a need to improve the preservation of heritage language in ethnic minority children.

Research Questions

Question 1: What are the differences between American-born Chinese (ABC) and adopted Chinese (non-ABC) children regarding language-learning motivation?

Question 2: What are the differences between American-born Chinese (ABC) and adopted Chinese (non-ABC) children regarding language acquisition?

Question 3: What are the differences between American-born Chinese (ABC) and adopted Chinese (non-ABC) children regarding ethnic identity?

Question 4: What are the relationships among nine teaching categories used in Chinese language schools and language learning motivation, language acquisition, and ethnic identity?

Methodology

This is a non-experimental, comparative study, with no treatment and no random assignment to groups by the researcher. Surveys and grade records were used to measure language learning motivation, language acquisition, and ethnic identity in both ABC and non-ABC children. This study compares ABC and non-ABC students on second language learning motivation, second language acquisition, and ethnic identity; and compares the relation of various instructional strategies with language learning motivation, language acquisition, and ethnic identity.

There are two independent variables and three dependent variables in this study. The two independent variables are whether the students are: 1) ABC or non-ABC children; and 2) the nine teaching categories used in Chinese language schools. The three dependent variables are: language learning motivation, language acquisition and ethnic identity.

Population and Sample

In this study, American Chinese language schools are selected based on the school type and location. These Chinese language schools are selected because they have an adequate number of the target population (Chinese American Data Center Census, 2000). The number of Chinese language schools located in Washington, DC, Maryland, and Virginia provided a sufficient population for this study. According to the census, there are 4,302 Chinese Americans in Washington DC, 55,139 in Maryland, and 43,532 in Virginia. These three major urban areas have a combined population of Chinese-Americans estimated at 103,000. Approximately 3,700 students from this area are enrolled in traditional, non-profit Chinese language schools using textbooks published in Taipei or the People's Republic of China. The sample population consists of 31 classrooms from schools located in these three areas with a mixture of ABC and non-ABC children.

Instrumentation

The researcher used the following instruments to collect data: (1) the Mini-Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (mini-AMTB); (2) a Grading Report Card; (3) an Ethnic Identity Questionnaire; and (4) Teaching Strategies Assessment. Additionally the researcher created the Student Background Survey to gather demographic information on each student. The survey also contained items to assess students' language learning motivation, language acquisition and ethnic identity.

Mini-Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (mini-AMTB): The mini-Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (mini-AMTB), developed by Gardner and Smythe (1981), was used to measure attitudes and motivation in children.

Grading Report Cards(GRC): Students' report cards (called Grading Report Cards) were used to evaluate language acquisition. These reports were collected from the mixed-classroom instructors participating in the study. The children were evaluated in areas that include listening, speaking, reading, writing, homework, conduct, tests, overall performance, and attendance.

Ethnic Identity Questionnaire (EIQ): The questionnaire was used to assess both ABC and non-ABC children's identity development. It was adapted from another instrument created by Gardner and Tremblay (1999).

Teaching Strategies Assessment (TSA): This questionnaire was adapted from two books and designed by the researcher. The objective of this questionnaire was to determine the teaching categories that best promote students' second language learning motivation, second language acquisition, and ethnic identity in a Chinese language school. Through the use of teacher self-reports, the questionnaire identified strategies utilized in Chinese language schools.

Limitations

Due to the small number of adopted Chinese children enrolled in Chinese language schools in mixed classrooms, the selection of the target population was limited to the small number of schools available. Therefore, no random assignment to the conditions of the study was performed. The study focused solely on Chinese language schools located on the East Coast in Maryland, Washington, DC, and Virginia. The results may not be applicable to students or schools located on the West Coast or in suburban areas.

The study only addressed ethnic Chinese children: those adopted from China and raised by American parents (non-ABC) and those that are considered second-generation (ABC). Findings from this study may not accurately reflect non-Chinese schools or adopted children from other countries raised by American parents.

Organization of the Study

This study is presented in five chapters. Chapter 1 serves as an introduction to this study along with its background, rationale and significance. Chapter 2 provides a review of the literature. The review includes an overview of Chinese language schools and their current curriculum design and instruction; demographics of both ABC and non-ABC children; theoretical frameworks related to the three dependent variables: (a) students' language learning motivation; (b) language acquisition; and (c) ethnic identity; the research related to heritage language instruction; and lastly the forty-five teaching strategies identified as effective in language learning classrooms. Chapter 3 presents the research methodology and design. This chapter provides the procedures of the study, including description of the pilot study to develop and test the instruments to be used for this research. The questionnaires and surveys are described in Chapter 3, as well as the evidence for their reliability and validity. Chapter 4 is an analysis of the data generated from the questionnaires. Chapter 5 provides a summary, conclusions and recommendations.

Summary

This study evaluates the differences between ABC and non-ABC children in second language learning motivation, second language acquisition, and ethnic identity, and identifies instructional strategies utilized most often in the Chinese language school.

Additionally, it provides insight into the current state of curriculum design and instruction of Chinese language schools for both ABC and non-ABC children. The findings may assist educators and school administrators in developing well-designed curricula and instruction for ABC and non-ABC children. It may also provide a foundation for future research on the differences between ABC and non-ABC children.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions of terms are limited to this study:

ABC: Second-generation American-born Chinese children. These children live with their natural parents who emigrated from China, Taiwan, or Hong Kong.

Adoption/Culture School: The schools are usually private institutions, teaching Chinese as a second language to adopted children. They are usually weekend schools, focusing on culture and language learning, and are normally two or three hours in duration. The teachers are usually not volunteers. Like traditional Chinese language teachers, they are usually without formal teaching training or certification. Instead of being supported by the Chinese government—as is the case in traditional Chinese language schools—the adoption/culture schools are completely supported by parents.

Cultural class: A class devoted to various cultural activities such as martial arts, folk dance, folk arts, calligraphy, Chinese history, Chinese word processing, etc.

Other activities include cultural events, Chinese festivals, talent shows, and publication of news.

Ethnic identity: Students identify themselves as belonging to a certain ethnic group.

F.C.C.: Families with Children from China. This is a network of parent support groups in the United States, Canada, and the United Kingdom. While some of the chapters are formal organizations with by-laws and boards of directors, others are less structured, with groups of families who support one another in a variety of activities. Virtually all F.C.C. chapters share the following three goals: support families who have adopted children from China through post-adoption periods and Chinese culture programs; encourage adoption from China and support families awaiting adoption; and advocate for and support children remaining in orphanages in China. Some of the activities organized by F.C.C. chapters are the publication of newsletters, selection of membership directors, family picnics and pot-luck dinners, celebrations of Chinese festivals and holidays, pre-adoption information meetings, playgroups, Chinese language and culture classes for adopted children, and invitation of parent speakers (Caughman, 1998).

First-generation Chinese: Immigrated children born in China, Taiwan, or Hong Kong living with their natural parents who were also born in China, Taiwan, or Hong Kong, respectively.

Language acquisition: Children's learning achievement in listening, speaking, reading and writing the Chinese language.

Mixed Classroom: A classroom in a Chinese language school consisting of both American-born Chinese (ABC) students and adopted (non-ABC) Chinese students. The students use the same textbooks and curriculum materials. The distinction is made to exclude traditional Chinese school classrooms consisting of only ABC

students and contemporary adoption/cultural school classrooms consisting of only non-ABC children.

Non-ABC: Non American-born Chinese. In this study, the Non-ABC's are Chinese children adopted by American parents. They do not include first-generation Chinese Americans who immigrated with their parents.

Second-generation Chinese: American-born Chinese children living with their immigrated, natural parents born in China, Taiwan, or Hong Kong. The distinction is made to exclude contemporary immigrant children who have arrived in the U.S. before they reached adulthood.

Third-generation Chinese: American-born Chinese children living with their natural American-born Chinese parents. The grandparents of these American-born Chinese children were born in China, Taiwan, or Hong Kong.

Traditional Chinese language school: The traditional Chinese language school is a non-profit organization, teaching Chinese as a second language. The schools are usually weekend schools, focusing on culture and language learning. The classes are normally two or three hours in duration. Most students are second-generation ABC's. The schools are usually established by enthusiastic parents and the Chinese community. These Chinese parents have seen the need to provide opportunities for their children and other interested individuals to participate in the study of the Chinese language and culture. The teachers are usually parents volunteering as Chinese instructors, without formal teacher training or certificates. The schools, teaching materials, and school budget are mainly supported by tuition fees, with some contributions from donations and the Taipei Council,

which is the Taiwan Chinese government. The Taipei Council provides a supplemental operation cost of 5 percent annually to these schools. In addition, the council sponsors annual teachers' meetings, office fieldtrips, Chinese holiday celebrations, and free school textbooks and teaching materials.

Transracial adoption: The adoption of children who are of a different race than the adopting parents. In this study, it refers to the adoption of Chinese children by non-Chinese American parents.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

With the recent increase in Chinese children adopted by American parents, many Chinese language schools now enroll both American-born Chinese (ABC) and adopted Chinese (non-ABC) children. The schools currently place these two types of students in the same classroom (mixed classroom) despite their disparate backgrounds. The special needs of the two groups of children may arise from differences in their learning motivation, language acquisition, and development of ethnic identity. However, no studies have been conducted to determine the instructional strategies that best promote learning in these areas especially as they apply to heritage language instruction for non-ABC children. The limited amount of literature and research on instructional strategies used in Chinese language schools and on the differences in second language learning motivation, second language acquisition, and ethnic identity between ABC and non-ABC children indicate a need for more research.

This review of literature is divided into five sections. The first section provides a profile of Chinese language schools in the United States. The second section provides profiles of ABC and non-ABC children in the United States. The third section deals with the major theories that inform the three independent variables: learning motivation, language acquisition and ethnic identity development. The fourth section deals with the literature related to heritage language instruction. The fifth section addresses specific effective instructional strategies for heritage language and/or second language instruction.

Profile of Chinese Language Schools in the United States

Heritage language schools, usually maintained by ethnic communities, are dedicated to the teaching and maintenance of an ethnic or heritage language. The goal of most of these schools is the achievement of full bilingualism (Baker, 1992). By the 1980s, it was estimated that as many as 600,000 children attended 5,000 ethnic language schools (Fishman, 1989). In the 1990s, the number of ethnic language schools increased to accommodate the growing number of children.

As with other ethnic groups trying to preserve their language, a number of Chinese communities have established schools that offer Chinese language programs outside the formal educational systems. Since the 1900s, these schools have operated successfully outside the public school system (Chao, 1997), and have become an integral part of Chinese communities in cities across the United States. According to a recent study by the National Council of Associations of Chinese Language Schools, approximately 83,000 students are taking Chinese language instruction in 634 Chinese heritage community language schools in the United States (Wong, 1996).

In Chinese language schools, programs are tailored for students of Chinese descent. These schools, where classes are generally conducted in Mandarin, provide an environment where Chinese Americans are the majority and can interact with members of their own ethnic group. The classes are organized into either Mandarin only, Mandarin as a second language, or Chinese language high school credit classes. The curriculum of the schools is dominated by the Mandarin language and Chinese culture.

Three types of programs are generally offered in Chinese language schools: weekend school, after-school, and summer school. Most of the schools are three-hour

weekend programs and consist of two hours devoted to language learning and one hour for cultural activities or field trips. Cultural classes, which are usually held first, are generally conducted in Mandarin and consist of electives that include calligraphy, folk dance, and martial arts. The two-hour language classes are typically held after the cultural classes. Some schools, however, devote all three hours to language learning. Teachers often prepare supplementary materials in addition to the standard textbooks for their students (Chao, 1997).

After-school classes take place after the regular school day. These classes last about one to two hours every day of the week. Activities include snack-time, viewing Chinese language videos, playing games and doing homework. After-school classes are usually not as intensive as the weekend classes (Chao, 1997; Wong, 1996).

Summer classes last from mid-May to mid-August. Students usually attend for three hours a day. In some summer schools, students can receive additional instruction in mathematics and SAT preparation besides the traditional Chinese language curriculum. These language classes tend to be more intensive; they are often used to make up for poor grades or for students who want to prepare for Study Abroad opportunities (Chao, 1997; Wong, 1996).

Since the majority of students in Chinese language schools are ethnic Chinese who already possess some language skills, classes have traditionally emphasized only reading and writing. Schools are now developing textbooks that focus on listening and speaking skills in conjunction with the emphasis on reading and writing. These programs are particularly effective because they provide intensive language training.

The Association of Chinese Schools on the East Coast, sponsored by the Taipei Economic and Cultural Representative Office in the United States, conducted a Chinese Teacher Annual Conference in 2002 and reported an increasing number of Chinese adopted children enrolling in Chinese language schools (with no specific number given). Due to this group's rapid growth, many Chinese language schools now enroll both American-born Chinese children living with their natural Chinese parents along with adopted Chinese children raised by and living with American parents (ACS, 2002). The schools currently place these two groups of students in the same classroom, using the same textbooks and teaching materials. Most Chinese language schools are structured and designed for ABC children, and the classes are generally conducted in Mandarin (Cheng & Wong, 1996).

Some Chinese scholars and private adoption schools, however, advocate the use of separate classrooms and different curricula to meet the needs of the adopted children. The existing schools are not yet prepared to address these special needs. Chao (1997) suggests that schools develop new curricula that can provide an appropriate learning environment and assist parents and teachers in supporting the healthy development of ethnicity and cultural identity in these adopted children.

Two major challenges facing Chinese language schools today are lack of funding and certified teachers. Most Chinese language schools are usually affiliated with nonprofit organizations such as Chinese-American associations or religious organizations (Chao, 1997 and Wong, 1996). The schools, which rely mainly on parent volunteers, are supported by Chinese churches and communities. The parents usually donate their time by serving as teachers and administrators. Schools raise funds by sponsoring activities

such as dinners and picnics. The school boards also seek donations from local businesses and individuals (Chao, 1997; Chen, 1997).

Due to the lack of funding and the limitations in teacher qualifications, these traditional Chinese language schools are not prepared to develop new teaching materials and curricula. Moreover, there may not be enough parent volunteers to provide the necessary personnel to run the schools. Some schools implement a mandatory Parent Service Plan to encourage parents to share responsibilities. Many of the parents who volunteer as teachers do not have formal teaching degrees. Also, with differences in age, family background, and language competence, appropriate student placement is difficult.

In 1993, representatives of Chinese language schools were invited to a major conference to participate in discussions on Chinese language teaching. Although there are numerous challenges facing the schools, many educators in Chinese language schools are encouraged by the prospect of getting outside support to re-examine critical issues such as curriculum design, teacher training, materials development, and student assessment (Chao, 1997).

There are also private adoption schools or cultural schools that enroll around 50-120 adopted (non-ABC) students (Kuo, 2002). The parents provide all of the expenses, including teachers' salaries, costs of materials, and rental of facilities. These private adoption schools use their own curricula and place adopted children according to their age and language proficiency. They provide an environment for non-ABC children and their parents to study with other students of the same ethnic background and culture. These schools also assist the adoptive parents in educating and participating in their adopted children's growth and learning process.

Chinese language schools are major sources of language instruction for children of Chinese descent in grades K to 12. These schools also prepare them for courses in advanced Chinese and Chinese literature at colleges and universities (Chao, 1996). The schools continue to strive to be a vital link between primary and secondary education for Chinese children, and continue to seek a more active role in mainstream American education. Chinese language schools are looking for national recognition and are making greater contributions to Chinese language education in the United States by playing an increasing role at the national level (Chao, 1997).

Profile of Adopted Chinese Children and American-Born Chinese Children in the United States

The Chinese population has increased steadily in the United States over the past several decades. During the 1970s, U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service statistical data showed that 124,326 Chinese immigrants were admitted into the United States. This number increased to 346,747 immigrants in the 1980s (Chiang, 2000). As a result, the population in Chinatowns in San Francisco, Los Angeles, and New York has almost doubled (Lee, 1998). In addition to the increasing Chinese population, there has been a rise in the immigration rates for Latino, Asian, and other ethnic populations. Undoubtedly, these immigrants are changing the ethnic composition of the U.S. population. Demographic data from the U.S. Census in 1995 indicated that the U.S. population was 87 percent White, 10 percent Black, 2.5 percent Hispanic, and 0.5 percent Asian. By the year 2050, however, it is likely that ethnic minorities will comprise almost half of the total population, with 52.8 percent of the population being White, 24.5 percent Hispanic, 13.6 percent Black, and 8.2 percent of Asian ancestry (Wang, 1996). From

these trends, it is evident that the United States will continue to face the challenge of providing linguistic and cultural education to immigrant children.

From the historical perspective, however, the United States cannot be credited with preserving linguistic resources since it has been offering little—if any—instruction for maintaining or preserving ethnic language in minority children. In fact, Lieberman, Dalto, and Johnson (1975) indicated that “the U.S. is a veritable cemetery of foreign language, where knowledge of the mother tongue of hundreds of immigrant groups had rarely lasted past the third generation.” Stairs and Hill (2002) also showed that language can be lost within two generations. If ethnic children do not learn their language, then they will not pass it on to their children. Consequently, many heritage language schools have been formed to undertake the primary responsibility of teaching heritage language and culture to children brought to the United States every year by immigrants.

Adopted Chinese Children (Non-ABC)

Over the past decade, international adoption has steadily increased to where the practice is now an important part of American culture (Deacon, 1997; Riley, 1997; Tizard, 1991). In 1989, the U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS) recorded a total of 7,948 international adoptions. By 1998, this figure had almost doubled to 15,774 (INS, 1999).

Each year, approximately 12 to 13 percent of all non-relative adoptions in the United States are international adoptions. While many countries are represented, a majority of international adoptees come from Asia, Central America, and South America (Rojewski & Rojewski, 2001). Between 1989 and 1997, the People’s Republic of China (PRC) became a major source for parents seeking to adopt internationally. According to

Families with Children from China (F.C.C., 2000), international transracial adoption from China by American parents has grown from 201 children in 1992 to 5,053 children in 2000. This accounts for approximately 3.5 percent of all adoptions in the United States. Between 1985 and 2000, with INS immigration visas as a tally, 23,093 Chinese children were adopted by American parents (F.C.C., 2001). This figure is comparable to the number of children adopted by Canadian and Western Europeans—primarily by British, Scandinavian, Spanish, and Dutch parents (Klatzkiln, 1999). Over the past decade, transracial adoption has increased steadily, and China has become a major source for parents seeking to adopt internationally.

An exploratory study of Chinese-American adoptions (Tessler, Gamache & Liu, 1999) shows that the average age of children adopted from China was 2.1 years; the youngest were between five and six months, and the oldest were seven years old. More than 97 percent were girls. The large number of baby girls in Chinese orphanages who are available for adoption is due to the Chinese parents' preference for sons (Huang, 2000; Johnson, 1998; Reist, 1995). The study also surveyed reasons for adoption. Seventy-one percent of those surveyed listed infertility as the major reason for adoption.

Most Chinese orphans are adopted as infants by American parents. As they grow up they begin to develop negative feelings toward their own skin color, appearance, and place of birth:

The visible nature of these adoptions confronts these mostly White American parents with the need to explain the nature of their becoming a family and their children's status in America. It is reasonable to expect that the children adopted

from China will feel strongly both about their American and Chinese identities (Tessler, Gamache & Liu, 1999, p. 47).

Tessler, Gamache and Liu in 1999 also emphasized the need to help these children to find a secure footing in both Chinese and American cultures. It has, therefore, become the family's responsibility to develop a cultural plan that will help the child build an identity as a cultural and ethnic person (Groze, 1997).

Most American parents recognize their adopted children's special needs. However, those who choose to provide ethnic socialization for their Chinese children face a major challenge because of the dissimilar and unfamiliar cultures, languages, and values (Groze & Ileana, 1996; Ramos, 1996). Many parents deal with this challenge by sending their children to Chinese language schools.

American-born Chinese (ABC) Children in the United States

The parents of ABC children often want them to learn English quickly while adapting to mainstream American society without losing their heritage language. To the dismay of the parents and the later regret of the children, this goal is rarely achieved.

In addition to a preference for English, the structure of the linguistic shift from the ethnic language to the majority language has been described as a three-generation process. In the first generation, immigrants sustain their native language while learning English. The second generation becomes bilingual by using the majority language (English) outside the home and using the native language (Chinese) with parents or grandparents at home. Eventually, the third generation completes the shift by discontinuing the use of the native language and speaking only the majority language (Fishman, 1994; Portes & Hao, 1998).

A recent study was conducted to explore American-born Chinese children's perception of the Chinese language school. Chiang (2000), some children disclosed: "I'd rather be home finishing up my science project," "I sometimes like Chinese school," and "Chinese school is not that bad. I like to come here to meet my friends." Most of the ethnic children dislike learning Chinese, as "it demands a lot of time and effort and there are very few opportunities for them to use the language" (p. 441). Olsen (1997) also found that "under the immense pressure to be assimilated into mainstream culture, ethnic minority children often choose to relinquish their ethnic language, at least in their early years of formal schooling" (p. 70). This results in accelerated loss of the ethnic language as the minority children attempt to "function efficiently in the majority language and to integrate into the mainstream culture at schools" (p. 67).

It is evident that maintaining one's ethnic language is important to ethnic minority children; however, they often do not perceive its significance until they have missed the opportunity to embrace it (Chiang, 2000). A common pattern seen among American-born Chinese who dropped out of Chinese language schools is that once they grow up, they experience regret for not taking advantage of the opportunity to acquire Chinese at an early age (Wong, 1987). A study of ABC students studying Mandarin at colleges and universities showed that most of them attended Chinese language schools because their parents made them (Liao, 1999). As a result, they did not learn much Chinese and forgot much of it after withdrawing from the school. As these Chinese-American youth emerge from adolescence, many begin to shed the negative perceptions of their ethnicity and ethnic language and feel a need to incorporate the ethnic language into their evolving

identity. The desire to learn a heritage language at the college level was often due to an ethnic identity crisis (Liao, 1999).

Theoretical Frameworks

The theories of learning motivation, language acquisition and ethnic identity are provided to support this study. The four motivational orientations by Crookes and Schmidt (1991) and Gardner and Tremblay (1994b) and other researchers inform the variable of language learning motivation. Krashen (1981a, 1985, 1998, 2000) and Cummins' language proficiency models (1981ab, 1992, 2001), and other researchers inform the variable of language acquisition. Phinney (1990, 1996) and others to inform the variable of ethnic identity development.

Language Learning Motivation Theory

Crookes and Schmidt (1991) and Gardner and Tremblay (1994a) explored four motivational orientations: reason for learning; desire to attain the learning goal; positive attitude toward the learning situation; and effortful behavior. Many theorists and researchers have found it is important to recognize the concept of motivation, not as a single entity, but as a multi-factorial one.

Transfer and motivation play important roles in learning. Transfer, which is the application of prior knowledge to new learning situations (McKeough, 1995), is often seen as a learning goal, and thus the extent to which transfer occurs is a measure of learning success (Pea, 1987; Perkins, 1991). Motivation, defined as the impetus to create and sustain intentions and goal seeking acts (Ames & Ames, 1989), is important because it determines the extent of the learner's active involvement and attitude towards learning.

Transfer and motivation are mutually supportive in creating an optimal learning environment. If learners perceive what they are learning is relevant and transferable to other situations, they will find learning meaningful and their motivation to acquire the skill or knowledge will increase. For transfer to take place, learners must be motivated to do two things. First, they must be able to recognize opportunities for transfer (Prawat, 1989), and second, they need to possess the motivation to take advantage of these opportunities (Pea, 1988).

Language Acquisition Theory

Research on language acquisition is currently divided into first and second language learning settings. The literature on first language learning is most relevant to child development, while second language learning relates primarily to adult learning. Theories of adult learning (Cross, 1991; Knowles, 1984; Rogers, 1983, Haskell, 2001) and literacy (Vella, 1995) are more likely to provide an appropriate framework for second language learning, as compared to those concerned with child development (Bruner, 1960; 1966; Piaget, 1954). There are many existing second language acquisition theories, however I will focus on just two: Krashen's monitor model (1981, 1985, 1998, 2000) and Cummins' language proficiency models (1981b, 1992, 2001).

Krashen built on Noam Chomsky's notion of competence in postulating his Theory of Second Language Acquisition, and this has become the most widely known and well-accepted theory for language acquisition. This theory has had a large impact in all areas of second language research and teaching since the 1980s.

In 2000, Krashen made a distinction between the acquisition and the learning processes necessary for internalizing a new language. The acquisition process is narrowly

defined as a subconscious process by which learners pick up a language. This process is related to Chomsky's concept of how children acquire their first language. This acquired knowledge then makes it possible for the learner to produce language. The process involves understanding and communication. Rather than using vocabulary or grammar exercises, the process is based upon activities that involve communication. The learning process, however, is the more conscious attempt to know about the structure and workings of a language, often done in formal teaching settings, as Krashen described in 1981c:

Language acquisition does not require extensive use of conscious grammatical rules and does not require tedious drill. Acquisition requires meaningful interaction in the target language (natural communication) in which speakers are concerned not with the form of their utterances, but with the messages they are conveying and understanding. The best methods are therefore those that supply comprehensible input in low anxiety situations, containing messages that students really want to hear. These methods do not force early production in the second language, but allow students to produce when they are ready thus recognizing that improvement comes from supplying communicative and comprehensible input, and not from forcing and correcting production. (p. 51).

Learned material, therefore, helps the student monitor the correctness of acquired knowledge in language production (or performance). This is Krashen's monitor hypothesis which is widely regarded as influential in second language learning and teaching, especially in the sheltered instruction movement and formal teaching settings.

Another hypothesis is the affective filter hypothesis, which states that learning occurs when there is no barrier (e.g., environmental, social, or attitudinal) affecting the intake of new information. It is only when this filter is absent that new information is efficiently processed and integrated into the learner's knowledge base. This new information that needs to be processed and understood by the learner is what forms Krashen's input hypothesis. He postulated that input must build on what the learner already knows and that once the learner understands it, the output or performance should reflect that comprehension. Meaning has to be processed, and sometimes negotiated, by the participants in the communicative act before the input becomes comprehensible and for output to be judged as correct.

Second language acquisition can occur without formal instruction and without living in the country. Krashen (2000) suggested that the crucial variable seems to be comprehensible input (CI) and having good relationships with speakers of the language. This is in contrast to comprehensible output (CO) where we acquire language when we attempt to transmit a message to a conversation partner (Krashen, 1998). Here, we fail, try again, and eventually arrive at the correct form of the utterance. Examinations of both CO and CI hypotheses in second language acquisition suggest that providing more comprehensible input is more effective than increasing output (Krashen, 1998). Also in 1996, Krashen proposed a technique called narrow listening to advance second-language learners' comprehension of casual talk. This activity requires a native-language speaker to discuss on tape a familiar topic of interest to the learner, so the learner can listen to the native speaker, both in person and later via the tape, as often as he wishes.

In designing learning activities, it is important to keep in mind that language learning focuses on both the accuracy and appropriateness of application in various contexts of use. The learners must be given exercises that allow them to use the language in multiple contexts. Creating optimal language learning environments should then be one of the primary concerns for language teachers. As shown by Spolsky (1985), and Sivert and Egbert (1995), language acquisition is the result of interaction between environmental conditions and a cognitive mechanism. Teachers can observe conditions under which learners acquire language and can make adjustments toward creating optimal learning conditions. The use of optimal environments and appropriate activities results in learners' heightened motivation and awareness of the intricacies of language usage.

Ethnic Identity Theory

Ethnic identity has been described as a “template that is used to develop knowledge, beliefs, and expectations about a person's own ethnic group (all persons have an ethnic identity); works as a cognitive, information-processing framework within which a person perceives and defines objects, situations, events, and other people; and provides a basis for a person's behavior” (Phinney, 1990, p. 65). It has also been conceptualized as an “enduring, fundamental aspect of self that includes a sense of connection in a social or ethnic group” (Tajfel, 1978, p. 63) and the attitudes and feelings associated with that membership (Bernal & Knight, 1993; Keefe, 1992; Phinney, 1990). A person's sense of attachment to other members of his or her ethnic group is based on their common ethnic characteristics. Ethnic identity may also be described as how a person is classified by others (Phinney, 1990).

Ethnicity is frequently understood in terms of culture (Phinney, 1996). According to Phinney:

A common assumption about the meaning of ethnicity focuses on the cultural characteristics of a particular group, that is, the norms, values, attitudes, and behaviors that are typical of an ethnic group and that stem from a common culture of origin transmitted across generations. (p. 920)

However, culture differs from ethnicity in that it refers broadly to a group's norms, values, attitudes, and behaviors that may not necessarily be based on ethnic background.

It has been found that there are differences in Asians' and Europeans' sense of ethnic identity. A study of collective and private selves noted that Asian subjects provided more "collective" responses (20 to 52 percent) than do European and North American subjects (15 to 19 percent) (Higgins & King, 1981). Also, the "Asian self depends more on the situation and values of the society than does the North American or European self" (Triandis, 1989, p. 506). Asian Americans "value external influences more than self-assessments and self-inferences during the ethnic identification process," (Triandis, 1989, p. 508) and "respond strongly to the judgments and demands of social environment" (Triandis, 1989, p. 517). Dien (1983) also noted that the Chinese conception of "big me" (the group) and "little me" (the individual) illustrates the "subordination of the individual identity to the collective identity." The "little me" is sacrificed to complete the "big me," and "successful self-development is measured by the ability to maintain interdependence between the "little me" and the "big me," rather than by a gradual process of separation and individuation as conceptualized in Western psychological theories" (Dien, 1983, p. 285). Likewise, Japanese individuals are noted to

have similar developmental paths to “define their sense of self based on their dependence on others” (Doi 1973, p. 19). Dien states that dependence on and connection to others is an integral part of the Japanese conception of self.

Research on the personal and social development of children and adolescents from immigrant families in the United States suggests that ethnic identity is "seeing oneself as primarily from one's country of origin, from the United States or from both" (Domanico, Crawford, & Wolfe, 1994, p. 197). There have been studies conducted to examine how people from different communities construct their identities and relate to the majority culture in their countries (Woollett, Marshall, Nicolson, & Dosanjh, 1994), and it is noted that these relationships are interactions between an ethnic and a dominant culture and the identification with the two cultures (Kitano & Yeung, 1982; Sue & Sue, 1971).

Recently, there has been an increase in the research on ethnic identity development in adolescents (Brookins, 1994; Phinney, 1989). Ethnic identification has been defined as a “real awareness of self within a specific group, which is followed by a great sense of respect and pride, which constitutes a base for the development of a healthy self-concept” (DeVos & Romanucci-Ross, 1995, p. 55). The development of adolescent ethnic identity was described in Marcia’s classic work in 1966. Her theory suggested that identity is based on a person’s exploration of ethnicity and a person’s commitment to his or her ethnic group membership.

Based on Phinney’s (1989) model of ethnic identity development and his previous studies with African American, European, Hispanic/Latino, and Asian American

adolescents, Phinney suggests that adolescents could be identified as belonging to one of the four statuses discussed below:

The first status is diffuse identity: This status is characterized by “little or no exploration of one’s identity and no clear understanding of issues related to one’s ethnicity” (Phinney, 1989, p. 34). This usually takes place before children attend school, when they have limited contact with other ethnic groups (Tse, 1999). These individuals have thus not explored or experienced issues of ethnicity in their lives and have given little thought to them. As they come into contact with other ethnic groups, they develop ethnic awareness and move into the foreclosed identity status.

The second status is foreclosed identity: This status is characterized by having adopted attitudes and beliefs about one’s own ethnic group from one’s parents or the majority culture, without any self-exploration. These individuals should not be considered as having achieved identity, since they have not experienced periods of exploration. Children in this status might have positive or negative images of their ethnic group, depending on the images to which they have been exposed. Some individuals adopt the behaviors of the majority group and distance themselves from their own group (Tse, 1999).

The third status is moratorium: This status is characterized by an exploration period in which adolescents express interest in learning more about their culture and the personal implications of being a member of their ethnic group. The adolescents realize that joining the majority group is not possible and look to their own ethnic group for acceptance (Tse, 1999). Many were awakened to the fact they were not of the majority group and have actually been uncomfortable with that majority group (Brewer, 2004).

These individuals are trying to answer the question “Who am I?” from an ethnic perspective and have no firm commitment to their ethnic group yet. In the course of exploring acceptance in a different ethnic group, many reject the mainstream group and embrace their own ethnic group (Kim, 1995).

The fourth status is achieved identity: This status is characterized by having an identity with a sense of confidence and pride regarding his or her ethnic group, resulting from experiencing a period of exploration. The adolescents “became proud to be an ethnic minority American and reported feeling ‘at home with themselves’ ” (Kim, 1995, p. 145). Also, many possess a clear understanding of issues related to their ethnicity within the majority culture. They figure out “what parts of themselves are Asian and what parts are American” (Kim, 1995, p. 149). This is the ultimate outcome of the identity development.

Atkinson, Morton & Sue (1983, p. 49) also proposed an identity theory for minority identity development which follows five distinct stages. First, in the conformity stage, the minority member has a preference for the values of the dominant culture instead of his or her own cultural group. Second, in the dissonance stage, the minority member experiences confusion and conflict regarding the dominant culture's system and his or her own group's cultural system. Third, in the resistance and immersion stage, the minority member actively rejects the dominant system and accepts his or her own cultural group's traditions and customs. Fourth, in the introspection stage, the minority member questions the values of both the minority and majority cultures. Fifth, in the synergistic articulation and awareness stage, the minority member resolves the conflicts of previous

stages and develops a cultural identity that selects elements from both the dominant and minority cultural groups' values.

The stage models for minority identity development, however, have received scrutiny and criticism in the field of psychology. One criticism is that the models are too linear and that there is no explanation as to which factors contribute to the progression to the next stage (Hayano, 1981). Another criticism is that an individual may be in more than one stage at a time and this is not acknowledged by the models. It has been found that the stage models of ethnic identity development may be inappropriate for describing ethnic identity among Asians and Asian Americans. The models describe ethnic identity development in all-or-nothing terms, rather than perceiving it as a multi-faceted, evolving, diverse, and dynamic phenomenon not committed to a linear progression. In fact, ethnic identity may change due to social contexts, family interactions, geographic location, and psychological proximity to Asian-American political movements.

It has been suggested that identification with one's ethnic background is a critical factor in a minority individual's personal development and level of self-esteem (Green, 1981; Maldonado, 1975). Such identification is important in coping with a variety of life situations, particularly those of a stressful nature. However, it has been strongly suggested that identity development is inadequately addressed for Asian-American students at the K-12 level. Positive development of identity produces a healthy self-image, unleashing a sense of self-confidence that affects both self-image and social behavior (Phinney & Chavira, 1995).

Heritage Language Instruction

This section will show how heritage language instruction positively impacts students' learning motivation, language acquisition and ethnic identity. Heritage language (HL) instruction from a number of different linguistic and national backgrounds was examined.

Language Learning Motivation

Wen (1997) investigated the motivational factors of students of Asian and Asian-American backgrounds learning Chinese at the university level in the United States. Results indicated that intrinsic interest in Chinese culture and the desire to understand one's own cultural heritage is the initial motivation for students to learn the language. He also demonstrated that these motivational factors correlated significantly with desired learning outcomes.

Motivation also led to effective language acquisition. In 1991, Gardner studied second language acquisition in adults and found that motivation was positively correlated with proficiency in second language.

Dopke (1992) found that those families whose children succeeded in maintaining fluent bilingualism differed from those whose children didn't in motivation. First, the children were consistently not allowed to respond in the non-heritage language by the parents. Second, the children had familial, social and/or religious groups besides of their parents where they spoke in their heritage language. All of these factors offered language exposure that provided further motivation to the child.

Hinton (1999) also found that having peers with whom one can speak the language is an important motivational factor in heritage language maintenance. Students

who belonged to churches or clubs related to their ethnic heritage were more linguistically and ethnically developed. These organizations served as important social motivation by providing more exposure to and practice with the language. A visit to their country of origin also gave many children, who might otherwise abandon their heritage language, an increased motivation to learn (Hinton, 1999).

Language Acquisition

In an early study, Canadian children who studied heritage languages effectively acquired the majority language at the same time (Danesi, 1991, 1993, 2000). It has been shown that a child's success in acquiring English may depend to a large degree on his or her proficiency in the heritage language (Piper, 1987). In fact, a study of Vietnamese children who spoke Vietnamese as their first language showed no evidence that the development of the first language was a barrier to second language acquisition (Nguyen, 2001). These children also had better cognitive development and academic performance and more positive attitudes toward other ethnic cultures.

Ethnic Identity

Heritage language instruction also impacts positively on students' attitudes toward ethnic identity. In a survey of U.S. born Chinese-American and Korean-American students, it was found that those who adapted to the mainstream culture while maintaining their ethnic language and culture had higher academic achievement than those who wholly adopted mainstream cultures. Another Canadian study showed the positive effect of ethnic language learning on attitudes, including attitudes toward other ethnic groups (Tse, 1998, 1999, 2000).

The Jewish-American community has several reasons for teaching Yiddish to its youth. One is an attempt use Jewish cultural heritage to connect a rich and sometimes difficult past to future possibilities of Jewish life in America (Diner, Shandler & Wenger, 2000). American-Yiddish pedagogues, however, are confronted with the challenge of teaching Yiddish to children for whom the language might not seem to be self-evidently their own (Bass,1950. p.13). Many feel it is important to encourage an attachment to Yiddish, so that Jewish-American children will continue to identify with their own people.

Three themes emerged from the quantitative and qualitative data based upon the opinions of 148 university students studying their heritage language. The themes were as follows: (1) The students recognized the need for heritage language literacy at home and at school; (2) They noticed the relationship between heritage language and participation in the ethnic community; and (3) The students pointed out the relationship between language and identification with the homeland (Feuerverger, 1991).

Tse, in 2000, studied one stage of ethnic identity formation among a group of Americans of Asian descent in the United States and its affects on attitudes toward their own heritage language. She also published narratives to discover whether feelings of ambivalence and evasion experienced by this population toward their ethnicity extended to the heritage language, and if so, how these feelings affect language beliefs and behaviors.

Cho, also in 2000, studied the role of heritage language (HL) competence in social relationships among 114 Korean-American second-generation language minorities. It was noted that HL speakers had a stronger ethnic identity and a greater understanding and

knowledge of cultural values, ethics, and manners than HL nonspeakers. In addition, HL competence provided professional advantages and participation in the HL community.

The formation and transformation of ethnicity in a group of second-generation Korean-American students through their participation in Korean language classes was studied by Jo (2001). Here, an ethnographic study was carried out at the University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign, where most Korean language courses were populated by second-generation Korean Americans.

Instructional Strategies Applied in Language Classroom

Recent research has been conducted on successful language learning. The “silent” classrooms of yesterday are no longer appropriate for today’s educational needs. Students require an interactive learning environment rich in oral language. Consequently, a new curriculum with new teaching strategies is needed to meet this challenge (Adger, 1995). This section deals with instructional strategies that have been effective in language classrooms.

For this study, I looked at two frameworks for effective second language instruction. The first is from Shrum & Glisma’s (2000) *Teacher’s Handbook for Second Language Classroom*. The second is Friedman & Fischer’s *Handbook of Effective Instructional Strategies* (1998).

Teacher’s Handbook for Second Language Classroom (Shrum & Glisma, 2000)

Shrum and Glisma (2000) described a variety of strategies that may be used in elementary school second language teaching. They can also be adapted and used effectively for secondary students. These strategies include: (1) Helping students link

language and content; (2) Listening as an impetus for learning; (3) Cooperative learning strategies; and (4) Learning through culture.

1. Using Graphic Organizers to Link Language and Content

Graphic organizers, such as semantic maps, Venn diagrams, and thematic webs, can be effective means of helping students organize subject-content topics and concepts (Shrum & Glisan, 2000). They can also be helpful in language learning situations.

a) Semantic maps: Semantic maps depict words or concepts in categories and show how they relate to each other. This visual representation of words or concepts helps the students organize what they are learning and allows them to see how it fits in with the language and information previously learned (Curtain & Pesola, 1994).

b) Venn diagrams: Diagrams consisting of two or more intersecting circles that depict relationships between concepts and are used for making comparisons and contrasts.

c) Thematic web: This is a technique for organizing instruction around a central theme. It enables the planner to extend the theme in various directions and flesh out the topic in meaningful categories (Pappas, Kiefer, & Levstik, 1990). This technique presents the subject domain in its entirety, and this may be the best way for students to learn (Keith, 1993).

2. Listening as the Impetus for Learning

Students begin to acquire language through listening (Krashen, 2000; Shrum & Glisan, 2000). As shown by Postovsky (1974) and Winitz and Reeds (1973), there are many benefits to providing an initial period of instruction in which students listen to input without being forced to respond in the target language. During this period, students are

asked to demonstrate understanding by responding physically to oral commands through the use of a technique called Total Physical Response (TPR). The students are also taught to give simple yes-no answers, choose the correct word, or manipulate visuals while listening to input. Gradually, the students progress to productive use of the language. By allowing the students to first mentally associate input with meaning, this “comprehension before production” stage instills the self-confidence necessary for producing language (Terrell, 1986).

A child’s language development can be enhanced by songs, bedtime stories, expansion of meanings, and learning new words (Foster-Cohen, 1999). As suggested by Foster-Cohen (1999), the ways families can promote bilingualism include reading predictable books with recurring lines or rhyming in the new or native language; speaking both languages at home; providing the child with books in both languages; praising the child for all language efforts; having the child attend ethnic schools to teach reading and writing in the native language; and listening to music, radio, or television in the new and/or native language.

Children’s stories can be used to provide an integrated-skills approach to acquisition during the “comprehension before production” stage. The teacher initially tells the story a number of times and incorporates pictures, gestures, and mime to demonstrate meaning. After students hear the story numerous times, they are asked to act out the story using TPR. Story mapping thus helps students to understand and recall the central theme and main components of a story setting, problem, characters, events, solution, or ending (Heimlich & Pittelman, 1986).

The language experience chart approach has been used with success by many kinds of students. This technique is particularly helpful to language learners who benefit from the progression of listening and speaking (while experiencing) to reading and writing (while concentrating on literacy). The context is an experience that is shared by the class such as a field trip, story, film, or cultural experience (Dixon & Nessel, 1983).

3. Cooperative Learning Strategies

Language learning can be enlivened through activities which involve doing, making, creating, building, and dramatizing (Shrum & Glisan, 2000). Learners should have frequent opportunities to work together in pairs or in small groups. Opportunities for using the target language can be significantly increased when cooperative learning is used (Shrum & Glisan, 2000). Gibbs (1995) discovered the best learning environment occurred when teachers provided cooperative learning opportunities. Gibbs' cooperative learning environment is called "Tribes". Here, cooperation is better than competition for the betterment of the whole group.

With the "Tribes" strategy, students are allowed to interact with one another in pairs and small groups to accomplish tasks. Cooperative learning is most successful when students depend on one another, participate in face-to-face interaction, take responsibility for the skills being learned by the group, use appropriate social skills (such as following directions, asking for help, and taking turns), and analyze what is working and not working in the group activity (Johnson & Johnson, 1987). As shown by Johnson and Johnson (1987), the benefits of cooperative learning include higher retention and achievement; development of interpersonal skills and responsibility; and heightened self-esteem and creativity.

As reported by Lewin (2000) in a study of two classes in French as a second language (FSL), the use of a collaborative learning technique significantly improved students' use of oral 'yes-no' questions, and 'yes-no-and-why' questions. It was recommended that university FSL courses integrate collaborative learning to benefit all students.

Additionally, in 1992, Hertz-Lazarovits & Miller concluded that working in pairs or groups tends to assist in overcoming fears about using an unfamiliar language. Motivation can also be improved by cooperative learning. In 1999, Diaz's study investigated teaching techniques in Spanish students and showed that cooperative learning improved student's motivation and performance in a dual-language classroom. Activities that can be used to enhance cooperative learning include the use of games, songs, rhymes, finger plays, role-plays, demonstrations, and chalkboard activities (Curtain & Pesola, 1994; Lipton, 1998).

According to Friedman and Fisher (1998):

Instructing students on teamwork and having students work on task performance in teams seems to be advantageous when the learning objective is team achievement. To be successful in the modern world, students must be able to work as team members to achieve team goals and objectives. (p.143)

Slavin (1995) conducted a study on a number of subject areas including reading, language arts, mathematics, social studies and the sciences for grades 1-12, and found that group achievement was higher for teamwork instruction compared to more traditional methods.

The tactics used when teamwork instruction is utilized are: (a) diagnosing students' readiness; (b) establishing four- to five-member teams; (c) engaging members in team-building exercises; (d) utilizing whole group instruction; (e) engaging members in brainstorming activities; (f) providing assistance as needed; (g) evaluating both individual and team performance; and (h) recognizing team improvement (Friedman & Fisher 1998).

4. Learning Through Culture

Culture learning can be viewed as a developmental process in which "learners progress from an ethnocentric view of the world to one in which they acknowledge the existence of different cultural perspectives" (Paige, 1993, p. 89). Students learn to accept cultural differences and perhaps even integrate them into their own worldview.

The "Color Purple" Theory was developed as a model for understanding the cultural learning process in second culture acquisition (Robinson-Stuart & Nocon, 1996). Robinson described each culture's unique perspective on the world as a "cultural lens." He also affirmed the pervasiveness of second culture acquisition. According to this theory, a person becomes "aware of one's own cultural lens (e.g., blue) through the recognition that a person from another culture has a different lens (e.g., red). Neither person can escape his or her own cultural lens, but each can choose to overlap lenses (e.g., purple) in order to understand better the other's perspectives and arrive at shared meaning" (p. 38).

Studying the culture of the target language can be used to enhance the curriculum of language learning. Children benefit from the development of cognitive, communicative, motivational, and social-emotional skills. As Pesola suggested in 1991, students explore cultural perspectives through the study of cultural products and cultural

practices. The study of cultural products includes the use of traditional stories and legends, folk art, visual arts and artists, musical art and composers, and collectibles such as currency, coins, and stamps.

Learning through culture incorporates cultural practices, forms of greetings, use of gestures, recreational activities and home and school life. The teaching of thematic units, such as “Nutrition” or “Holidays,” also provides the opportunity to present visual material that show certain characteristics of the target culture. Students are encouraged to use photographs, magazine pictures, and collectibles obtained from the target culture as these are rich in cultural information.

Curtain and Pesola (1994) showed that students can gain a deeper awareness of the target culture by allowing them to role-play authentic situations or participate in “fantasy experiences.” For example, instructors describe an airplane fantasy experience in which children pretend they are taking a trip, acting out each phase from checking in their baggage, finding their seats to the landing of the airplane. Connecting language and culture provides many opportunities for students to learn about the culture through contextualized instruction and meaningful interaction.

The process of learning to understand one's own and other cultural viewpoints often challenges the learners' sense of self, their cultural identity, and their worldview. As a result, they may experience lasting changes in self-concept, attitudes and behavior, which ideally result in greater openness toward individuals of other cultures and an increased desire to interact with them (Paige, 1993; Robert, Byram, Barro, Jordan & Street, 2001; Robinson-Stuart & Nocon, 1996). This increased self-awareness, with the

accompanying changes in attitude and behavior toward others, is perhaps the most compelling reason for culture learning.

Children's literature from countries where the target language is spoken is an excellent source for story texts and provides another avenue for integrating culture into the program. In addition to helping students experience culture, authentic literature can serve as the foundation for a whole-language curriculum (Egan, 1979).

Pesola (1991) suggests the use of folktales and contemporary children's literature in the elementary school classroom. Folktales—which present cultural information and describe solutions to human challenges—make effective stories since they come from a culture's oral tradition. Contemporary children's literature lets young students identify with the feelings and moral challenges story characters face (Pesola, 1991).

Handbook on Effective Instructional Strategies (Friedman & Fischer, 1998)

The following selected five strategies from Friedman and Fischer's (1998) *Handbook on Effective Instructional Strategies* have been shown to be effective in language acquisition classrooms. These strategies include: (1) Taking student readiness into account; (2) Defining instructional expectations; (3) Utilizing repetition effectively; (4) Providing reminders instruction; and (5) Providing ample teaching time.

1. Taking Student Readiness Into Account

Readiness is defined as student knowledge, skills, and dispositions necessary to perform a task. To achieve learning objectives, readiness characteristics of students must be taken into account while planning instruction (Friedman & Fisher, 1998, p. 5).

Studies have shown that achievement of learning objectives is enhanced when students possess the readiness capabilities necessary (Kulik, Kulik, & Bangert-Drowns, 1990a; Rosenshine & Stevens, 1986; Slavin, 1990; Willett, Yamashita & Anderson, 1983). Anderson (1994) conducted a meta-analysis on readiness in reading instruction for children and adult students and found positive achievement gains associated with mastery learning in 64-93 percent of the studies reviewed. In a study of Spanish language achievement in Grade 9 students, Obando and Hymel (1991) found achievement was significantly higher for students who benefited from these tactics, on unit exams and the National Spanish Examination, as compared to students who did not.

Achievement in areas like second languages, history, English, reading, etc., is enhanced when student readiness is taken into consideration in the planning, teaching, assigning, and evaluating performances of tasks. In utilizing this strategy, the following tactics are used: (a) Planning: teachers sequence tasks according to their level of difficulty and students' level of development; (b) Evaluation: teachers accurately evaluate students' current knowledge and skills before assigning tasks; (c) Assigning Tasks: in assigning tasks, the knowledge and skills of the students must be sufficient to meet the demands of the tasks; and (d) Teaching: a mastery level of performance should be attained for each task.

2. Defining Instructional Expectations

Student achievement in learning objectives is enhanced when, prior to instruction: (1) learning objectives are defined for students, (2) procedures to be used in the performance of tasks to achieve the objectives are identified, (3) student outcomes

designating achievement of the objectives are defined (Friedman & Fisher, 1998; Kulik et al., 1990a; Slavin, 1990; Rosenshine & Stevens, 1986; Willent, Yamashita & Anderson, 1983).

There is evidence to support the need to define instructional expectations prior to instruction and student performance of tasks. In utilizing this strategy, the teacher defines the following: (a) learning objectives; (b) possible student performance samples and/or products; and finally (c) performance criteria.

3. Utilizing Repetition Effectively

Even though many believe that “Practice makes perfect,” educators, especially those who believe in an authentic approach to literacy and language learning, are challenged when it comes to using repetition in instructional contexts (Friedman & Fisher, 1998). Two modes of repetition enhance learning: (1) the repeated presentation of to-be-learned information to students enhances their learning of the information; and (2) students’ repetition of assigned tasks or student practice enhances their learning of the tasks (p. 67).

Rosenshine and Stevens (1986) conducted studies on mathematics, English, science, history, and reading achievement in elementary, secondary, and post-secondary students. They found that teachers of high-achieving classes provided their students with substantial opportunities for practice and review. An important finding was that frequency of practice and review enhanced student achievement. In a study of mathematics achievement for college students, instructional tactics associated with repetition were found to be positively and significantly related to learner achievement (Hines et al., 1985). To enhance students’ learning achievement when utilizing this

strategy, teachers engaged in a number of instructional practices. For example, to-be-learned material was: (a) repeatedly presented to students; (b) repeated or practiced by students; (c) repeated using variations to eliminate boredom; and (d) frequently tested.

4. Providing Reminders Instruction

According to Friedman and Fisher, 1998, the use of reminders is a common practice:

In education there is a continuing need for students to recall words and factual information that must be committed to memory. The use of reminders would seem to be a viable tool when properly used in the appropriate situation to facilitate students remembering (Friedman & Fisher, 1998, p.100).

There is evidence indicating that teaching students how to use reminders enhances achievement in elementary, secondary, college, and adult education settings.

Burke (2003) studied English, second language, physical and life sciences, spelling, and mathematics recall in elementary, secondary, college and adult education. The study found that when reminders were used they have been shown to, at least, double the amount of information retained by regular student.

In a study of English, science, social studies, and mathematics achievement and retention to students of all ages, instructional reminders have been found to enhance recall and integration of previously learned information for the purposes of problem solving (Carney, Levin & Levin, 1993). Also, in a study of English, second-language vocabulary, reading, and other subjects, in students ranging from young children to college-age adults and the elderly, it was noted that the use of these tactics enhanced

recall of to-be-learned information, recall of information to be used in novel problem solving situations, and for complex hierarchical concept classification (Carney, Levin & Levin, 1993).

Instructional tactics to be used when the focus of instruction is English, second language vocabulary instruction, or other more complex learning situations are as follows:

(a) The to-be-learned word is presented to the student along with a keyword that rhymes with the to-be-learned word; (b) The student uses the sound of the to-be-learned word to recall the rhymed keyword; (c) The student forms a mental image that includes the meaning of the keyword and the meaning of the to-be-learned word; and (d) The student provides the answer.

5. Providing Ample Teaching Time

According to Friedman and Fisher (1998, p.198):

The more guidance and facilitation students receive, the more likely they are to achieve the learning objectives. When students receive more guidance and facilitation, they are more likely to perform assigned tasks correctly and to achieve the learning objective. Leaving them to their own devices in the performance of learning tasks may lead to incorrect or diminished performance as a result of lack of understanding or the temptation to engage in off-task behavior.

Brophy & Good (1986) researched English, reading and mathematics achievement in a total of 63 elementary and secondary students by enhancing teaching time. They found that students who spent most of their time being taught by their teachers, and less of their time engaged in games, group sharing, or socializing, experienced greater gains in achievement.

Anderson (1994) looked at student achievement in elementary and secondary students by using more teaching time in the class. The finding showed that teaching time is positively related to student achievement. The difference between allocated time for teaching and actual teaching time was 25 percent for high-achieving schools and 50 percent for low-achieving schools.

In order to provide ample teaching time, teachers are encouraged to: (a) operate their classrooms as learning environments and spend most of their time on teacher-directed academic activities; (b) minimize or avoid assigning students to independent activities, such as silent reading, written assignments, and independent task performance; (c) avoid assigning students “busy work” or other activities designed to “kill time”; (d) devote time available for teaching and not to getting organized; (e) avoid nonacademic student activities, such as group sharing, socializing, arts and crafts, music, and dance, during the teaching of academic subjects; and (f) avoid administrative intrusions into scheduled teaching time except in the case of emergencies.

Summary

The adoption of Chinese children by American parents has become increasingly prevalent. Many Chinese language schools now enroll both ABC and non-ABC children. Consequently, the increase in the two groups results in the need to reform Chinese language schools to preserve the language and culture in those children more effectively.

Heritage language is seen as a valuable resource but, regrettably, children of Chinese descent often do not realize this until it is too late. Learning motivation, language acquisition, and ethnic identity have been found to be variables that are important in language learning. There is currently no literature that explores the differences in these

variables between ABC and non-ABC children. In addition, little research has been done to identify teaching strategies that improve Chinese language learning. To facilitate language learning in Chinese language schools, it is important to identify these differences and incorporate good teaching strategies in the development of new curricula.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This study was designed to investigate the differences between ABC and non-ABC children on language learning motivation, language acquisition, and ethnic identity. The study also explored the relationship between the various instructional strategies used by teachers in Chinese language schools, and the three dependent variables (language learning motivation, language acquisition, and ethnic identity).

This chapter describes the research design, research questions, sample and population, instruments, procedures, and data analysis used in this study.

Research Questions

This study was designed to answer the following four research questions:

Question 1: What are the differences between American-born Chinese children (ABC) and adopted Chinese children (non-ABC) regarding language-learning motivation?

Question 2: What are the differences between American-born Chinese children (ABC) and adopted Chinese children (non-ABC) regarding language acquisition?

Question 3: What are the differences between American-born Chinese children (ABC) and adopted Chinese children (non-ABC) regarding ethnic identity?

Question 4: What are the relationships among the nine teaching categories used in Chinese language schools and second language learning motivation, second language acquisition, and ethnic identity?

Research Design

A quantitative correlation study is defined by Gall, Borg, and Gall (1996) as “a type of investigation that seeks to discover the direction and magnitude of the relationships among variables through the use of correlation statistics” (p.409).

This study used a comparative and correlational, non-experimental design with no purposeful manipulation. The two independent variables in this study included whether students were ABC or non-ABC, and the kinds of teaching strategies used by teachers in Chinese language schools. The three dependent variables in this study were language learning motivation, language acquisition, and ethnic identity.

The two groups of ABC and non-ABC students were considered equivalent. Traditionally, Chinese language schools only enroll students who were ages 5 and older. However, due to the existence of a small but increasing population of young non-ABC students, most of the Chinese language schools now include these almost 5-year-old non-ABC students (e.g., 4 year and 11 month) in the beginning class to study alongside ABC students. Beginning classes feature enjoyable, interactive and cultural activities like folk dance, games and oral recitation. Lecturing, language learning and writing take place primarily in the intermediate and advanced classes.

Population and Sample

The target population for this study was the ABC and non-ABC children enrolled in Chinese language schools located on the East Coast. Only schools located in Maryland, Washington, DC, and Virginia were sampled. There were approximately 3,700 children enrolled in Chinese language schools located in these three areas. The sample of 31 schools consisted of mixed classrooms containing both ABC and non-ABC children.

Due to the limited number of schools, all schools were selected. There were 6 to 15 students in each of the mixed classrooms. Demographic information collected from Chinese schools' enrollment policies indicated that the children's ages ranged from 5 to 15 years. There were 31 Chinese language teachers from the selected 31 mixed classrooms. Studies showed that most of these Chinese language teachers were parent volunteers without formal backgrounds in education (Chao, 1997; Chen, 1997).

Instrumentation

The validity and reliability of mini-AMTB (learning motivation), Grading Report Card (language acquisition), Ethnic Identity Questionnaire (ethnic identity) and Teaching Strategies Assessment (teaching strategies) were supported by reviewing the literature. A pilot study was conducted at the Tidewater Chinese School located in Norfolk, Virginia, to help establish content validity and the reliability of the instruments. Cronbach's alpha was calculated using a total of 13 students. There were five non-ABC and eight ABC students. Only two non-ABC students were under age 5. One student was 4 years and 11 months; the other was 4 years and 9 months. The remainder of the ABC and non-ABC students were between the ages of 5 and 6 in the beginning classroom. Fifteen Chinese language teachers participated in the pilot study as well. Although the number of students and teachers was very low, the results were encouraging. After piloting, the reliability analysis revealed a Cronbach's alpha of .93, indicating internal consistency. The 13 students and 15 teachers uniformly reported that they understood the questions and had no difficulty responding to the questionnaire items. This suggests that the questionnaires were clear and unambiguous.

Student Background Survey

This survey was designed by the researcher to collect demographic data that included age, gender, country of origin, and mother language. The student background questionnaire is included in Appendix A.

Mini-Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (mini-AMTB)

The questionnaire was carefully selected to be relevant to this study because a survey of this nature has never been conducted on ABC and non-ABC children. The mini-AMTB was purposefully developed to measure young children's learning motivation and language acquisition. The mini-AMTB for children, which maintains the same conceptual structure of the original version, is more suitable for young children since the items are less difficult to process, and the entire test can be completed in a short period of time.

Sixteen items were developed by Gardner (1985) which provided an English version of the attributes measured by the test battery (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993). The original questionnaire contained 16 items followed by a 7-point rating scale ranging from a negative to positive option. The rating scale was modified by changing the 7-point scale to a 3-point scale. The response options were "Yes," "Maybe or sometimes," and "No." The response options were simplified in consideration for the young age of some of the students involved. The other modification was that one of the 16 items, "I feel comfortable when my teacher uses a monitor in the class," was not used because there are no monitors in Chinese language schools.

Attitudes toward the learning situation refers to the students' reaction to formal instruction. The items assessing it included attitude toward Chinese language school and

students' desire to return to the program. Motivation reflects the students' attitudes, aspirations, and effort with respect to learning the second language, and items include desire to learn Chinese, to participate in the program, and attitude toward learning Chinese. Integrativeness assesses the student's disposition and interest in social interaction with members of other groups. Items assessing the disposition included interest in foreign languages and desire to live in a Chinese-speaking country. Language anxiety refers to apprehension experienced by the individual in the language class or in any situation in which the language is used. The items assessing it included language class anxiety and language use anxiety. Additional variables were included based on the degree to which participants adopt pragmatic reasons for learning Chinese and the degree to which individuals are encouraged by their parents to learn and study Chinese. The 15 items used in the mini-AMTB are listed in Appendix B.

Gardner and MacIntyre reported (1993) that each scale has been found repeatedly to exceed the median reliability coefficient of .82. Tennant and Gardner (1999) reported relatively high test-retest correlations ranging from 0.75 for integrativeness to 0.89 for motivation, and 0.83 and 0.85 for attitude toward the learning situation and anxiety, respectively.

The Grading Report Card (GRC)

The GRC assessed nine different skills: listening, speaking, reading, writing, homework, conduct, tests, overall performance and attendance. The report used a grading scale of: A = 91-100, B = 81-90, C = 71-80, N = 61-70. The GRC used in this study was adapted from the Tidewater Chinese School located in Norfolk, Virginia. Copies of this report card were given to 31 teachers for the evaluation of all ABC and non-ABC

children enrolled in the selected 31 mixed classrooms. A complete report card is included in Appendix C.

The measure of language acquisition had very high reliability. Cronbach's alpha was calculated using a total of 13 students in the beginning classroom. After piloting, the analysis revealed a Cronbach's alpha of .93, indicating internal consistency.

Ethnic Identity Questionnaires (EIQ)

The EIQ contains eight items and was modified from the AMTB instrument which was developed by Gardner and Tremblay (1994a) in the study of French-American students' approaches to the study of French (ethnic identity section).

Each item is followed by a 7-point rating scale ranging from negative to positive options. In consideration of the young age of some of the children involved, the responses for this study's mini-AMTB were adapted to a 3-point rating scale consisting of "Yes," "Maybe," and "No." In this study, students were asked to respond to eight items asking about their desire to have more experiences with Chinese people and culture in various situations outside school. High scores indicate a strong desire to identify with the Chinese cultural tradition.

Some of the items used to assess ethnic identity include: "Do you think there should be a Chinese TV channel in your district?" "Do you often think of yourself as being a Chinese person, or a person of Chinese ancestry?" and "Are most of your close friends Chinese or English-speaking?" A complete list of all eight items used in the Identity Questionnaire is included in Appendix D.

The AMTB has been shown to be reliable and valid in many investigations (Gardner, 1985). This instrument has been in use since the 1980s and has been tested for

reliability and validity in a number of studies (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Gardner, Masgoret & Tremblay, 1999). Because the ethnic identity survey instrument was modified by the researcher for this study, the reliability of the instrumentation was retested. Cronbach's alpha was calculated using a total of 13 students in the beginning classroom. After piloting, Cronbach's alpha was computed to be .80, indicating internal consistency.

Teaching Strategies Assessment (TSA)

The TSA was designed by the researcher. It consisted of 45 items concerning preferences for instructional activities. The items were grouped into nine teaching categories: (1) helping students link language and content; (2) listening as the impetus for learning; (3) cooperative learning; (4) learning through culture; (5) taking students' readiness into account; (6) defining instructional expectations; (7) utilizing repetition effectively; (8) providing reminders instruction; and (9) providing ample teaching time. The response options for these questionnaire items consist of a 4-point rating scale ranging from "Always," "Most of the time," to "Sometimes," and "Never."

The blueprint for this questionnaire was developed based on reviewing the literature on teaching strategies in second language classrooms to guide questionnaire items development. To further support its validity, the blueprint and questionnaire were reviewed by a content expert.

To establish the measurement reliability of the instruments, Cronbach's alpha was calculated using 15 teachers. The internal consistencies for each teaching category determined using Cronbach's alpha are as follows: "Linking Language and Content" = .82; "Listening as the Impetus for Learning" = .83; "Cooperative Learning Strategies"

= .89; “Learning Through Culture” = .93; “Taking Students’ Readiness Into Account” = .87; “Defining Instructional Expectations Prior to Lessons” = .93; “Utilizing Repetition” = .86; “Providing Reminders Instruction” = .88; and “Providing Ample Teaching Time” = .80.

The nine subtests of the TSA are briefly described:

1. Linking Language and Content

This subscale assessed the use of teaching methods that help students organize subject-content topics and concepts. This is assessed using items such as “It is important to help my students to understand the subject-content topics and concepts,” and “I encourage my students to practice using different words in writing and speaking.”

2. Listening as the Impetus for Learning

This subtest measured whether teachers used listening to help students acquire language. This was assessed using items such as “Listening should be an important focus in this class,” and “I encourage my students to watch Chinese news, and listen to Chinese radio and music.”

3. Cooperative Learning Strategies

The subtest reflected the attitude toward and the quality of cooperative classroom work. It included items such as “I assign my students to work together in pairs or small groups in language learning activities,” and “Group work is an effective way of teaching language skills.”

4. Learning Through Culture

The subtest assessed the use of authentic native Chinese culture in teaching Chinese language. This was assessed using items such as “I encourage students to

participate in Chinese cultural activities,” and “It is important for students to learn about Chinese culture.”

5. Taking Students’ Readiness Into Account

The subtest assessed student knowledge, skills, and dispositions necessary to perform a task while planning instruction. This was assessed using items such as “I have an accurate diagnosis of the students’ current level of knowledge in relation to that required for the material to be learned,” and “I divide the materials to be learned into units with each unit providing prerequisite skills for subsequent units.”

6. Defining Instructional Expectations Prior to Lessons

The learning objective was enhanced prior to instruction. This was assessed using items such as “I begin a lesson with a short statement of goals and objectives,” and “I define what the students are expected to learn.”

7. Utilizing Repetition

This subtest examined the use of repetition in the classroom. This was assessed using items such as “I repeatedly present to students information to be learned,” and “I regularly give tests and quizzes.”

8. Providing Reminders Instruction

The providing reminders instruction strategy enhances recall of to-be-learned information and complex hierarchal concept classification. It was assessed in this subtest on items such as “I provide instructions on memory strategies to enhance recall of information to be learned,” and “I teach the students to recode unfamiliar information into familiar terms.”

9. Providing Ample Teaching Time

Students are more likely to achieve required learning objectives when they receive sufficient guidance and facilitation from their teachers. Providing ample teaching time was assessed by using items such as “I spend most of the time on teacher-directed academic activities,” and “I avoid or minimize nonacademic student activities such as socializing.”

A complete list of all 45 items were organized into nine teaching categories is included in Appendix E. The blueprint is also included in Appendix F.

Procedure

Both teachers and students from 31 mixed classrooms in participating Chinese language schools located in Maryland, Washington, DC, and Virginia received consent and cover letters describing the study at the end of a semester. Schools were given an address to contact the researcher with any questions. The importance of confidentiality was addressed. All of the Chinese language schools selected were enthusiastic and gave full support to this study. Sample students’ and teachers’ questionnaire packets were mailed to the school principals for approval and school records before the study was conducted. Principals and school administrators were contacted by phone and email to ensure they understood the study and survey questions. Trained researchers and parents helped students complete the surveys. The researcher also participated during the administration of the surveys.

The survey packets contained: a cover letter describing the study; a lottery/consent form; a background survey; a language learning motivation questionnaire (mini-AMTB); language acquisition (Grading Report Card); ethnic identity (Ethnic

Identity Questionnaire); and teaching strategies (Teaching Strategies Assessment) were supported by reviewing the literature. The packets were identical with the exception of the cover letters. The cover letters identified the teachers' classroom to allow for matching of the teachers' questionnaires with corresponding students' questionnaires. A cover letter and a lottery/consent form are included in Appendices G and H.

The researcher and/or trained survey administrator distributed surveys for both students and teachers. All ABC and non-ABC children and teachers in the 31 mixed classrooms participated in the survey and were asked to complete the questionnaires during the time allotted. Completed questionnaires were collected as soon as they were completed.

The student and teacher surveys were collected at the same time. To obtain valid results, the study was designed to afford all respondents complete confidentiality, and the student and teacher surveys were identified and matched by numbers. In order to encourage teacher and student participation, rewards were provided by raffling off three McDonald's gift certificates in each classroom. The certificates were worth one, two and three dollars. Soft drinks were provided for everyone after the questionnaires were finished.

Data Analysis

This section describes the data analysis for each of the four research questions addressed in the current study. A significance level of 0.05 was used as a standard for all statistical tests.

In this study, multivariate analysis (MANOVA) was used to address the first 3 research questions combined. The analyses determined whether there were any main

effects or interactions for the two types of children (ABC and non ABC) on any of the dependent measures: learning motivation, language acquisition, and ethnic identity.

A follow-up analysis of variance (ANOVA) directly addressed the first, second and third research questions about potential differences between ABC and non-ABC on each of the three dependent variables (language learning motivation, language acquisition, and ethnic identity), separately.

Multiple Regressions were used to address the fourth research question, which explored the relationships among nine teaching categories and students' learning motivation, language acquisition and ethnic identity and combinations of these variables (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996). More specifically, multiple regression was used to determine the correlation between criterion variables (language learning motivation, second language acquisition, and ethnic identity) and the predictor variables of the nine teaching categories: (1) helping students link language and content; (2) listening as the impetus for learning; (3) cooperative learning; (4) learning through culture; (5) taking students' readiness into account; (6) defining instructional expectations; (7) utilizing repetition effectively; (8) providing reminders instruction; and (9) providing ample teaching time.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to examine the differences between American-born (ABC) and adopted (non-ABC) Chinese children in language learning motivation, language acquisition and ethnic identity. Additionally, this study addressed the impact of instructional strategies on the students' overall language learning motivation, language acquisition and ethnic identity. The data collected for this study are reported and analyzed in this chapter.

This chapter is divided into the following sections: (a) a descriptive data profile of the ABC and non-ABC students; (b) test reliability; (c) statistical data analyses for each research question; and (d) summary.

The following research hypotheses are addressed:

1. There are differences between American-born Chinese children (ABC) and adopted Chinese children (non-ABC) regarding language-learning motivation.
2. There are differences between American-born Chinese children (ABC) and adopted Chinese children (non-ABC) regarding language acquisition.
3. There are differences between American-born Chinese children (ABC) and adopted Chinese children (non-ABC) regarding ethnic identity.
4. There are the relationships among the nine teaching categories used in Chinese language schools and second language learning motivation, second language acquisition, and ethnic identity.

Descriptive Data Profile of ABC and non-ABC Students

A total of 252 completed student surveys were returned and analyzed. Of this total, 182 were completed by ABC students, 70 were completed by non-ABC students. A total of 31 teachers completed the nice teaching categories surveys.

Differing Students' Backgrounds: Age, Gender and Language

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics for student background. The two groups differed greatly when it came to age, gender and linguistic background. Eighty-six percent of the ABC students were between the ages of 5 and 7 years old. However, 90 percent of the non-ABC students were under 5 years of age. The percentage of students by gender also differed greatly between the two groups. For example, 66 percent of the ABC group was female while 100 percent of the non-ABC group was female. There were no males in the non-ABC group. The first language for 91 percent of the ABC students was Chinese. The first language for 97 percent of the non-ABC students was English. Eighty-five percent of the ABC students primarily spoke English to their parents; 100 percent of the non-ABC students primarily spoke English to their parents. Ninety-eight percent of the ABC and 100 percent of the non-ABC students spoke mostly English to their friends. Eighty-one percent of the ABC students and 3 percent of the non-ABC students had studied Chinese for 3-6 years. By contrast, 97 percent of non-ABC students had studied Chinese for less than two years. The percentage distribution of students' backgrounds is presented in Table 1.

In a very important sense, the data showed that the population could be clearly delineated into two completely different groups. One group, non-ABC, was completely female, overwhelmingly young (under age 5), and English-speaking. The other group,

ABC, was a mix of male and female, older (5 to 7 years of age), and with predominantly Chinese-speaking language backgrounds. The implications of this on the data will be discussed in depth in Chapter 5.

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics of Students' Backgrounds

	<u>ABC</u> (n=182)	<u>Non-ABC</u> (n=70)
Age:		
Younger than 5	13.2%	90.0%
5-7	86.3%	8.6%
8-12	0.5%	1.4%
Sex:		
Male	34.1%	0%
Female	65.9%	100%
First (mother tongue) language:		
Chinese	91.2%	2.9%
English	3.8%	97.1%
Cantonese	4.9%	0%
Language parents mostly speak at home:		
Chinese	87.4%	1.4%
English	7.1%	98.6%
Cantonese	5.5%	0%
Language mostly spoken with your parents:		
Chinese	13.7%	0%
English	85.2%	100%
Cantonese	1.1%	0%
Language mostly spoken with your friends:		
Chinese	1.6%	0%
English	98.4%	100%
Cantonese	0%	0%
Birthplace:		
America	98.9%	0%
China	1.1%	100%
Years of studying Chinese:		
Less than 2 years	18.7%	97.1%
3-6 years	81.3%	2.9%
Parents are:		
Both Chinese	93.4%	1.4%
Both American	0.5%	88.6%
One is Chinese, one is American	6.0%	10%

Reliability Test of Instrumentation

The mini-Attitudes/Motivation Test Battery (mini-AMTB) was designed to measure students' language learning motivation; the students' Grading Report card (GRC) was designed and modified by the researcher to measure students' language acquisition; the Ethnic Identity Questionnaire was modified by the researcher to measure ethnic identity (EIQ); and the Teaching Strategies Assessment (TSA) was designed and modified by the researcher to measure teachers' instructional strategies used in Chinese language schools.

In order to estimate its reliability in this study, Cronbach's coefficient alpha was applied to the mini-AMTB, the Grading Report Card, the AMTB and the teachers' instructional strategies assessment. Assessment scores were obtained from the 252 ABC and non-ABC students and 31 teachers in mixed classrooms in Chinese language schools.

Although the sample size was very small, the pilot test data revealed reasonable reliability. All instruments' reliability and validity are detailed fully in Chapter 3. Because the sample size in the pilot study was small and some items were modified from the original version, Cronbach's alpha was computed and reported in Table 2.

Table 2**Reliability Coefficients for the Dependent Measures**

<u>Scale</u>	<u>Reliability</u>
Learning motivation (min-AMTB)	.83
Language acquisition (Grading Report Cards)	.84
Ethnic identity (AMTB)	.83
Teaching Strategies Assessment	
1. Linking Language and Content	.88
2. Listening as the Impetus for Learning	.85
3. Cooperative Learning Strategies	.87
4. Learning Through Culture	.88
5. Taking Students' Readiness Into Account	.85
6. Defining Instructional Expectations Prior to Lessons	.84
7. Utilizing Repetition	.84
8. Providing Reminders Instruction	.85
9. Providing Ample Teaching Time	.83

These findings provide evidence that these survey instruments (mini-AMTB, grading report card, AMTB and teaching strategies assessment) and each of their components have high internal consistencies and can be used reliably to measure the differences between ABC and non-ABC students and teaching strategies as well.

However, the high reliability coefficients may be somewhat artificially inflated due to the low variance in response or the small sample size of subjects in pilot data.

Results of Analyses for Research Questions

In order to address the four research questions, both descriptive and inferential statistics were used in the data analyses. Results were organized by research questions. MANOVA was first used to determine whether there were statistically significant differences among the three dependent variables for ABC and non-ABC students.

The results indicate that there is a significant difference between ABC and non-ABC in learning motivation. The first hypothesis, that there is a significant difference between ABC and non-ABC students regarding language learning motivation, was confirmed.

The results indicate that there is no significant difference between ABC and non-ABC as far as language acquisition. The second hypothesis, that there is a significant difference between ABC and non-ABC students regarding their acquisition of the Chinese language, was not upheld.

The results indicate that there is a significant difference between ABC and non-ABC in ethnic identification. The third hypothesis, that there exists a significant difference between ABC and non-ABC students regarding ethnic identity, was also confirmed.

MANOVA results for the three dependent variables are shown in Table 3.

Table 3
MANOVA on Dependent Variables

Variables	F	Sig.	ABC (n=182)		Non-ABC (n=70)	
			M	SD	M	SD
Learning motivation	47.18	.000	1.50	0.31	1.13	0.14
Language acquisition	3.03	.083	1.10	0.19	1.08	0.17
Ethnic identity	37.05	.000	1.56	0.50	1.41	0.25

ANOVA was also used to evaluate dependent variables since a significant MANOVA F was obtained.

Learning Motivation

Results for learning motivation revealed a significant difference for ABC and non-ABC students, $F(1,252) = 47.18, p < .01$. ABC students ($M = 1.50, SD = 0.31$) were more motivated in learning the Chinese language than non-ABC students ($M = 1.13, SD = 0.14$) according to their mini-AMTB scores. Results of overall mean scores for each language motivation item were broadly similar to one another except for two items. For example, of ABC 1.51 and of non-ABC students 1.06 don't worry about making mistakes; and of ABC 1.40 and of non-ABC students 1.03 will return to Chinese language school.

Descriptive statistics relating to the students' language learning motivation are shown in Table 4 and the overall mean scores are presented in Appendix I.

Table 4**Descriptive Statistics on Student Learning Motivation**

	N	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
ABC	182	1.50	0.31
Non-ABC	70	1.13	0.14

Language Acquisition

As reported earlier in this chapter, the MANOVA analysis results revealed no significant difference between ABC and non non-ABC students in language acquisition measures $F(1,252) = 3.03, p > .01$. The mean for the ABC students was ($\underline{M}=1.10, \underline{SD}=0.19$). The mean for non-ABC students was ($\underline{M}=1.08, \underline{SD}=0.17$). Even though there was no significant difference in language acquisition for the two groups, the ABC students, however had higher language acquisition scores than non-ABC students. They received slightly higher grades on the Grading Report Card.

The results of the overall mean scores for each language acquisition item were similar to one another. For example, ($M=1.04$) ABC and ($M=1.01$) non-ABC students on Homework and Test; and ($M=1.02$) ABC and ($M=1.03$) non-ABC on Overall Performance. Descriptive statistics relating to the students' language acquisition are shown in Table 5 and mean scores are referred to Appendix J.

Table 5**Descriptive Statistics on Student Language Acquisition Scores**

	N	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
ABC	182	1.10	0.19
Non-ABC	70	1.08	0.17

Ethnic Identity

Results for ethnic identity revealed a significant difference for ABC and non-ABC students, $F(1,252) = 37.05, p < .01$. ABC students ($M = 1.56, SD = 0.50$) had more positive ethnic identification than non-ABC students ($M = 1.41, SD = 0.25$) according to their AMTB scores. ABC students had more positive ethnic identity development than non-ABC students.

Results of the overall mean scores for each ethnic identity item were similar to one another. Except for ($M = 1.36$) ABC and ($M = 1.14$) non-ABC students think of themselves as Chinese people; and ($M = 1.36$) ABC and ($M = 1.14$) non-ABC want their children to grow up speaking Chinese. Descriptive statistics relating to the students' ethnic identity are shown in Table 6 and the overall mean scores are refer to Appendix K.

Table 6**Descriptive Statistics on Student Ethnic Identity Scores**

	N	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
ABC	182	1.56	0.50
Non-ABC	70	1.41	0.20

Using Nine Teaching Categories to Predict Scores on Dependent Variables

Hypothesis Four addresses the teachers' instructional strategies: There are relationships between the nine teaching categories used in Chinese language schools and the three dependent variables of second language learning motivation, second language acquisition, and ethnic identity.

Multiple regressions can be utilized to determine whether or not a relationship exists between variables. Multiple regressions were used to test hypothesis four since it explored whether the relationships were significant between one criterion variable and the nine teaching categories which are the predictor variables. The nine teaching categories are: (1) Helping Students Link Language and Content; (2) Listening as the Impetus for Learning; (3) Cooperative Learning, Learning through Culture; (4) Taking Students' Readiness into Account; (5) Defining Instructional Expectations; (6) Utilizing Repetition Effectively; (8) Providing Reminders Instruction; and (9) Providing Ample Teaching Time. These categories are further divided into 45 teaching strategies.

The results of hypothesis four are summarized in Tables 7, 8, 9 and 10. Table 7 displays the means of the nine teaching categories. Table 8 shows the relationship between learning motivation and the nine teaching categories. Table 9 shows the relationship between language acquisition and nine teaching categories and Table 10 shows the relationship between ethnic identity and the nine teaching categories.

Results of overall mean scores for 45 teaching strategies indicated "Listening should be an important focus in the class" ($M= 2.84$); "I give yes-no answers, choose the correct words, or manipulate visual aids while listening to inputs" ($M= 2.84$);

“It is important for me to have students describe in their own words after hearing a story” (M= 2.84); and “I use verbal repetition” (M= 2.8.) strategies were most used in the classroom. The overall means score is referred to in Appendix N.

Means of the Teaching Categories and Teaching Strategies

Table 7 indicates the means of the nine teaching categories applied in Chinese language schools. Table 7 shows that Helping Students Link Language and Content (M=13.39); Learning through Culture (M=13.03); and Providing Reminders Instruction (M=13.03) were most used in Chinese language schools. Cooperative Learning (M = 5.74) and Taking Students’ Readiness into Account (M = 6.03) were the least used categories.

Table 7

Mean Scores on Nine Teaching Categories

N=31	Mean
1. Helping Students Link Language and Content	13.39
2. Listening as the Impetus for Learning	12.71
3. Cooperative Learning	5.74
4. Learning through Culture	13.03
5. Taking Students’ Readiness into Account	6.03
6. Defining Instructional Expectations	8.26
7. Utilizing Repetition Effectively	12.45
8. Providing Reminders Instruction	13.03
9. Providing Ample Teaching Time	7.52

Standard multiple regression analyses were performed for each of the three dependent variables. The independent variables (the nine teaching categories) for each regression analysis included all measures of language learning motivation, language acquisition and ethnic identity.

The related descriptive statistics for the variables used in the multiple regression analyses are shown in Table 8.

Learning Motivation

The regression of nine teaching categories on learning motivation was significant ($r = 0.237, p < .05$). Therefore, the hypothesis that there is a relationship between the nine teaching categories and students' learning motivation was accepted.

Table 8 shows the results of the regression analysis of language motivation and the nine teaching categories used in Chinese language schools. Teaching Category 3, Cooperative Learning strategies ($p = .035$), was found to be significantly correlated to students' language motivation.

Table 8**Multiple Regressions With Learning Motivation and Nine Teaching Categories**

<u>Variable</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>SE</u>	<u>T</u>	<u>P</u>
(Constant)	1.189	0.344	3.455	.001
TC1 helping students link language and content	0.012	0.009	1.384	.168
TC2 listening as the impetus for learning	-0.023	0.015	-1.485	.139
TC3 cooperative learning	0.021	0.010	2.125	.035
TC4 learning through culture	0.010	0.014	0.751	.453
TC5 taking students' readiness into account	-0.008	0.011	-0.749	.455
TC6 defining instructional expectations	0.001	0.013	0.101	.920
TC7 utilizing repetition effectively	-0.008	0.008	-0.936	.350
TC8 providing reminders instruction	0.018	0.012	1.576	.116
TC9 providing ample teaching time.	-0.003	0.009	-0.369	.716

Language Acquisition

The regression of the nine teaching categories on language acquisition was significant ($r = 0.222$, $p < .05$). Therefore, the hypothesis that there is a relationship between the nine teaching categories and students' learning acquisition was accepted. The nine teaching categories contributed to the students' language acquisition.

Table 9 shows the results of the regression analysis of language acquisition and the nine teaching categories used in Chinese language schools. Teaching Category 8, Providing Reminders Instruction ($p = .046$), was found to be significantly correlated to students' language acquisition.

Table 9**Multiple Regressions for Language Acquisition and Nine Teaching Categories**

<u>Variable</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>SE</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>p</u>
(Constant)	1.160	0.196	5.905	.000
TC1 helping students link language and content	0.001	0.005	0.279	.780
TC2 listening as the impetus for learning	-0.006	0.009	-0.750	.454
TC3 cooperative learning	0.005	0.006	1.046	.296
TC4 learning through culture	-0.009	0.008	-1.204	.230
TC5 taking students' readiness into account	0.002	0.006	0.398	.691
TC6 defining instructional expectations	-0.006	0.008	-0.851	.395
TC7 utilizing repetition effectively	-0.007	0.005	-1.475	.142
TC8 providing reminders instruction	0.013	0.007	2.003	.046
TC9 providing ample teaching time	0.006	0.005	1.169	.243

The regression of the nine teaching categories on ethnic identity was significant ($r = 0.280$, $p < .05$). The hypothesis that there is a relationship between the nine teaching categories and students' ethnic identity was confirmed. The nine teaching categories contributed to the students' ethnic identity.

Table 10 indicates the results of the regression analyses of ethnic identity and the nine teaching categories. Teaching Category 4, Learning Through Culture ($p = .041$), and Teaching Category 7, Utilizing Repetition, significantly predicted ethnic identity ($p = .046$). The hypothesis that there is a relationship between the nine teaching categories

and ethnic identity is accepted. Teaching Chinese culture and using repetition strategies in Chinese language classrooms might enhance and produce higher ethnic identity.

Table 10

Multiple Regressions for Ethnic Identity and Nine Teaching Categories

<u>Variable</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>SE</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>p</u>
(Constant)	1.365	0.472	2.894	.004
TC1: helping students link language and content	0.004	0.013	0.357	.721
TC2: listening as the impetus for learning	0.021	0.021	1.004	.316
TC3: cooperative learning	0.001	0.013	0.742	.459
TC4: learning through culture	-0.039	0.190	-2.057	.041
TC5: taking students' readiness into account	0.026	0.014	1.786	.075
TC6: defining instructional expectations	-0.008	0.018	-0.456	.649
TC7: utilizing repetition effectively	-0.023	0.012	-2.010	.046
TC8: providing reminders instruction	0.023	0.016	1.478	.141
TC9: providing ample teaching time	0.023	0.012	1.876	.062

Summary

This chapter presented the findings of the statistical analyses of the data derived from the four instruments used in this study. Descriptive data were compiled and frequencies calculated. According to the results of ANOVA and regression analyses, significant differences between ABC and non-ABC students in language learning motivation and ethnic identity were found, but there was no significant difference in language acquisition. The nine teaching categories were correlated to students' language learning motivation, language acquisition and ethnic identity.

The results reported in Chapter 4 were used to address research question 1, which examined the differences between ABC and non-ABC students in language learning motivation; research question 2, which examined the differences between ABC and non-ABC students in language acquisition; research question 3, which examined the differences between ABC and non-ABC students in ethnic identity; and research question 4, which examined the most frequently used teaching categories in Chinese language schools and the relationship between the nine teaching categories and the three dependent variables.

It was found that there is a significant difference between the two groups in language learning motivation and ethnic identity, but no significant difference in language acquisition. There were connections between the nine teaching categories and language learning motivation, language acquisition and ethnic identity.

Again, some of these differences may be due to the different backgrounds of the ABC and non-ABC groups. This impact will be discussed in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This study focused on American-born (ABC) and adopted (non-ABC) Chinese students in mixed classroom settings in Chinese language schools. The purpose of the study was to examine the differences between ABC and non-ABC students in language learning motivation, language acquisition and ethnic identity. Also, the study explored whether there is a relationship between the nine teaching categories utilized in Chinese language schools and students' language learning motivation, language acquisition and ethnic identity. This chapter includes discussion, study limitations, and recommendations for further research and practice.

Students' Background

For the non-ABC group, the sample in this study was extremely young (under age 5) and totally female. Again, the demographic data confirms the literature on ethnic Chinese children in the United States. According to Tessler, Gamache and Liu (1999), the average age of children adopted from China was 2.1 years; the youngest were between 5 to 6 months, and the oldest were 7 years old. More than 97 percent were girls. The large number of baby girls in Chinese orphanages available for adoption is due to the Chinese parents' traditional preference for baby boys (Johnson, Huang & Wang, 1998; Reist, 1995).

Another important characteristic was language background. One hundred percent of the non-ABC children spoke English to their parents. Almost 100 percent of their parents were English-speaking. Even though the parents of the ABC students were predominantly Chinese-speaking (87 percent), their children spoke to them almost

entirely in English. Another important difference may also be due to the amount of time spent studying Chinese. Eighty-one percent of the ABC students had studied the Chinese language for 3-6 years, while 97 percent of the non-ABC students had studied for less than 2 years.

Language Learning Motivation

The first research question asked what were the differences between American-born Chinese (ABC) and adopted Chinese (non-ABC) children regarding second language learning motivation. It was discovered that there were significant differences between the two groups when it came to language learning motivation. Again, the differing demographic backgrounds of the two groups must be taken into consideration. On most items, the majority of the ABC students gave somewhat higher means than non-ABC students. For example, ABC students enjoyed the activities at the Chinese language schools. ABC students desired to learn more Chinese culture, and had a desire to return to Chinese language school. The only exception was item 13, both groups indicated that they were "Uncomfortable with Speaking Chinese."

The higher level of language learning motivation on the part of the ABC students may be due to the fact that they were older and consequently had been exposed to more Chinese language and culture. The ABC students had spent more time in both the Chinese language school and in the company of their parents. They were most likely interacting on a daily basis with parents of Chinese background. They had increased opportunities to associate with extended family members and friends of Chinese descent. This is not likely the case for non-ABC students.

Second-generation American-born Chinese children's perceptions of the Chinese language school were revealed as positive, as reflected by the high mean values in this study. However, these findings do contradict some of the literature. For example, according to Chiang (2000), most Chinese American children would rather be at home finishing up a science project than going to Chinese school. The children in Chiang's study disliked learning Chinese because it demanded a lot of time and effort and there were very few opportunities for them to use the language (Chiang, 2000).

There also exists literature that supports the findings regarding language learning motivation. For example, Cho, Cho & Tse (1997) and Portes & Hao (1998) discovered that most immigrant children, like the non-ABC children in the study, prefer English. According to these researchers, only a small number of these children remain or attain fluency or maintain in their heritage language. Among Asian-origin students, less than 10 percent retained their native-language fluency.

Crookes and Schmidt (1991) and Gardner and Tremblay's (1994) four motivational orientations, reason for learning, desire to attain the learning goal, positive attitude toward the learning situation, and effortful behavior, can be helpful in explaining how the two groups differed regarding language learning motivation. The results from the present study indicate that most of the non-ABC students preferred to speak English. It seems that ABC students are more motivated to learn Chinese because they have more reasons for learning. Specifically, their immediate and extended family and friends most likely spoke Chinese. On the other hand, non-ABC children lived in a mostly American context with English speaking parents, family members and friends (Dickinson, 2002).

Language Acquisition

The second research question asked whether language acquisition differs for the ABC and non-ABC students. It was discovered that there was no significant difference between ABC and non-ABC students when it came to language acquisition. Most scores fell at an “A” (91-100). However, the majority of the ABC students tended to have higher percentages on each item than non-ABC students. The only item where non-ABC out-performed ABC students was Item 8, Overall Performance. The differences were not large, however, the equivalent grades may be due to the teacher’s efforts to encourage persistence in Chinese language schools by inflating grades. Unfortunately, grade inflation does not allow researchers, principals, teachers or parents to accurately evaluate students’ language skills (Azwell & Schmar, 1995; Zirkel, 1999).

Because of the similarities in scores, it was difficult to determine the exact level of Chinese language acquisition. The topic of grade inflation in language learning courses needs to be addressed.

Ethnic Identity

The third research question asked whether there was a difference between ABC and non-ABC students regarding ethnic identity. It was discovered that there were significant differences between the two groups when it came to ethnic identity. The only items where non-ABC scored higher than ABC students was Item 4, Close friends are Chinese-speaking. The differences were large: ABC (M=1.60) and non-ABC (M=2.91). Again, the ABC students tended to be more positive on each item than the non-ABC students in ethnic identity. For example, a larger percentage of ABC students wanted to

have access to a Chinese TV channel; think of themselves as Chinese people; would marry a Chinese-speaking person; and want their children to grow up speaking Chinese. The one exception to this trend was Item 4: Close friends are Chinese speaking. Even though non-ABC students had more close Chinese speaking friends than ABC students, they still scored lower on all other ethnic identity items when compared to ABC students.

There is literature which both supports and refutes these findings with regard to ethnic development. Some individuals adopt the behaviors of the majority ethnic group and distance themselves from their own ethnic group (Tse, 1999). This appears to be the case with the non-ABC students. Perhaps because of their socialization, with primarily American parents and family members, they do not see themselves as fully Chinese. Non-ABC students can also be viewed as being at the conformity stage of Atkinson, Morton & Sue's (1983) identity theory for minority identity development. At the conformity stage, the minority member has a preference for the values of the dominant culture instead of his or her own cultural group (Leung, 1997).

Overall, the findings of the study in regards to the ABC students are encouraging. It appears that they are more positive towards their ethnic identification. This may be due to their socialization and also due to their involvement in the Chinese language schools.

However, when we look into the literature, there is still a note of caution. It remains to be seen if these positive ethnic identifications will remain over time. For example, even with heritage language school attendance, after only a few generations, the language dies out. This points to the difficulty of maintaining a heritage language. If the children do not maintain their heritage language, they risk losing the ability to communicate well with their family members (Wong-Fillmore, 1991).

Nine Teaching Categories

The fourth research question addressed in this study was whether significant relationships could be found among nine teaching categories used in Chinese language schools and language motivation, language acquisition and ethnic identity.

Learning Through Culture

There were correlations found between language learning motivation and the Teaching Category 3: Learning Through Culture. Therefore, teaching Chinese culture impacted on the students' desire to learn Chinese. Chinese language schools should be encouraged to increase their emphasis on Chinese culture in order to better motivate their students.

Providing Reminders Instruction

Language acquisition was also correlated with Teaching Category 8: Providing Reminders Instruction. Therefore this study suggests that teachers might be more effective if they used reminders to help student recall what they learned previously.

Helping Students Link Language and Content

Ethnic identity was only correlated with Teaching Category 1: Helping Students Link Language and Content. At least in this context, the curriculum was not really a resource in developing ethnic identity. Teachers, however, may want to include more authentic literacy materials like folklore and picture books written in the Chinese.

Table 11**Mean Scores on Nine Teaching Categories**

N=31	Mean
1. Helping Students Link Language and Content	13.39
2. Listening as the Impetus for Learning	12.71
3. Cooperative Learning	5.74
4. Learning through Culture	13.03
5. Taking Students' Readiness into Account	6.03
6. Defining Instructional Expectations	8.26
7. Utilizing Repetition Effectively	12.45
8. Providing Reminders Instruction	13.03
9. Providing Ample Teaching Time	7.52

As summarized in Table 8, the mean scores for the nine teaching categories: Helping Students' Link Language and Content (M=13.39); Learning Through Culture (M=13.03); Providing Reminders Instruction (M=13.03); Listening as the Impetus for Learning (M=12.71); and Utilizing Repetition Effectively (M=12.45) were the most utilized teaching categories in the Chinese language schools. However, Cooperative Learning (M= 5.74); Taking Students' Readiness into Account (M= 6.03) were the least used teaching categories.

Lack of Cooperative Learning in the Chinese Language Schools

According to this study, the data reveals the lack of cooperative learning in the Chinese language schools. This may due to time and playground restrictions. Chinese

teachers tend to conduct and direct student's classroom practice and learning, instead of applying classroom activities, they focus on classroom lecturing. However, Slavin (1995), and Friedman and Fisher (1998) suggest that students' learning motivation can also be improved by cooperative learning and overcoming fears about using an unfamiliar language. In 1999, Diaz's study also showed that cooperative learning improved student's motivation and performance in a dual-language classroom. Activities that can be used to enhance cooperative learning include the use of games, songs, rhymes, finger plays, role-plays, and chalkboard activities (Curtain & Pesola, 1994; Lipton, 1998).

Lack of Taking Students' Readiness into Account

The lack of readiness activities in the Chinese language school may also prove problematic (Kulik, Kulik & Bangert-Drowns, 1990a; Rosenshine & Stevens, 1986; Slavin, 1990; Willent, Yamashita & Anderson, 1983). Studies have shown that achievement of learning objectives is enhanced when students possess the necessary readiness capabilities. Anderson (1994) conducted a meta-analysis on readiness in reading instruction for children and adult students and found positive achievement gains associated with mastery learning in 64-93 percent of the studies reviewed. In a study of Spanish language achievement in Grade 9 students, Obando and Hymel (1991) found that achievement was significantly higher for students who benefited from these tactics on unit exams and the National Spanish Examination as compared to students who did not.

Limitations of Study

This study was designed with the understanding of the possible threats to internal validity in this and other comparative correlational research designs. One possible threat to internal validity in this study was instrumentation. The questionnaires of learning

motivation, language acquisition, ethnic identity and instructional strategies are self-reports and subject to social desirability factors. The teachers' grading criteria may vary among the teachers because of individual standards and students' grade levels. Although the Scholastic Aptitude Test II (SAT II) Chinese Language Test with listening was developed in 1994 for the standardized assessment of Chinese language skills in the United States, it is only designed for high school students in grades 10-12, or ages 14-17. This test was not appropriate for use in this study since most of the children in the sample population were under 12 years of age. The researcher reviewed the literature for appropriate dependent variables, asked experts to check for reliability and validity, and did a pilot study before using these methods.

Using an experimentally accessible population versus a target population was considered a threat to external validity. In this study, the target populations are ABC and non-ABC children attending Chinese language schools in urban areas located on the East Coast. The accessible populations were those ABC and non-ABC children in mixed classrooms at Chinese language schools in Maryland, Washington, DC, and Virginia. The results of this study may not be accurate if applied to West Coast or Central areas, or to non-urban or non-mixed classroom settings. Therefore, the findings may not be generalized to other ethnic language schools or other types of schools that are private, new, developmental, or non-traditional. In addition, due to the small sample size of the teachers and students Type II errors may occur "when null hypothesis is not rejected, when in fact the null hypothesis is actually wrong" (McMillan and Schumacher, 1997, p. 31). In this study, the small sample size may have caused the failure to find a statistically significant relationship between learning motivation and the nine teaching categories.

The researcher can only describe the sample population according to the subject characteristics and generalize only to the sample groups used. Also, because ABC and non-ABC students differed on other important demographic characteristics, the differences in this study may not be attributed to group membership.

Recommendations for Research and Practice

One implication of this research is that past studies have focused almost exclusively on high levels of learning achievement and parental expectation for first and second generation Chinese-American children. No attention so far has been paid to non-ABC children's academic achievement in either the Chinese language schools or public schools.

The impetus for the current study was a continued concern related to students' learning motivation, language acquisition and ethnic identity between ABC and non-ABC in Chinese language school settings. The goal of this study was to furnish school principals, administrators and teachers with additional data needed to revise Chinese language school curricula. Chinese language schools in the United States, which are still attended predominantly by ABC students, use traditional methods to teach this heritage language.

Obando & Hymel (1991) claimed that if learners perceive that what they are learning is relevant and transferable to other situations, they will find learning meaningful, and their motivation to acquire a skill or knowledge will increase. This study encourages the development of a curriculum that facilitates students' learning motivation, language acquisition and ethnic identity and takes into consideration students' background and special needs.

Based on the major findings of the present study, the researcher recommends the following avenues for future research and practice:

First, because of the huge demographic differences between the two groups, especially in relation to age, I would suggest that additional studies look at the non-ABC students after they got older. It would be interesting to see how growing up in an American family impacts their language learning motivation, language acquisition and ethnic development.

Second, conduct parallel studies on Chinese adopted children (non-ABC) and adopted children from other backgrounds who studied their heritage languages, such as the second generation of Latin-American students vs. Asian Americans.

Third, incorporate a variety of measures (e.g., structured interviews, classroom observations, dialogue journals, etc.) to evaluate the impact of instructional strategies on language learning motivation, language acquisition and ethnic identity. Such studies would ideally explore how teachers in the Chinese language schools apply instructional strategies to address students' learning motivation, language acquisition and ethnic identity.

Fourth, use a qualitative methodology. This study was limited to the use of survey self-report instruments. The instruments used in this study could not capture a range of feelings or the conditions that contributed to them. Attitudinal studies on language learning motivation and ethnic identity would be best served through the use of qualitative methodologies. A qualitative methodology would allow ABC and non-ABC children, their parents, and their teachers to express their feelings and concerns with

honesty and candor. This would provide researchers with data on other variables not examined in this study.

Fifth, conduct teacher workshops. Sustained professional development models for Chinese language teachers (Chang, Lee, Chang & Lin, 1997) could be beneficial. Due to the lack of teaching experience and qualifications, Chinese language teachers are not well trained to design curriculum. Since most of the teachers in the Chinese language schools are parent volunteers, well-designed workshops should be a welcome benefit. Workshops can create opportunities for teachers, parents, administrators and principals to work together, share and discuss their experiences and obtain resources that would ensure students' academic success and encourage positive ethnicity identity development.

Sixth, establish fair and meaningful grading report cards. A well-designed grading report card should reflect both student effort and mastery. A fair grading criterion should not be designed just to make students look good (Azwell & Schmar 1995), but to produce accurate, meaningful and fair grades (Munk, 2003). According to Munk & Bursuck (2001), when students receive inaccurate and unfair grades, little meaningful information about their achievement is provided. Therefore, to avoid the flat *A*'s phenomenon in Chinese language class, I would encourage Chinese language schools to change scales or weights on students' grading report cards, such as reducing the weight of tests from 70 percent to 50 percent of the grade, and increase the weight of classroom participation from 10 percent to 30 percent. I would also recommend having a bonus system in place to reward Chinese language proficiency in the classroom.

Lastly, Chinese language schools need to adopt curricular interventions to help encourage language-learning motivation and positive ethnic identity development

especially with their non-ABC students. There may be a case for separate classrooms because of the different backgrounds of the two groups.

In conclusion, language learning motivation, language acquisition, ethnic identity and instructional strategies will continue to be topics of interest for researchers and practitioners who desire to serve the needs of heritage language learners. The findings of this study clearly show that the mixed classroom contains two entirely different populations with different backgrounds and needs. It is obvious that there is a need for well-designed curricula for both ABC and non-ABC students to increase their learning motivation, language acquisition and ethnic identity. However, it remains to be seen which types of instructional experiences would help make non-ABC students more successful in the Chinese language classroom. Kuo (2002), a principal at the Long Island Chinese language school, suggested that non-ABC students be given more exposure to Chinese culture through literature, trips, and arts activities.

In support of this contention, Wen (1997) indicated that intrinsic interest in Chinese culture and the desire to understand one's own cultural heritage is the initial motivation for students to learn the language. It is the hope of this researcher that those from both quantitative and qualitative perspectives will continue to explore the numerous factors that contribute to the success of heritage language learners both here in the United States and around the world. It is crucial that as language educators, we need to work professionally to make our teaching more effective. The mission of Chinese language teachers is not only to make our students successful language learners, but also to help them to be proud of their Chinese ancestry!

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Appendix A
Student Background Survey

Student Background Survey

Name of School _____

ID # _____

Today's Date _____

1. How old are you? (circle one)

Younger than 5 5-7 8-10 11-14 older than 14

2. Sex (circle one): Boy Girl

3. Your first (mother tongue) language is (circle one):

Chinese English Cantonese Other

4. What language(s) do your parents always speak at home (circle one)?

Chinese English Cantonese Other

5. What language do you mostly speak with your parents (circle one)?

Chinese English Cantonese Other

6. What language do you mostly speak with your friends (circle one)?

Chinese English Cantonese Other

7. In which country were you born (circle one)?

America China Taiwan Hong Kong Other

8. How long have you been studying Chinese?

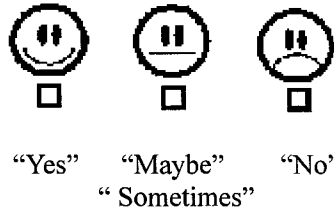
Less than 2 years 3-6 years 7-10 More than 10 years

9. My parents are (circle one)

Both Chinese Both American One is Chinese, one is American Others

Appendix B

Mini AMTB



1. I enjoy all of the activities in Chinese language school.



2. I will return to Chinese language school next semester.



3. I enjoy learning Chinese.



4. I always finish my homework.



5. I always ask the teacher for help when I don't understand.



6. Studying Chinese is very important to me because it is part of my cultural heritage.



7. I am never absent in my class even though I am sick.

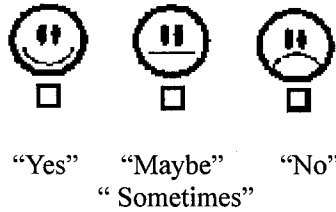


8. Studying Chinese allows me to meet more Chinese people.



9. I am learning Chinese to be able to talk with friends who speak it.





10. Learning Chinese culture is very fun and interesting.



11. I would like to live or work in China or Taiwan when I grow up.



12. I don't worry about making mistakes when I speak Chinese in front of Chinese people.



13. I feel comfortable when I have to speak Chinese in this class.



14. I want to learn more about Chinese culture.



15. My parents encourage me to learn Chinese.



Appendix C
Grading Report Card

成績報告 Progress Report

Teacher's Name: _____

Student's Name: _____

Class: _____

Gender: _____

Age: _____

American-born Chinese or Adopted Chinese student (please circle one)

學習成果:

Term Report:

	上學期 Spring 2003				下學期 Fall 2003			
	91-100	81-90	71-80	61-70	91-100	81-90	71-80	61-70
	A	B	C	N	A	B	C	N
1. 聽中文的能力 Listening								
2. 說中文的能力 Speaking								
A. 用字 Choice of Words								
B. 發音 Pronunciation								
C. 語調 Intonation								
3. 讀中文的能力 Reading								
A. 認字 Recognition								
B. 了解意義 Comprehension								
4. 寫作的能能力 Writing								
A. 作文 Composition								
B. 寫中文字 Penmanship								
5. 家庭作業 Homework								
6. 班上的態度 Conduct								
7. 考試成績 Test								
8. 學期成績 Overall Performance								
9. 出席日數 Attendance	_____ Days				_____ Days			
10. 缺席日數 Absence	_____ Days				_____ Days			

Appendix D
Ethnic Identity Questionnaire



1. Do you think there should be a Chinese TV channel in your district?



2. Do you often think of yourself as being a Chinese person, or a person of Chinese ancestry?



3. Are you interested in seeing Chinese-speaking Americans get ahead in American business or politics?



4. Are most of your close friends Chinese-speaking?



5. Would you prefer to work with Chinese-speaking Americans?



6. Do you want to marry someone who is Chinese-speaking?



7. Do you want your children to grow up speaking Chinese?



8. Indicate how much you enjoy speaking Chinese



Appendix E
Teaching Strategies Assessment

Teaching Strategies Assessment

Assessment Characteristic	Extent of agreement			
	Every time	Most of the time	Sometimes	Never
	3	2	1	0
1. I give students homework to practice what they are learning in the classroom.				
2. I encourage my students to practice using different words in writing and speaking.				
3. It is important to help my students to understand the subject-content topics and concepts.				
4. I categorize the materials to show how they are related to each other in the classroom.				
5. I help my students organize what they are learning and the information previously learned.				
6. Listening should be an important focus in the classroom.				
7. I encourage students to watch Chinese news and to listen to Chinese radio and music.				
8. I give yes-no answers, choose the correct words, or manipulate visual aids while listening to inputs.				
9. Repeating words helps my students recall what they have learned.				
10. It is important for me to have students describe in their own words after hearing a story.				
11. I have my students work in pairs or small groups in learning language activities.				
12. I use inter-group competition as part of my teaching strategy.				
13. Group work is an effective way of teaching language skills.				
14. I give instructions to students to work together in a team.				
15. It is important to create a cooperative environment in the classroom.				
16. It is important for students to learn about Chinese culture.				
17. I include Chinese cultural materials in my lesson plans.				
18. I encourage my students to participate in Chinese cultural activities.				

Assessment Characteristic	Extent of agreement			
	Every time	Most of the time	Sometimes	Never
	3	2	1	0
19. I include cultural practices such as forms of greetings and gestures in the classroom.				
20. I believe that learning a language is to learn its culture.				
21. I have an accurate diagnosis of the students' current level of knowledge in relation to that required for the material to be learned.				
22. I divide the materials to be learned into units with each unit providing prerequisite skills for subsequent units.				
23. I determine the level of skills the student must achieve prior to moving on to the next unit.				
24. I begin a lesson with a short review of previously taught prerequisite learning.				
25. I give my students a writing test every week.				
26. I explain the procedures to be used.				
27. I define what the students are expected to learn.				
28. I demonstrate what is to be learned, giving explicit step-by step directions.				
29. I begin a lesson with a short statement of goals and objectives.				
30. I clearly explain directions for the work to be done.				
31. I regularly give tests and quizzes.				
32. I use verbal repetition.				
33. I ask and explain repeatedly if students do not understand.				
34. I provide frequent practices or exercises in classroom.				
35. I ask questions to check for student understanding.				
36. I provide instructions on memory strategies to enhance recall of information to be learned.				
37. I teach the students to recode unfamiliar information into familiar terms.				
38. I practice newly taught strategies to the students.				
39. I have the students relate keywords from the information to be learned in a meaningful mental picture.				

Assessment Characteristic	Extent of agreement			
	Every time	Most of the time	Sometimes	Never
	3	2	1	0
40. I provide students with prompts or hints to lead them to the correct answer.				
41. I spend most of the time on teacher-directed academic activities.				
42. I avoid or minimize nonacademic student activities such as socializing.				
43. I believe that outside intrusions should be minimized.				
44. I like to be well prepared and plan daily activities proactively.				
45. I minimize or avoid assigning students independent activities, such as silent reading and written assignments, during times that could be used for teaching.				

Appendix F
Blueprint
Nine Teaching Categories

Blueprint

Nine Teaching Categories

Nine Teaching Categories	Questionnaire Items
(1) helping students link language and content	1. 2. 3. 4. 5.
(2) listening as the impetus for learning	1. 2. 3. 4. 5.
(3) cooperative learning	1. 2. 3. 4. 5.
(4) learning through culture	1. 2. 3. 4. 5.
(5) taking students' readiness into account	1. 2. 3. 4. 5.
(6) defining instructional expectations	1. 2. 3. 4. 5.
(7) utilizing repetition effectively	1. 2. 3. 4. 5.
(8) providing reminders instruction	1. 2. 3. 4. 5.
(9) providing ample teaching time	1. 2. 3. 4. 5.

Appendix G

Cover Letter

December 9, 2003

Dear Teachers and Students:

I would like to enlist your help in a research study. I am a doctoral candidate at Old Dominion University where I am conducting research on students who attend Chinese language schools.

Your participation in this study would be invaluable in our efforts to design effective Chinese language programs in the future. All those who complete the enclosed questionnaires will be entered into a raffle for a one dollar McDonald's gift certificate. The questionnaire will require approximately 10 minutes of your time.

Please return your consent form, completed questionnaire and raffle ticket stub to the researcher. Raffle winners will receive their gift certificates at the same time.

Confidentiality is assured to all who participate. I will only receive your anonymous completed questionnaires.

Thank you very much for your assistance in this important study.

Sincerely,

Sarah Tsai
Doctoral Candidate

Enclosures

Appendix H
Lottery/Consent Form for Student

CONSENT FORM

The purpose of this consent form is to request your participation in a study to be conducted during the fall of 2003. Please read the following information and sign the last section marked "Informed and Voluntary Consent to Participant" if you are willing to participate in the study.

Purpose of the Study

The study, which examines the difference between American-born Chinese and Adopted Chinese Students, looks at the relationship between heritage language learning motivation, language acquisition and ethnic identity development.

Instructions and Amount of Time Involved

You are being asked to complete a background data sheet and two questionnaires. Please circle one "face" for each questionnaire item. Once you have answered all questions, please give it directly to the researcher. Others who have completed the surveys reported that it takes about 10 minutes.

Assurance of Confidentiality

All data collected in the study will be kept confidential. Each respondent will be assigned a number for purposes of identification. Only the investigator will have access to this number.

Question and Availability of Results

Questions about this study may be directed to the investigator, Ms. Sarah Tsai (757-646-3253) or to the Chair of the Dissertation committee, Dr. Gail Taylor (757-683-4180). Results of this study may be obtained by writing the investigator: sarahtsai@aol.com

Informed and Voluntary Consent to Participate

I have been informed and agree to participate in the study outlined above. My right to decline my participation has been quarantined.

Date _____ Participant _____

BE SURE TO RETURN THIS FORM WITH YOUR COMPLETED QUESTIONNAIRES

IT IS YOUR TICKET TO WIN MCDONALD'S A \$1 GIFT CERTIFICATE!!

Appendix I

Lottery/Consent Form for Teacher

CONSENT FORM

The purpose of this consent form is to request your participation in a study to be conducted during the fall of 2003. Please read the following information and sign the last section marked "Informed and Voluntary Consent to Participate" if you are willing to participate in the study.

Purpose of the Study

The study, which examines the differences between American-born Chinese and Adopted Chinese Students in Chinese Language Schools, looks at the relationship between heritage language learning motivation, language acquisition and ethnic identity development. Additionally the study will identify the different teaching strategies you are currently using in your classroom.

Instructions and Amount of Time Involved

You are being asked to complete one teaching strategy questionnaire by checking one answer for each item. Once you have answered all questions, please give it directly to the researcher. Others who have completed the surveys reported that it takes about 15 minutes. The Student's Grading Report Cards will be sent out along with cover letters and consent forms at least two weeks before conducting the survey. Please take your time to fill out your students' GPA (Grading Report Cards) by giving scores such as 88, 90 and 98, instead of A, B and C. Please remember to submit the Grading Report Cards to the researcher along with your questionnaire.

Assurance of Confidentiality

All data collected in the study will be kept confidential. Each respondent will be assigned a number for purposes of identification. Only the investigator will have access to this number.

Question and Availability of Results

Questions about this study may be directed to the investigator, Ms. Sarah Tsai (757-646-3253) or to the Chair of the Dissertation committee, Dr. Gail Taylor (757-683-4180). Results of this study may be obtained by writing the investigator: sarahtsai@aol.com

Informed and Voluntary Consent to Participate

I have been informed and agree to participate in the study outlined above. My right to decline my participation has been quarantined.

Date _____ Participant _____

Appendix J
Mean Student Background

<u>Mean Student Background</u>		
	ABC	Non-ABC
Age:	1.87	1.11
1=younger than 5, 2=5-7 years old		
Sex: 1=Male, 2=Female	1.66	2.00
First (mother tongue) language:	1.14	1.97
1=Chinese, 2=English, 3=Cantonese, 4=others		
Language parents mostly speak at home:	1.18	1.99
1=Chinese, 2=English, 3=Cantonese, 4=others		
Language mostly speak with your parents:	1.87	2.00
1=Chinese, 2=English, 3=Cantonese, 4=others		
Language mostly speak with your friends:	1.98	2.00
1=Chinese, 2=English, 3=Cantonese, 4=others		
Birthplace:	1.01	2.00
1=America, 2=China		
Years of studying Chinese:	1.81	1.03
1=Less than 2 years, 2=3-6years		
Both parents are:	1.13	2.09
1=Both Chinese, 2=Both American, 3=One is Chinese, one is American		

Appendix K
Mean Learning Motivation Scores (mini-AMTB)

<u>Mean Learning Motivation Scores (mini-AMTB)</u> 1=Yes, 2=Maybe/sometimes, 3=No	<u>ABC</u>	<u>Non-ABC</u>
Enjoy activities:	1.25	1.00
Return to Chinese language school:	1.40	1.03
Enjoy learning Chinese:	1.82	1.11
Finish homework:	1.32	1.44
Ask teacher for help:	1.75	1.26
Cultural heritage:	1.66	1.06
Never absent:	1.51	1.06
Meet more Chinese people:	1.51	1.06
Talk with Chinese friends:	1.51	1.06
Culture is fun and interesting:	1.38	1.01
Live or work in China:	1.51	1.06
Don't worry making mistakes:	1.51	1.06
Feel comfortable speaking Chinese:	1.98	1.71
Desire to learn more Chinese culture:	1.27	1.01
Parents encouragement:	1.05	1.00

Appendix L**Mean Language Acquisition Scores (Grading Report Card)**

Mean Language Acquisition (Grading Report Card)

1=91-100, 2=81-90, 3=71-80, 4=61-70

ABC**Non-ABC****Listening:**

1.04

1.01

Speaking:

1.23

1.20

Reading:

1.23

1.20

Writing:

1.04

1.01

Homework:

1.04

1.01

Conduct:

1.23

1.20

Test:

1.04

1.01

Overall performance:

1.02

1.03

Absence

1.04

1.01

Appendix M
Mean Ethnic Identity Scores (AMTB)

Mean Ethnic Identity Scores (AMTB)		
1=Yes, 2=Maybe/sometimes, 3=No	<u>ABC</u>	<u>Non-ABC</u>
Chinese TV Channel:	1.68	1.33
Think yourself as a Chinese person:	1.36	1.14
Business or politics:	1.58	1.07
Close friends are Chinese-speaking:	1.60	2.91
Work with Chinese-speaking Americans:	1.68	1.33
Marry Chinese-speaking:	1.63	1.30
Want your children to grow up speaking Chinese:	1.36	1.14
How much you enjoy speaking Chinese:	1.58	1.07

Appendix N
Mean Teaching Strategies Scores

<u>Mean Teaching Strategies Scores</u>	
3=Every time, 2=Most of the time, 1=Sometimes, 0=Never	<u>M</u>
1. I give students homework to practice what they are learning in the classroom.	2.68
2. I encourage my students to practice using different words in writing and speaking.	2.68
3. It is important to help my students to understand the subject-content topics and concepts.	2.77
4. I categorize the materials to show how they are related to each other in the classroom.	2.68
5. I help my students organize what they are learning and the information previously learned.	2.58
6. Listening should be an important focus in the classroom.	2.84
7. I encourage students to watch Chinese news and to listen to Chinese radio and music.	2.10
8. I give yes-no answers, choose the correct words, or manipulate visual aids while listening to inputs.	2.84
9. Repeating words helps my students recall what they have learned.	2.10
10. It is important for me to have students describe in their own words after hearing a story.	2.84
11. I assign my students to work in pairs or small groups in learning language activities.	1.19
12. I use inter-group competition as part of my teaching strategy.	1.00
13. Group work is an effective way of teaching language skills.	1.23
14. I give instructions to students to work together in a team	1.10
15. It is important to create a cooperative environment in the classroom.	1.23
16. It is important for students to learn about Chinese culture.	2.65
17. I include Chinese cultural materials in my lesson plans.	2.55
18. I encourage my students to participate in Chinese cultural activities.	2.65
19. I include cultural practices such as forms of greetings and gestures in the classroom.	2.65
20. I believe that learning a language is to learn its culture.	2.55
21. I have an accurate diagnosis of the students' current level of knowledge in relation to that required for the material to be learned.	1.00
22. I divide the materials to be learned into units with each unit providing prerequisite skills for subsequent units.	1.13
23. I determine the level of skills the student must achieve prior to moving on to the next unit.	1.77
24. I begin a lesson with a short review of previously taught prerequisite learning.	1.00
25. I give my students a writing test every week.	1.13

26. I explain the procedures to be used.	1.58
27. I define what the students are expected to learn.	1.87
28. I demonstrate what is to be learned, giving explicit step-by step directions.	1.45
29. I begin a lesson with a short statement of goals and objectives.	1.48
30. I clearly explain directions for the work to be done.	1.87
31. I regularly give tests and quizzes.	2.26
32. I use verbal repetition.	2.84
33. I ask and explain repeatedly if students do not understand.	2.84
34. I provide frequent practices or exercises in classroom.	2.26
35. I ask questions to check for student understanding.	2.26
36. I provide instructions on memory strategies to enhance recall of information to be learned.	2.32
37. I teach the students to recode unfamiliar information into familiar terms.	2.65
38. I practice newly taught strategies to the students.	2.65
39. I have the students relate keywords from the information to be learned in a meaningful mental picture.	2.32
40. I provide students with prompts or hints to lead them to the correct answer.	2.65
41. I spend most of the time on teacher-directed academic activities.	1.74
42. I avoid or minimize nonacademic student activities such as socializing.	1.74
43. I believe that outside intrusions should be minimized.	1.26
44. I like to be well prepared and plan daily activities proactively.	1.03
45. I minimize or avoid assigning students to independent activities, such as silent reading and written assignment, during times that could be used for teaching.	1.74

VITA

Sarah Chu-chao Tsai was born in Taiwan. She earned a Bachelor of Arts from Sheng-Te Christian College, Taiwan, and obtained a Master's Degree in Education, Organization and Administration from Dallas Baptist University, Dallas, Texas, in 1997. At the age of 21, Sarah Tsai was the founder and director of Tsai's Tutoring Center in Taiwan.

Dr. Tsai has over four years of teaching and school administrative experience. She has had many previous teaching experiences in education; among them was starting her own tutoring center in Taiwan for elementary and junior high school students. As the founder, she designed her own curriculum for courses that included science, math, social studies, and the Chinese language. As a director, she oversaw staff, and developed and maintained a budget for the Center. As a teacher, she taught the courses that she designed to her students.

During the pursuit of her doctoral program in education, with an emphasis on Urban Study in Curriculum Design and Instruction at Old Dominion University, Norfolk, Virginia, Dr. Tsai was a Graduate Assistant working at the Reading Center in the Darden College of Education. She was able to work closely with the Program Director to recruit and to track progress for the American READ, for students who are learn to read slowly and have difficulty reading. Dr. Tsai continues her interest in teaching as a teacher at the Tidewater Chinese School, Norfolk, Virginia. Her responsibilities include cultivating leadership, developing positive student role models, and mentoring students to help them achieve their academic goals. She helped the school by presenting new ideas in teaching methods, academic curriculums, and modeling a curriculum for adopted children from

China.

Dr. Tsai currently resides in Virginia. Her email address is sarahtsai@aol.com.