7-2003

A Comparison of the Level of Anxiety and the Degree of Acculturation among Immigrant ESOL and Mainstreamed-ESOL Students in a Public, Rural High School in South Florida

Herminio Flores-Mulero
Lynn University

LYNN UNIVERSITY
Boca Raton, Florida

A COMPARISON OF THE LEVEL OF ANXIETY AND THE DEGREE OF ACCULTURATION AMONG IMMIGRANT ESOL AND MAINSTREAMED-ESOL STUDENTS IN A PUBLIC, RURAL HIGH SCHOOL IN SOUTH FLORIDA

HERMINIO FLORES-MULERO

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to the Faculty of the Ross College of Education,
Health and Human Services of Lynn University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy in Educational Leadership
with a Global Perspective

July 2003

Order Number: _____

A Comparison of the Level of Anxiety and the

Degree of Acculturation among

Immigrant ESOL and Mainstreamed-ESOL Students

in a Public, Rural High School in South Florida

by Flores-Mulero, Herminio, Ph. D.

Lynn University

2003

ABSTRACT

A Comparison of the Level of Anxiety and the

Degree of Acculturation among

Immigrant ESOL and Mainstreamed-ESOL Students in a

Public, Rural High School in South Florida

by Herminio Flores-Mulero

The level of anxiety and the degree of acculturation of a group of immigrant

Haitian and Hispanic students who are enrolled in an ESOL program in a public, rural

high school in South Florida were researched. The level of anxiety and the degree of

acculturation of a group of immigrant Haitian and Hispanic students exited from the

ESOL program and enrolled in English language mainstream classes were also

researched. The purpose of this empirical study was to determine if there is a

relationship between anxiety and acculturation among immigrant secondary students

by investigating the level of anxiety and the degree of acculturation between current

ESOL students and former ESOL students enrolled in mainstream classrooms. The

relationships between gender, ethnicity, grade level, and length of time of English

language studied and the level of anxiety and the degree of acculturation of the

students were examined.

The English Language Anxiety Scale (ELAS) and the Multigroup Ethnic

Identity Measure (MEIM) were used as tools to collect quantitative data. The SPSS

software was used to analyze quantitatively the ELAS and the MIEM data using correlations and two-tailed t-tests.

The findings reveal that Hispanic students in the ESOL group have the higher level of anxiety. Furthermore, it is the male Hispanic students who are most anxious. In addition, the male Haitian students in the ESOL group displayed a higher level of acculturation than their female counterparts. Hispanic students display a higher degree of acculturation than Haitian students. The study also revealed that a large percentage of the Hispanic students are migrant students.

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to the memory of my mother, Juanita Mulero. She passed away in January 2003. In fact, I know she would have been proud, very proud if she were here.

Because she was not formally educated herself, she realized the value of education, and encouraged all of her six children to acquire all the education and skills necessary for a full life. She did that at the same time that she gave us all her love and nurturing. My achieving this goal today is due to her.

"No se preocupe, señora Flores, que su hijo va a llegar bien lejos," le decían las monjas de Notre Dame a mi madre. ("Don't worry, Mrs. Flores, your son will get very far," the nuns at Notre Dame used to tell my mother.)

List of Tables

List of Tables

Continued

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER I: Introduction

CHAPTER II: Review of the Literature

CHAPTER III: Research Methodology

TABLE OF CONTENTS
Continued

Chapter I

Introduction

Immigrants in the United States

The diversity of the United States population is constantly increasing, due primarily to immigration. According to the 1999 United States Population Data Sheet from the U. S. Population Reference Bureau, by the year 2015 racial and ethnic minorities will account for one third of the U. S. population. Students whose home language is other than English are projected by the U. S. Census Bureau to be more than 40% of the school-age population by the 2030s, and possibly sooner if present demographic trends continue (Thomas & Collier, 2002). In 1999, the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education Newsletter predicted that Hispanics would be the largest of these minority groups, and, indeed, Hispanics are now the largest minority group.

Part of the history of the United States is a story of immigration and diversity [United States Information Agency (USIA), 1997]. Following a fifty-year hiatus since the days of the Second World War, an influx of immigrants is once again transforming the educational systems of the United States (Lucas, 1997). The United States has welcomed more immigrants than any other country – more than 50 million in all – and still admits as many as one million persons per year (USIA, 1997).

Beginning in the nineteenth century and continuing well into the twentieth century, people did not fare well as immigrants, including the Chinese. The Chinese Exclusion Acts were federal laws passed in 1882, 1892, and 1902 to prevent Chinese

immigrants from entering the United States (Scholastic Online, 2002). Immigration policies toward the Chinese did not relax until the Second World War years when China was an ally of the United States (Scholastic Online, 2002).

Attitudes toward other immigrants, such as the Irish and the Italians, tended to be negative throughout the twentieth century (Shannon & Escamilla, 1999). Also, in the early part of the twentieth century, immigrants from southern and eastern Europe were regarded as inferior to those who came earlier from northern and western Europe (Shannon & Escamilla, 1999).

As a result of the First World War, Germans were regarded with suspicion. During the Second World War years, Japanese experienced very negative attitudes and behaviors – including roundups and the extreme humiliation of internment (Shannon & Escamilla, 1999). Following the Korean and Vietnam Wars, Asian immigrants [again] became undesirable and unwanted newcomers to this country (Shannon & Escamilla, 1999). In the twenty-first century, the suspicion has been focused on Arabs and Muslims because the media has extensively portrayed a negative situation towards this group of people, especially after the tragedy that befell the United States on September 11, 2001, and the war with Iraq in 2003.

The states in the southwest U.S. from Texas to California are historically strongly linked with Mexico. This territory was owned by Spain and then Mexico as recently as 150 years ago (Thomas & Collier, 2002). The Hispanic heritage of these states remains strong, and the people of Hispanic descent are numerous, including various regions of these states where Hispanics are the majority of the population (Thomas & Collier, 2002).

Part of what is now the United States (the Southwest) belonged to Mexico before 1848. During the U. S. Westward expansion in the nineteenth century, Spanish and then later Mexican settlements were absorbed into the expanding nation (Shannon & Escamilla, 1999). Immigrants have been entering the United States for hundreds of years, especially from Mexico. The majority of immigrants to the United States between 1980 and 1990 came from Spanish-speaking countries (Waggoner, 1993; Lucas, 1997). Spanish-speaking immigrant students presently come mainly from Mexico, El Salvador, Nicaragua, Guatemala, Honduras, the Dominican Republic, Cuba, Puerto Rico, Colombia, and Venezuela (Lucas, 1997). Poor economic conditions and different political situations in Mexico and other Latin American countries, such as Haiti, and opportunities to work in the United States together have demanded migration and immigration from those countries. Popular sentiment about immigrants has always been ambivalent (Shannon & Escamilla, 1999).

During the Great Depression of the 1930s in the United States, numerous immigrants, including as many as 600,000 Mexicans (although some were U. S. born citizens) were sent back to Mexico, in an effort to reclaim jobs for American citizens (Acuna, 1995). During World War II, when jobs needed to be filled, the federal government's Bracero Program allowed Mexican workers to enter the U. S. legally for seasonal work. In the 1960s, that program was eliminated because, again, it was feared that Mexicans were taking economic opportunities away from U. S. citizens. A nationalistic mood in the United States championed during the Reagan administration created a hostile environment for immigrants (Shannon & Escamilla, 1999).

The most recent immigration issue involves Haiti. According to the United States Census of 1990, there were about 290,000 people who claimed Haitian ancestry (Unaeze & Perrin, 1995). However, this figure does not include the tens of thousands who were in the United States illegally (Unaeze & Perrin, 1995). Moreover, there are second and third-generation Haitians who simply identified themselves as black. Anthropologists estimate that about 1.2 million people in the United States are of Haitian ancestry (Unaeze & Perrin, 1995).

There are four major documented periods of Haitian immigration to the United States: the period of colonization, the Haitian Revolution from 1791 to1803, the United States occupation of Haiti from 1915 to 1934, and the period of the Duvaliers from 1957 to 1986 (Unaeze & Perrin, 1995). Political persecution during the Duvalier period caused Haitian professionals, the middle class, and students to leave the island in large numbers (Unaeze & Perrin, 1995). They were in search of political asylum or permanent resident status in various countries, such as the United States, Mexico, Puerto Rico, Jamaica, France, the Dominican Republic, French Guyana, and in different countries in Africa. Large numbers took refuge in certain cities in the United States, such as Miami, Chicago, New Orleans, Los Angeles, and Boston (Unaeze & Perrin, 1995). The greatest concentrations of Haitian immigrants are in New York City, Miami, Chicago, New Orleans, Los Angeles, and Boston (Unaeze & Perrin, 1995). Until 1977, Brooklyn was the heart of Haitian America (Unaeze & Perrin, 1995). However, between 1977 and 1981, sixty thousand Haitian "boat people" landed in South Florida, and the center of the Haitian Diaspora moved south (Unaeze & Perrin, 1995).

According to Coelho (1994, p. 303), in times of economic depression or recession, immigrants become a target of considerable ill will as they are commonly (and erroneously) believed to "take people's jobs," "cause pressure in the housing market," and "be a drain on the social services." Teachers who work in multiracial schools have to make sure that they share positive values about immigration and immigrants, not only with the children of immigrants and the children who represent the "host" community but also with parents and colleagues (Coelho, 1994).

Now, as in eras past, immigrants have been received with ambivalence (Suárez-Orozco & Suárez-Orozco, 2001, p. 2). In the United States, the history of anti-immigration sentiment is as long as the history of immigration itself (Suárez-Orozco & Suárez-Orozco, 2001, p. 7).

The reality of the immigrant experience in the United States is different from popular belief (Shannon & Escamilla, 1999). In general, it is believed that the United States welcomes immigrants with enthusiasm because it is a country that was settled by immigrants. This willingness to accept immigrants is portrayed by the following: "Give me your tired, your poor, your huddled masses yearning to breathe free, the wretched refuse of your teeming shore. Send these, the homeless, tempest-tossed to me. I lift my lamp beside the golden door" (Inscription on the Statue of Liberty in New York Harbor, based on a poem by Emma Lazarus). However, there is a nationalistic ideology that denies this tenet. U. S. citizens who believe in a narrow nationalistic ideology are the ones that have the most difficulty accepting immigrants and allowing them to maintain their language and culture (Shannon & Escamilla, 1999). From a nationalistic perspective, immigrants' cultures and languages are

viewed as potential threats to a united American society (Shannon & Escamilla, 1999). Because of the threat they pose, immigrants have rarely been welcomed in U. S. society (Shannon & Escamilla, 1999).

The United States is not alone in facing this problem. It should be noted that England, France, and Germany in particular are European countries having similar problems with immigrants (Canada & the World Backgrounder, 2002; Edmondson, Anhalt, Capell, Robinson, & Brady, 2000). Asian nations, such as Japan and China are completely or almost completely closed to immigration (Mooney & Xue, 2000; The Economist, 2000; Brimelow, 1993), and Australia also limits immigration (Blackburn, 2001).

Immigrants in U. S. Schools

The children of immigrants, who make up 20% of all youth in the United States, are an integral part of the American fabric (Suárez-Orozco & Suárez-Orozco, 2001, p. 1). Unfortunately, many children of immigrants today are enrolling in violent and over-crowded inner-city schools where they face overwhelmed teachers, hypersegregation by race and class, limited and outdated resources, and otherwise decaying infrastructures (Suárez-Orozco & Suárez-Orozco, 2001, p. 2).

Public education in the United States has been greatly impacted by immigrant migrations. For example, the number of non-English speaking students in U.S. public schools has been growing dramatically in the last twenty-five years [National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition (NCLEA), 2002]. According to Suárez-Orozco (2001), globalization is the reason that immigrant children are

entering U.S. schools in unprecedented numbers. Suárez-Orozco explains that one of the three pillars of globalization is the displacement of individuals and unprecedented levels of immigration. (The other two pillars are new information and communication technologies, and the emergence of global markets and post-national knowledge-intensive economies.)

Immigrant students are students (including refugees) born outside of the United States as well as native-born children of at least one foreign-born parent (Ruiz-de-Velasco & Fix, 2000). According to the *No Child Left Behind Act* of 2001 (Public Law 107-110), immigrant children and youth are individuals who (a) are aged three through twenty-one, (b) were not born in any state [of the United States], and (c) have not been attending one or more schools in any one or more States for more than three full academic years.

These students are known as English Language Learners (ELL students), that is, students whose first language is not English. They are also referred to as limited English proficient (LEP) students, second language (L2) learners, and as language minority students. (To avoid confusion, they will be referred as ELL students in this research study.) This population is the fastest growing segment of the student population in the public school system of the United States (Lucas, 1997).

Reported ELL enrollment levels in the U.S. continued to increase in 2000-2001, both in absolute numbers and as a percentage of the total student enrollment (NCELA, 2002). As of 2000-2001, the reported number of ELL public school students comprised 9.6% (4,584,946) of the total reported public school enrollment of students in grades PK-12 (NCELA, 2002).

The reported number of ELL students enrolled grew by 3.8% from the 1999-2000 school year, and their representation as a percentage of total school enrollment increased by 3.1% (NCELA, 2002). Since the 1990-1991 school year, the ELL population has grown approximately 105%, while the general school population has grown only 12% (NCELA, 2002).

California, Florida, Illinois, New York, and Texas had 82% of all ELL students, with more than 41% in California, as reported by the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) in 1996-97. California enrolled the largest number of public school ELL students, with 1,381,383, followed by Texas (513,634), Florida (288,603), and New York (247,087) (NCBE, 1998).

Between the 1990-91 and 1994-95 school years, the ELL population in Arkansas increased by 120%, in Kansas by 118%, and in Wisconsin by 92% (NCES, 1997). Even in places like Dodge City, Kansas, more than 30% of the children enrolled in public schools are the children of immigrants (Suárez-Orozco & Suárez-Orozco, 2001).

By 2000, the majority of the school-age population in fifty or more major cities was from language minority backgrounds (NCELA, 2002). From the 1985-1986 school year through the 1994-1995 school years, the number of ELL students in public schools grew 109%, while total enrollment increased by only 9.5% (Olsen, 1997). Between 2000 and 2050, children of immigrants will account for 88% of the increase in the under-18 population (U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1997).

Asia and Latin America have replaced Europe as the main sources of newcomers to the United States (U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1997). These

newcomers bring with them different languages, cultures, and experiences. Asian newcomers may come from at least thirteen countries in South Asia (India, Pakistan, Bangladesh), Southeast Asia (Vietnam, Kampuchea, Laos, Thailand), and East Asia (China, Taiwan, Japan, Korea), and the Pacific Islands (Samoa, Guam) (Lucas, 1997). Laotian newcomers may be ethnic Lao or they may be Hmong, Mien, or Khmer ethnic minorities. Newcomers from India may be Punjabi-speaking Sikhs, Bengali-speaking Hindus, or Urdu-speaking Moslems (Lucas, 1997). In other words, there is great diversity among the Asian immigrant students, just like with the Latino immigrant students who come from a variety of Spanish-speaking countries. There is a salient difference, however. Asian immigrant students speak different languages, while Latino immigrant students, on the other hand, all speak Spanish, in spite of the fact that there are some differences in dialects, depending upon the region from which the students originate.

Well-educated members of the upper class from Haiti began coming to the United Sates in the late 1950s to flee the harsh regime of President Francois Duvalier (Giles, 1990). Middle-class Haitians began arriving in the mid-1960s (Giles, 1990). Haitian peasants and unskilled urban workers with little or no education, the so-called "boat people," began making its way to United States shores in the mid-1970s (Schiller, DeWind, Brutus, Charles, Fouron, & Thomas, 1987; Stepick, 1987). The families of most of the first-generation Haitian children in American schools today are from this third group (Bayardelle, 1984). According to Unaeze & Perrin (1995), Florida has been receiving the largest numbers of Haitian children in its state educational system.

It is important to note that while all Haitians can speak Creole, French – the language of the Haitian government, commerce, and education – is spoken only by the educated elite (Laguerre, 1984). Fluency in Creole does not enable one to understand French and vice versa (Foster, 1980).

The Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs (OBEMLA) – now known as the Office of English Language Acquisition (OELA) – of the U. S. Department of Education reported over four million ELL students nationwide in 2002. The U. S. Department of Education estimated in 1998 that the number of ELL students had doubled in less than a decade. Seventy-three percent of that population is native Spanish speakers.

The dropout rate is one of the main problems facing the ELL population. High dropout rates among language-minority secondary school students are one indication that many schools are failing to adequately support the needs of these students (Walqui, 2000). Five out of every one hundred young adults enrolled in United States high school in October 1998 left school before October 1999, without successfully completing a high school program (NCES, 1999). Hispanic students were more likely than white students to leave school before completing a high school program: in 1999, almost eight percent of Hispanic students were dropouts, compared with four percent of white students (NCES, 1999). Although dropout rates were highest among students age nineteen and older, about two-thirds (67.3 percent) of the current-year dropouts were ages fifteen through eighteen. Moreover, about two-fifths (43.2 percent) of the 1999 dropouts were ages seventeen through nineteen (NCES, 1999).

High numbers of children of immigrants are leaving schools with few skills

that would ensure success in today's unforgiving global economy (Suárez-Orozco &

Suárez-Orozco, 2001, p. 2). At a time when the United States economy is generating

no meaningful jobs for high school dropouts, many children of immigrants are

dropping out of school (Suárez-Orozco & Suárez-Orozco, 2001, p. 2).

Immigrant Education in the United States

Power and identity issues come to the fore in institutions such as schools,

where the process of integration and assimilation creates a slow destruction of

ethnolinguistic identity (Thomas & Collier, 2002, page 41). Marginalized groups

often experience ambivalence and insecurity in relation to their bilingual/bicultural

identity, resulting in low achievement in schools and underemployment in the

workplace (Thomas & Collier, 2002).

With the increasing number of linguistically and culturally diverse students in

K-12 classrooms, it is imperative that practitioners determine educational approaches

that best serve these students [Center for Research on Education, Diversity and

Excellence (CREDE), 2001]. English language Learners (ELL students) in particular

face the dual challenge of mastering English and acquiring the academic skills and

knowledge deemed essential for a sound and productive education and career

(CREDE, 2001).

According to CREDE (2001), educational programs for immigrant students

need to include some common characteristics:

- Successful programs maintain ongoing and guided parental involvement and
  professional development for specialized and mainstream teachers.

- They promote proficiency in both first and second languages for academic purposes, and they use assessment methods linked to instructional objectives to inform instructional planning and delivery.

- Effective programs also encompass developmentally appropriate curriculum and high standards for language acquisition and academic achievement, as well as strong leadership among classroom, school, and district personnel.

- All programs implement sheltered instruction (SI), an approach that integrates language and content instruction.

Researchers at CREDE have studied four kinds of programs that meet the diverse and complex needs of ELL students. These programs include newcomer, transitional bilingual education (TBE), developmental bilingual education (DBE), and two-way immersion programs. Sheltered instruction (SI) can be implemented in conjunction with any of these program alternatives, or it can be implemented as the sole approach for educating ELL students (CREDE, 2001).

The integration of immigrant communities into the United States society depends to a large extent on the schooling of their youngsters (Laguerre, 1998). The Haitian and Hispanic communities are no exception. The success of the diasporic communities depends heavily on its ability to educate its children (Laguerre, 1998.) The schooling of immigrant children becomes problematic because the views of the school system, the minority and majority parents, and the target language community are not identical (Laguerre, 1998).

The parental involvement component is considered to be of utmost importance in the United States. However, the parents of immigrant children face difficulties on

this aspect. One of the key reasons for this difficulty is the discrepancy between the role U.S. schools expect parents to play in their children's education and the role the parents of immigrant children are realistically able to play (Giles, 1990). Immigrant parents often expect to play less of a role in their children's education, for, in their native countries, the school takes a comparatively greater responsibility for children's education (Foster, 1982; Joseph, 1984; Giles, 1990).

Immigration is one experience that most teachers in North America have not experienced, and they may not always be aware of the effects of this experience on the children in their classrooms (Coelho, 1994). Teachers who work in multilingual, multiracial, and multicultural classrooms need accurate and up-to-date information about immigration – its rationale, its procedures, and its effects on host and immigrant populations – to establish a context for their work not only with immigrants and minority children and parents, but with the children and parents of the host society as well (Coelho, 1994).

Anxiety and Acculturation

Recent immigration trends make it necessary for educators to learn more about immigrant students. Virtually all schools in the United States are being called upon to provide educational services for linguistically and culturally diverse students (CREDE, 2001). In light of the increasing diversity in U.S. classrooms, teachers are encountering more ELL students whom they have to help (Pappamihiel, 2002). As ELL students enter classrooms with fewer native language skills due to permanent or temporary interruption of their education, they tend to display increased anxiety,

increasing the chances that this state of being will affect the learning process, as has occurred in foreign language classrooms (Daley, Omwuegbuzie, & Bailey, 1997; Ehrman & Oxford, 1995; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1993, 1994). Consequently, it is imperative that teachers learn about their ELL students' level of anxiety and strategies to reduce it (Pappamihiel, 2002).

Acculturation is the processes of change that result from the contact of societies with different cultural traditions (Encyclopedia Britannica, 2000). Acculturation strategies indicate the modes in which immigrants intend to interact with the host society, particularly the importance that immigrants ascribe to their own cultural identity and their relationships with the majority group in the host society (Berry, Kim, Power, Young, & Bujaki, 1989).

Statement of the Problem

The students' level of anxiety interferes with their ability to acculturate, and, consequently, their lack of acculturation impedes their ability to learn English (Pappamihiel, 2002). Too many foreign-born students languish in English-speaking classrooms not understanding the medium of instruction, and, as a result, they lag behind academically (Thomas & Collier, 1997).

English language learning students cannot learn if they are in classrooms where a language they do not understand is being used for instruction (Cummins, 1981), as is the case with immigrant students who are placed in all-English classes in which no program of sheltered instruction is implemented. They need native language instruction or support to be able to transfer learning skills to a new, second language

14

(Krashen, 1991; August, Calderón, & Carlo, 2001). In the absence of native language instruction, sheltered instruction (SI) and English as a second language (ESL) instruction may be used. [ESL (English as second language) instruction is the same as ESOL (English for Speakers of Other Languages) instruction.] Furthermore, English language learners (ELL students) need to be in ESOL or bilingual classrooms with trained teachers that minimize their anxiety, thus facilitating the process of second language acquisition and acculturation (Pappamihiel, 2002).

Purpose of the Study

This researcher will examine the relationship between the levels of anxiety and the degree of acculturation of immigrant students who are English language learners (ELLs) enrolled in an English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) program in a public, rural high school in South Florida. The students involved in this study are tested with the Bilingual Verbal Ability Tests (BVAT) upon arrival to the school system. The BVAT (Muñoz-Sandoval, Cummins, Alvarado, & Ruef, 1998) assesses the students' English language ability. The students are categorized into levels 1 to 5, according to the results of the test. If the students fall in levels 1, 2, or 3 as a result of the assessment test, they are enrolled in an ESOL program. If the student falls in levels 4 or 5 as a result of the test, they are enrolled in all-English mainstream classes.

A second group of students that were enrolled in an ESOL program will be part of the study. These students were exited and are now enrolled in all-English language mainstream classes. The students were exited according to the results of the

BVAT that they took for a second time, the recommendation of the ESOL teacher, and the decision of the LEP Committee.

The researcher will investigate the level of anxiety and the degree of acculturation among current ESOL students and former ESOL students who were exited and are currently enrolled in mainstream English language classes. This researcher will investigate these students' affective well-being in a South Florida public, rural high school in South Florida.

Research Questions

The following are the research questions that this study will answer:

1. Are there differences in the degree of acculturation between Mainstreamed-ESOL and ESOL immigrant students in a public, rural high school in South Florida in terms of program status, gender, and ethnicity?

2. What is the relationship between grade level and years of English studied and the degree of acculturation among immigrant students in a public, rural high school in South Florida and within Mainstreamed, ESOL, Haitian, and Hispanic groups?

3. Are there differences in the level of anxiety among Mainstreamed and ESOL immigrant students in a public, rural high school in South Florida in terms of program status, gender, and ethnicity?

4. What is the relationship between grade level and years of English language studied and the level of anxiety among immigrant students in a public, rural

high school in South Florida and within Mainstreamed, ESOL, Haitian, and

Hispanic groups?

5. What are the relationships between the degree of acculturation and the level of

    anxiety among immigrant students in a public, rural high school in South

    Florida and within Mainstreamed, ESOL, Haitian, and Hispanic groups?

Significance of the Study

Although immigrant students are attending U. S. high schools in

unprecedented numbers, few studies have investigated the aspects of the world that

these immigrant students enter (Norrid-Lacey & Spencer, 2000). This researcher

expects to add to the knowledge base on the subject of immigrant education by

showing the relationship between the level of anxiety and the degree of acculturation

of immigrant secondary students in a South Florida public, rural high school. The

ethnicity, grade level, gender difference, and years of study of the English language

will also be examined to find out if there is any relationship between the level of

anxiety and the degree of acculturation and these variables.

The findings of this study may be able to develop important recommendations

for ESOL programs for future immigrant students in South Florida's public schools.

Furthermore, the findings of this study may reveal the need for the development of

programmatic components necessary to meet the affective needs of ELL students who

are enrolled in both ESOL programs and mainstream classes.

Limitations of the Study

It is possible that this study's research findings may not be generalized to other schools and other immigrant populations because it was limited to one South Florida public high school. The findings of the study may suggest that further evaluation, including survey research, of secondary immigrant students in ESOL programs and mainstream classes is needed to make general inferences about immigrant students and ESOL programs.

Time is another limitation of this study. A longitudinal study throughout four years, following specific immigrant students as they enter the ninth grade, would be helpful to be able to shed light on the world and needs of immigrant students in South Florida secondary public schools.

There is yet another limitation in the study. The students' level of proficiency in the English language may be limited and they may need to receive extensive explanations. According to the composition of the immigrant student group, the Informed Consents for parents will be translated. (See Appendix F for the Spanish translation and Appendix G for the Haitian-Creole translation.)

Additionally, this researcher enjoyed thirty years of experience as a bilingual/ESL (English as a Second Language) educator for the San Francisco Unified School District in California and in Puerto Rico, mostly with high school students. Throughout those years, the researcher participated in numerous college courses and in many workshops, trainings, and staff development days at the district level and also at educational conventions. Those experiences provided the researcher with up-to-date knowledge on best practices based on research in the fields of

bilingual education and English as a Second Language (ESL). These extensive experiences may be sources of biases on the part of the researcher in the discussion.

Definition of Terms

The following are the definitions of the most important terms regarding this research:

1.   Acculturation: The process of becoming adapted to a new culture (Brown, 1994). A reorientation of thinking and feeling, not to mention communication, is necessary for acculturation (Brown, 1994).

2.   Anxiety: The emotional state of mind characterized by a full range of emotions that include from mild irritability to deep psychological panic and crisis, associated with feelings of estrangement, anger, indecision, frustration, unhappiness, sadness, loneliness, homesickness, and even physical illness (Brown, 1994). In the classroom it may manifest itself as fear of being made fun of by peers.

3.   Bilingual Education: An educational program involving instruction in two languages, with the goal being to promote bilingualism (proficiency in both languages) [Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory (NWREL), 2001].

4.   ELL: English language learner. It refers to the students who are enrolled in ESL/ESOL classes to learn English. These students are

also referred to as language minority students or LEP (limited English proficient) students.

5. ESL (English as a Second Language): ELL students are taught English as a second language, with limited emphasis on maintaining or developing proficiency in their first language (NWREL, 2001). ESL is a system of instruction that enables students who are not proficient in English and who are having difficulties in the classrooms to acquire academic proficiency in spoken and written English (Ovando & Collier, 1998).

6. ESOL (English for Speakers of Other Languages): This is the term used in the Southeast of the United States that means the same as ESL (TESOL, 2003).

7. Hispanic: Although the federal government uses this term to include all Spanish-speaking individuals, in this study it refers to the Mexican immigrant students.

8. Immigrant: A foreign-born individual who usually has been admitted to reside permanently in the United States as a lawful permanent resident (NWERL, 2001).

9. LEP (Limited English Proficient) Student: Individuals whose native language is a language other than English, and who may be either born in the United States or in another nation and may have acquired only an initial ability to understand and speak English (NWREL, 2001).

10.   LEP Committee: This is the committee that addresses issues concerning the Limited English Proficient (LEP) students (ELL students) in the school. It is composed of teachers, parents, paraprofessionals, and, sometimes, students who discuss the issues that affect ELL students, such as whether an ELL student may be reclassified or redesignated from LEP to FEP (Fluent English Proficient), and, as such, may be enrolled in mainstream English language classes.

11.   Mainstreamed: Refers to a student who was enrolled in an ESOL program, and after being in the ESOL program for the amount of time specified by the state or local authorities, has been reclassified from LEP to FEP (fluent English proficient) and exited from the ESOL program. These students are enrolled in mainstream English language classes after being reclassified (NWREL, 2001).

12.   Mainstreamed-ESOL: This is another way to denote that a student was previously enrolled in an ESOL program and was reclassified or redesignated and enrolled in mainstream English language classes.

13.   Newcomer: Refers to a person who has recently arrived in the United States (NWREL, 2001). It is usually the term used to refer to an immigrant student.

14.   Redesignation: The process by which students who are labeled "Limited English Proficient" (LEP) get their classification changed

to "Redesignated as Fluent English Proficient (R-FEP) after passing an English proficiency test (de Jong & Ramos, 2003). ELL students who are redesignated are enrolled in mainstream English language classes.

15. SI (Sheltered Instruction): SI is an educational approach for teaching content material to ELL students in strategic ways to make subject matter concepts comprehensible while promoting English language development (Short, 2000). SI uses special techniques to enhance comprehension for ELL students, such as the use of visual aids (pictures, charts, graphs, graphic organizers, and semantic mapping), modeling of instruction, scaffolding (the breaking down of information into smaller pieces to facilitate understanding), supplemental materials, and alternative tools for assessment, such as portfolios. SI is also referred to as SDAIE (Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English), particularly in California.

Chapter II

Review of the Literature

Introduction

Although many students who arrive in the United States have a high level of literacy, the majority have little or no literacy in their native language (Rennie, 1993). Some children who arrive in this country come with excellent literacy skills in their native language, but many are not so fortunate in this respect. Social, economic, and cultural factors in their home country may have interrupted their schooling – if indeed, they attended school at all (Rennie, 1993).

Federal legislation (Public Law 103-382, the *Improving America's Schools Act* of 1994) mandates that all immigrant students receive equal access to learning the English language through the public school system in the United States. However, there is a discrepancy between what federal legislation prescribes, and what schools are achieving. There is great diversity among the schools regarding the English skills being taught, and the programs and strategies being implemented which are to assist English language learners (ELL students) in meeting high school graduation requirements (Mace-Matluck, Alexander-Kasparic, & Queen, 1998). This suggests that the educational needs of immigrants are not currently being met by the U. S. public school system (Norrid-Lacey & Spencer, 2000). Providing appropriate instruction to immigrant students who are also English language learners (ELL students) has become an issue of particular concern to educators across the country, and this concern is especially acute at the secondary level (Mace-Matluck et al.,

1998).

A growing number of recent immigrant students are entering U. S. middle and high schools with little or no prior formal schooling and low literacy skills (Mace-Matluck et al., 1998). For these students to succeed in U. S. schools, they must learn to read, write, understand, and speak English fluently. Additionally, ELL students need to develop academic literacy in English to make the transition to the labor force or into other educational programs. Furthermore, they need to become socialized into American society during adolescence, a time of major emotional, physical, and psychological change (Mace-Matluck et al., 1998).

Language Acquisition

Second language acquisition theories were developed along the lines of first language acquisition theories (Gitsaki, 1998). Stephen Krashen's model is one of the most influential and well-known theories of language acquisition (Gitsaki, 1998).

Beginning in the late 1970s, Krashen developed the Monitor Model, his theory of second language acquisition. The five central hypotheses underlying the Monitor Model are:

1. The Acquisition versus Learning Hypothesis: Acquisition is a subconscious process, much like first language acquisition, while learning is a conscious process resulting in "knowing about language" (Krashen, 1982: 10). Learning does not "turn into" acquisition. It usually takes place in formal environments, while acquisition can take place without learning in informal environments (Krashen, 1976, 1982).

2. The Monitor Hypothesis: Learning has the function of monitoring and editing the utterances produced through the acquisition process (Krashen, 1982: 15). The use of the Monitor is affected by the amount of the time that the second language learner has at his/her disposal to think about the utterance he/she is about to produce, the focus on form, and his/her knowledge of second language rules (Krashen, 1981: 3-4).

3. The Natural Order Hypothesis: There is a natural order of acquisition of second language rules. Some of them are early acquired, and some are late acquired. This order does not necessarily depend on simplicity of form while it could be influenced by classroom instruction (Krashen, 1985).

4. The Input Hypothesis: According to Krashen, receiving comprehensible input is the only way that can lead to the acquisition of a second language. If a learner's level in a second language is designated as i, he/she can move to an $i+1$ level [1 designates the addition of one concept in language] only by being exposed to comprehensible input containing $i+1$ (Krashen, 1985).

5. The Affective Filter Hypothesis: Comprehensible input will not be fully utilized by the learners if there is a "mental block," i. e. the "affective filter," that acts as a barrier to the acquisition process (Krashen, 1985).

Krashen's Monitor Theory attempts to cover most of the factors involved in second language acquisition: age, personality traits, classroom instruction, innate mechanisms of language acquisition, environmental influences, input, etc., but not without limitations (Gitsaki, 1998). Although the Monitor Theory has much popularity, theorists and researchers, mainly on the grounds of its definitional

inadequacy, have criticized it (Gitsaki, 1998).

Numerous factors influence the rate of second language acquisition, such as age, attitudes, motivation, native language literacy, and previous schooling (Thomas & Collier, 2002). It takes much longer than one or even three years to learn a second language and reach comparable native speaker norms on standardized tests (Collier, 1987).

Bilingual Education

Bilingualism and bilingual education have been an integral part of the U. S. tradition, even before the United States became an independent nation (Kloss, 1998). Private and public schools taught their students in English, and in native languages as varied as Cherokee, Dutch, German, Polish, Italian, and Czech (Castro Feinberg, 2002; Crawford, 2000; Ovando & Collier, 1998; Rothstein, 1998).

However, tolerance for multilingualism drastically changed after waves of new immigrants arrived in the late 1880s and after the United States decided to participate in World War I (Crawford, 1992). "Being a good American" was equated with learning English (only) and with shedding one's own language and culture (Crawford, 2000). Non-native English-speaking children were generally placed in English-only classrooms without any regard for their needs (the "sink-or-swim" approach) though some received English as a Second Language (ESL) services (Castellanos, 1985; Crawford, 1999).

Transitional bilingual education (TBE) programs use English and the students' native language for instruction (de Jong & Ramos, 2003). The native

language is a temporary bridge into English literacy in order to mainstream students into the English-only classroom (Brisk, 1998).

James Cummins, who is one of the leading proponents of bilingual education, has conducted extensive research on teaching children in two languages. He has found that the results of the evaluations of many bilingual education programs show either no relationship or a negative relationship between the amount of school exposure to the majority language and academic achievement in that language. Instruction of children in their minority language entails no loss in the development of their English academic skills.

According to research (Cummins, 1979, 1984, 1986; Krashen, 1991), the best way to help students with little or no English language proficiency would be with an effective, well-designed bilingual education program. Language minority students instructed through their native language for all or part of the school day perform as well in English academic skills as comparable students instructed totally through English (Cummins, 1986).

The central theme of Cummins' (1986) framework is the empowerment of language minority children. Cummins believes that language minority students are disabled or disempowered by schools in the same manner that members of communities are disempowered by interactions with societal institutions.

Cummins further believes that the correct method of teaching should be a "reciprocal interaction" model. The use of this model requires that a genuine dialogue in both oral and written modalities is developed between teacher and student, and, especially, between student and student. Teachers, according to Cummins' model,

should provide guidance and facilitation rather than control. This model emphasizes the development of higher-level cognitive skills rather than simply factual recall, as well as meaningful language use by the students rather than the teacher's correction of only surface forms.

Cummins (1984) proposed a theoretical framework that describes the relationship between second language development and academic achievement. One essential component of this framework centers on the notion that academically mediated language skills can be transferred across languages in a manner that facilitates the acquisition of these skills in the second language (August, Calderón & Carlo, 2001). That notion is part of the linguistic interdependence hypothesis, which states that the level of L2 [second language] competence that a [future] bilingual child attains is partially a function of the type of competence the child has developed in L1 [native language] at the time when intensive exposure to L2 begins (Cummins, 1979, p. 233).

The principles that emphasize successful bilingual education are the same principles that underlie successful language acquisition in general, according to Krashen (1991). These principles are the following:

- We acquire a second language by understanding messages, by obtaining comprehensible input.
- Background knowledge can help make second language input more comprehensible, and can thus assist in the acquisition of the second language.
- The development of literacy occurs in the same way as second language acquisition does (Krashen, 1991, NCBE paper).

Both Cummins (1979, 1984, 1986) and Krashen (1991) emphasize that instruction in the native or first language (L1) is very important in any bilingual education program. Basically, subject matter teaching in the first language without translation combined with comprehensible (sheltered) input in English in the form of high quality English as a Second Language (ESL or ESOL) classes are the main components for a successful bilingual education program (Krashen, 1991).

Effective Schools for Immigrant Students

Whether it is a school with a bilingual education program or a Sheltered Instruction program, there are some characteristics that the schools must have to ensure success for language minority students. Lucas, Henze, and Donato (1990) identified characteristics of schools that promote success among immigrant students:

- The school staff is committed to the educational success of the students, has high expectations for them, publicly recognizes their achievements, and values the students' native languages and cultures throughout the school.

- A wide variety of content courses are offered in the students' native languages and through sheltered content instruction in English. Teachers are proficient in bilingual and ESL teaching strategies for secondary school students.

- Counselors speak the students' native language, have the same or similar cultural backgrounds, are knowledgeable about post-secondary educational opportunities for immigrant students, and involve parents in decisions about their children's education.

- School administrators provide proactive leadership by being knowledgeable

about recent research and practice in bilingual and ESL education at the secondary level, by developing structures to strengthen and deliver curriculum and instruction, and by placing high priority on professional development for all school staff to help teachers and counselors serve immigrant students more effectively.

Effective Programs for Immigrant Students

Mace-Matluck, Alexander-Kasparik, and Queen (1998) offer some essential features of effective programs for immigrant students with little schooling in their book, *Through the Golden Door: Educational Approaches for Immigrant Adolescents with Limited Schooling.* (This book is part of the Center for Applied Linguistics series entitled *Topics in Immigrant Education.*) They refer to

- Program Location – A common strategy is to place immigrant English language learners in a specialized learning environment. That could be an all-day or half-day newcomer separate school or a program, which would serve as a school within a school. These centers would offer classes in the native language and classes in English that are adapted and sheltered.

- Program Structure – The ultimate educational goal for all immigrant students is to perform well in regular content and elective classes. To prepare for academic success, these students need access to courses that focus on literacy and study skills, content courses that are taught through the native language, and sheltered content courses that are taught in English and are adapted to make the content more accessible.

- Registration and Placement Procedures – Intake centers should be conveniently located, appropriately staffed, and provide essential services. Interpreters should be available to interview students and their families in their native languages. Registration materials should be provided in the native languages. It is essential to assess both native language skills and English proficiency and to evaluate prior school experience. The educational levels of parents and siblings should also be assessed to be able to develop an accurate profile.

- Transitions to Other Programs – Comprehensive exit criteria need to be in place. The students' families need to be well informed about such criteria.

- Comprehensive Services and Family Involvement – Schools must find ways to establish regular, two-way channels of communication. The students' family members need to be instructed about the U. S. school system and the different expectations concerning the appropriate roles of parents and school personnel. The school staff must demonstrate sensitivity to different cultural variations of family roles. Home visits are a must.

- Staff Background and Professional Development – Educators who work with immigrant students must maintain academic standards and have high expectations of their students. They must teach with sensitivity and compassion and be knowledgeable about their students' language and cultural backgrounds, their personal circumstances and strengths, and their language, literacy, and academic needs. ESL and content teachers must be familiar with the basic concepts and theories underlying ESL instruction.

Sheltered Instruction for Language Acquisition

The sheltered instruction approach has been used in the ESL and bilingual classrooms in the U. S. since the 1970s (Newman & Nyikos, 1999). This method uses special techniques to enhance comprehension for English language learners (ELL students). Sheltered techniques include: the use of visual aids such as pictures, charts, graphs, and semantic mapping; modeling of instruction; allowing students to negotiate meaning and make connections between course content and prior knowledge; allowing students to act as mediators and facilitators; the use of alternative assessments to check comprehension; portfolios, use of comprehensible input, scaffolding (the breaking down of information to facilitate understanding), and supplemental materials; and a wide range of presentational strategies (Newman & Nyikos, 1999).

The learning environment needs special attention. There are four basic factors that affect the learning environment for ESOL students. These factors are:

- Create a low anxiety level in the classroom to lower the affective filter so that students receive comprehensible input (Krashen, 1982).

- Implement effective, research-based teaching techniques using appropriate strategies (Krashen, 1982).

- Use "conversations" that are scaffolded by more fluent speakers of the target language to enhance and develop students' language ability (Krashen, 1992). Make use of the English language through conversations for meaningful purposes (Walqui, 2000).

- Validate and celebrate the students' cultures (Walqui, 2000). This is important, if the ELL students are to make a successful transition to the new culture.

English Language Learners (ELL students) or language minority students come with a great deal of diversity in their academic and linguistic abilities. It is difficult to reach all of them effectively because of this diversity. Sheltered instruction (SI) is an approach for teaching content to ELL students in strategic ways to make subject matter concepts comprehensible while promoting English language development (Short, 2000). SI may also be referred to as SDAIE (Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English), particularly in California.

Some ELL students have strong academic backgrounds. They are literate in their native languages. These students tend to be more successful in U. S. schools if they receive appropriate language and content instruction (Short, 2000). Other ELL students have limited formal schooling and are not literate in their native languages. These students need literacy skills, English language development, and content area knowledge, and, generally, they are most at risk of educational failure (Short, 2000). This approach benefits ELL students because the more familiar they are with academic tasks and routine classroom activities, the easier it will be for them to focus on the new content once they make the transition to a regular, English-medium classroom (Short, 2000).

According to Short (2000), few teachers are prepared through undergraduate or graduate work to be SI teachers. Short (2000) further asserts that even those programs that include SI topics on the syllabus of an ESL or bilingual methods

33

course, for example, lack a model for teachers to follow.

The Center for Research on Education, Diversity and Excellence (CREDE) has developed an SI model, the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP), intended to mitigate the variability that exists in the design and delivery of SI models across the United States. This model is also intended to provide guidance as to what constitutes the best practices for SI (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2000). The theoretical structure of the model is that language acquisition is enhanced through meaningful use and interaction. Teachers generally present the regular, grade-level subject curriculum to the students through modified instruction in English, although some special curricula may be designed for students with significant gaps in their educational backgrounds or low literacy skills (Short, 2000).

The SIOP model has been used for three years (1997 – 2000) in four large metropolitan school districts (two on the West Coast and two on the East Coast). According to Short (2000) in her paper/report, *What Principals Should Know about Sheltered Instruction for English Language Learners*, preliminary results of the CREDE research project reveal that there was a statistically significant difference in writing skill improvement between the group of students who participated in classes taught by teachers trained in the project's SI model and the group of students in control classes (teachers not trained in the project's SI model).

Theoretical Framework: Anxiety

Parents and teachers have long suspected that stress, depression, and anxiety all hamper young people's academic achievement (Alva & de los Reyes, 1999).

Changing school, parents divorcing, or parents losing their jobs [not to mention immigrating] can all be very difficult events for young people (Alva & de los Reyes, 1999).

Alva and de los Reyes (1999) produced research that demonstrates how Hispanic students suffer from these problems. They found that such stress and anxiety debilitates Hispanic students' perceptions of their own competence, which in turn makes them perform less well in school. They also found that poverty is one of the factors that helps put Hispanic students at a disadvantage.

General theories of anxiety can be conceptualized using two models: Pekrun's (1992) Expectancy-Value Theory of Anxiety (EVTA) and Bandura's (1991) theory of self-efficacy (Papppamihiel, 2002). According to these two models, concepts of worry and distraction relate first appraisals of situations as threatening or not and then to learners' determinations of their efficacy in dealing with those situations (Pappamihiel, 2002).

According to Pekrun (1992), foreseeing negative, potentially harmful events in which individuals cannot see themselves as effective mediators often produces anxiety. Bandura's (1991) theory of self-efficacy posits that when a situation is perceived as threatening, the resulting anxiety is dependent on an individual's perception of his/her ability to deal positively with that threat.

An adverse effect on learning can result when students see situations as threatening (Pappamihiel, 2002). When the student is constantly preoccupied with the threat that a learning situation presents, he/she cannot fully concentrate on that task.

Students sometimes are self-deprecating, or they involve themselves in self-focused thoughts that interfere with feelings of self-efficacy (Pappamihiel, 2002). According to Pappamihiel, anxiety is a complex concept, dependent on not only one's feelings of self-efficacy, but also on appraisals in relation to the potential and perceived threats inherent in certain situations.

Pekrun (1992) argues that in instances of high anxiety, habitualized reactions can cause individuals who have experienced many threatening situations in the past to be more likely to perceive future situations as threatening. Because some individuals are more prone to anxiety than others, it is necessary to differentiate between individuals who are often anxious and those who are not; Spielberg (1983) refers to this differentiation as "the state/trait dichotomy" (Pekrun, 1992).

Individuals who are more anxious and more likely to become anxious regardless of situations are referred to as having *trait anxiety*; that is, anxiety is a part of their character or an aspect of a more serious disorder (Pappamihiel, 2002). However, those who are able to appraise situations accurately as being threatening or not within reasonable limits are said to have *state anxiety*, a social type of anxiety that occurs only under certain conditions. This differentiation is critical because it allows the separation of individuals who are anxious in any variety of situations from those who would not normally be anxious (Pappamihiel, 2002).

In the field of second language acquisition, MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) draw on the work done by Spielberger (1983) to make an additional distinction: situation-specific anxiety. Those who suffer from situation-specific anxiety may

evaluate certain situations as anxiety producing only when certain factors are present (Pappamihiel, 2002).

Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) argue that people who feel competent in their native language can feel reduced to a childlike state when asked to use a second language. They conclude that language anxiety can be associated with three factors: a fear of negative evaluation, test anxiety, and communication apprehension.

In terms of self-concept and identity, Guiora (1983) argues that language learning can be extremely traumatic for some students because it threatens their sense of self and worldview. While investigating physiological aspects of language anxiety, Schumann (1997) maintains his pidginization hypothesis in which he posits a strong relationship between an individual's willingness to acquire a language and his or her relationship with the target language group. Pidginization is characterized by simplifications and reductions occurring in the learner's interlanguage which lead to fossilization when the learner's interlanguage system does not progress in the direction of the target language (Schumann, 1997). In a specific situation such as language learning, a fear of negative evaluation, test anxiety, communication apprehension, and threats to one's sense of self can reduce feelings of self-efficacy and increase the chances that a second language situation will be seen as threatening (Pappamihiel, 2002).

Often ELL students who lack proficiency in English are subject not only to judgments about their language ability, but also about their significance as individuals (Cummins, 1996). The difference between social English and academic English proficiency can create false impressions about how much English an ELL student

should learn in a certain amount of time. Social English, referred to by Cummins (1984, 2000) as basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS), can be acquired in one or two years. However, the cognitive/academic language proficiency (CALP) that is needed to be successful academically can take anywhere from five to eight years to acquire (Collier, 1987; Cummins, 2000).

General issues of self-efficacy and expectancy-value theory can be influenced by a fear of negative evaluation, test anxiety, communication apprehension, and identity factors (Pappamihiel, 2002). According to this author, English language anxiety can be described as a social anxiety, dependent upon interactions with others. And according to Vygostky (1978), learning is dependent upon the social interactions that occur in the classroom. Withdrawal from this interaction as a result of English language anxiety is perhaps the most harmful effect of English language anxiety (Pappamihiel, 2002). Teachers and administrators need to identify anxious ELL students within their schools and classrooms before the students are mainstreamed to be able to provide better services to these students, so they can increase their opportunity for success (Pappamihiel, 2002).

Theoretical Framework: Acculturation

Researchers Alva and de los Reyes (1999) also found that Hispanic students suffer from certain acculturation problems that can negatively affect their academic performance. They found that these acculturation problems can include feeling pressured to speak Spanish at home and living in a home with too many people. Another common difficulty they found is that Hispanic adolescents are frequently

expected to serve as interpreters for their parents in financial and legal transactions, which places a great deal of responsibility on their young shoulders.

Acculturation is a type of culture change initiated by the conjunction of two or more autonomous cultures (Collier, 1987). The dynamics of acculturation include selective adaptation of the value system, integration, and differentiation processes (Collier, 1987). Acculturation does not necessarily mean assimilation; it refers to the process by which members of one culture adapt to the presence of another culture, which may be through integration, assimilation, rejection, or deculturation (Padilla, 1980).

When students are confronted with literacy demands coupled with the multi-faceted, multi-layered process of acculturation, development of literacy skills will be influenced (García-Vázquez, 1995). While many definitions have been given for acculturation, Redfield, Lenton, and Herkovits' (1936) definition has become most commonly used among researchers (García-Vázquez, 1995). Their definition is Acculturation is the process which occurs as the result of first-hand contact between autonomous groups leading to changes in the original changes in the original cultures of either or both of the cultures. In other words, acculturation describes the adaptation process of different individuals to a dominant culture (García-Vázquez, 1995).

The process of acculturation results in direct lifestyle changes at the individual and/or group level, and is developed in three stages: contact, conflict, and adaptation (Padilla, 1980). Contact takes place when two cultural groups interact (Mena, Padilla, & Maldonado, 1987). Conflict may occur as a result of a group or individual resisting the dominance of another group (Berry et al., 1989). Conflict is a power struggle

39

between two opposing belief systems (García-Vázquez, 1995). Finally, adaptation

may take the form of adjustment when the cultural behaviors of the minority group

become similar to those of the dominant group in order to reduce conflict (Berry et

al., 1989). Adaptation, according to Berry et al. (1989), may also take the form of

reaction, in which the minority group may experience aggression and disagreement in

regards to the dominant group's views of their own culture. This reaction may

manifest itself by forming political groups or organizations. And, according to the

same author, adaptation may take the way of withdrawal, by such situations as

segregation and the building of isolated communities away from the dominant

culture.

Learning English becomes the first major cultural challenge in which students

must acculturate in the schools in order to become academically successful (García-

Vázquez, 1995). Learning a second language has also been found to be highly

correlated to acculturation (Keefe & Padilla, 1987).

This research study will address Schumann's (1978, 1986) Acculturation

Model to find the relationship between acculturation and anxiety among immigrant

students.

Schumann (1986) claims that acculturation, or the integration of the second language

(L2) learner into the target linguistic community is not a direct cause of second

language acquisition (SLA), but rather it is the first in a chain of factors which results

in natural SLA (Graham & Brown, 1996). He proposes that "acculturation as a

remote cause brings the learner into contact with the targeted language speakers and

verbal interaction with those speakers as a proximate cause brings about the

negotiation of appropriate input which then operates as the immediate cause of language acquisition" (p. 385).

Schumann's acculturation model includes seven social variables which presumably affect the quantity and quality of contact that second language learners have with the target language community, thus affecting SLA (Graham & Brown, 1996). He makes the following claims for each of the sociocultural variables:

1. Social dominance: If the second language-learning group is politically, culturally, technically or economically dominant to or subordinate to the target language group, social contact between the two groups will tend not to be sufficient for optimal target language acquisition. If they are nearly equal in status, then there will be more contact between the two groups, and thus, acquisition of the target language will be enhanced.

2. Assimilation, preservation, and adaptation: The best condition for second language acquisition is obtained when the second language-learning group wants to assimilate into the target language group. The second best condition occurs when the second language-learning group wants to adapt to the target language culture for intragroup interaction without assimilating to it. The least favorable conditions for acquiring the second language is when the second language- learning group wishes to remain separated linguistically and culturally from the target language group.

3. Enclosure: The more the second language learning groups share social institutions such as schools, churches, workplaces, clubs, and others with the

target language group, the more favorable the conditions for second language acquisition.

4. Cohesiveness and size: The smaller and less cohesive the second language-learning group, the more likely the contact with the target language group and the more favorable the conditions for second language acquisition.

5. Congruence: The more similar the culture of the two groups, the more likely there will be social contact and thus language acquisition.

6. Attitude: The more positive the views of the second language-learning group toward the target language group, the more favorable will be the conditions for second language acquisition.

7. Intended length of residence: The longer second language learners plan to remain in the second language environment, the more likely it is that they will feel the necessity of learning the target language.

The four affective variables included in Schumann's acculturation model are:

1. Language shock, or the degree to which speaking the new language makes the learner feel foolish or comical;

2. Culture shock, or the extent to which the learner feels disoriented and uncomfortable with extended residence in a new culture;

3. Ego permeability, or the ability of the learner to accept a new cultural identity associated with belonging to a new speech community; and

4. Motivation, or the degree and type of desire experienced by the learner to acquire the second language.

In Schumann's model, high levels of motivation (Gardner, 1985; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991) contribute positively to second language acquisition. Schumann argues that "the degree to which a learner acculturates to the target language group will control the degree to which he acquires the second language" (Schumann, 1978, p. 34), but he makes his claim only for the context of natural second language acquisition, i.e., where learning takes place in the environment where the second language is spoken and without direct language instruction (Schumann, 1986, p. 385).

A language is a part of a culture and a culture is a part of a language: the two are intricately interwoven so that one cannot separate the two without losing the significance of either language or culture (Brown, 1994). Second language learning in some respects involves the acquisition of a second identity (Brown, 1994). In order to understand what second culture learning is, one needs to understand the nature of acculturation, culture shock, and social distance (Brown, 1994).

Culture shock is a common experience for a person learning a second language in a second culture (Brown, 1994). According to Brown (1994), culture shock refers to phenomena ranging from mild irritability to deep psychological panic and crisis, associated with feelings of estrangement, anger, hostility, indecision, frustration, unhappiness, sadness, loneliness, homesickness, and even physical illness" (p. 169). The same author explains that culture shock is a form of anxiety resulting from the loss of commonly perceived and understood signs, rules, and symbols of social intercourse.

Social distance refers to the cognitive and affective proximity of two cultures that come into contact within an individual (Brown, 1994). Distance denotes

dissimilarity between the two cultures. When learners encounter a new culture, their acculturation process will be a factor of how they perceive their own culture in relation to the culture of the target language and vice versa (Brown, 1994).

Chapter III

Research Methodology

Chapter III presents a description of the methodology for this research study. It includes the research questions, a description of the research design, a description of the setting, a description of the sample, the instrumentation, the procedures, and the data analyses methods.

Quantitative research was used to study the relationship between the level of anxiety and the degree of acculturation among immigrant ESOL students in a public, rural high school in South Florida. The design is a quantitative approach to study the relationship between anxiety and acculturation.

According to research, empirical measures result in objective data (Creswell, 2003). Empiricism is emphasized through the use of numerical data (McMillan, 2004). Meaningful interpretations of data are obtained from the validity and the reliability of the scores of the instruments (Creswell, 2003). Based on those findings, this researcher chose to conduct a quantitative study.

Research Questions

1. Are there differences in the degree of acculturation between Mainstreamed and ESOL immigrant students in a public, rural high school in South Florida in terms of program, gender, and ethnicity?

2. What is the relationship between grade level and years of English language studied and the degree of acculturation among immigrant

45

students in a public, rural high school in South Florida and within Mainstreamed, ESOL, Haitian, and Hispanic groups?

3. Are there differences in the level of anxiety between Mainstreamed and ESOL immigrant students in a public, rural high school in South Florida in terms of program, gender, and ethnicity?

4. What is the relationship between grade level and years of English language studied and the level of anxiety among immigrant students in a public, rural high school in South Florida and within Mainstreamed, ESOL, Haitian, and Hispanic groups?

5. What are the relationships between the degree of acculturation and the level of anxiety among immigrant students in a public, rural high school in South Florida and within Mainstreamed, ESOL, Haitian, and Hispanic groups?

Research Design

According to Gall, Borg, and Gall (1996), "positivist [or quantitative] research is grounded in the assumption that features of the social environment constitute an independent reality and are relatively constant across time and settings" (p. 28). This study employs quantitative research to generate numerical data to represent the social environment of immigrant students, using statistical methods to analyze the data.

The five research questions call for a non-experimental survey study with descriptive and exploratory purposes. The design uses quantitative methods. In non-experimental research, the investigator has no direct influence on what has been

selected to be studied, either because it has already occurred or because it cannot be influenced (McMillan, 2004). In other words, the investigator is unable to manipulate or control any factors or phenomena that may influence the subjects' behavior or performance (McMillan, 2004).

Attributes are characteristics of the sample that vary within the sample (Babbie, 2001). They are pre-existing qualities, and are not manipulated by the researcher in this study. They are more commonly called attribute rather than independent variables because they are not manipulated (Babbie, 2001).

This study uses attribute variables as independent variables and outcome (effect) variables as dependent variables. Independent and attribute variables are treated as causal variables, meaning that they cause something to happen. For example, the amount of time that the students spent studying the English language prior to coming to the U.S. may affect the level of anxiety (the effect/dependent variable).

The independent/causal/attribute variables are group, ethnicity, gender, grade level, and the time of English language studied in the student's native country. These are variables because they vary. For example, group is a variable because it varies as to whether students are Mainstreamed or not Mainstreamed (in other words, the students are ESOL students). Ethnicity is a variable because it varies as to whether students are Haitian or Hispanic. Gender is a variable because it varies as whether the student is female or male. Grade level is a variable because it varies from ninth to twelfth grades. The time of previous English language studied is a variable because it has a varying range.

The dependent/effect/outcome variables are the level of anxiety and the degree of acculturation. The English Language Anxiety Scale (ELAS) and the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM) gauge these variables. The ELAS is modeled after the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) designed by Horwitz et al (1986). Phinney (1992) developed the MEIM.

For research questions one to four, the dependent (outcome, effect) variables are the level of anxiety and the degree of acculturation. The attribute variables are the program status (ESOL or Mainstreamed), ethnicity, and gender. For research question number five, the level of anxiety is the causal variable and the degree of acculturation is the outcome variable.

Based on the five research questions, for analyses purposes, this researcher generated eleven research sub questions. The table below displays each of the research sub questions and the corresponding variables.

Table 1: Research Sub Questions and Variables

Research Sub Questions	Attribute Variable(s)	Outcome Variable(s)
1. Are there differences in the degree of acculturation among Mainstreamed ESOL & ESOL immigrant students?	Group: Mainstreamed versus not Mainstreamed (ESOL) *in the total group* (t-test)	Degree of acculturation
2. Are there differences in the degree of acculturation among Haitian & Hispanic immigrant students?	Ethnicity: Haitian versus Hispanic students *in the total group* (t-test)	Degree of acculturation
3. Are there gender differences in the degree of acculturation among Mainstreamed, ESOL, Haitian, & Hispanic immigrant students?	Gender (Male versus Female) 1. Gender Total group 2. Gender Mainstreamed 3. Gender ESOL 4. Gender Haitian 5. Gender Hispanic (separate t-tests)	1. Degree of Acculturation 2. Degree of Acculturation 3. Degree of Acculturation 4. Degree of Acculturation 5. Degree of Acculturation
4. What is the relationship between grade level & the degree of acculturation among immigrant students within Mainstreamed, ESOL, Haitian, & Hispanic groups?	Grade Level (range 9 – 12) *Total group & within group correlations* 1. Grade level Total group 2. Grade level Mainstreamed 3. Grade level ESOL 4. Grade level Haitian 5. Grade level Hispanic	1. Degree of Acculturation 2. Degree of Acculturation 3. Degree of Acculturation 4. Degree of Acculturation

	(separate correlation analyses)	5. Degree of Acculturation
5. What is the relationship between years of English language studied & the degree of acculturation among immigrant students within Mainstreamed, ESOL, Haitian, & Hispanic groups?	Years of English Language Studied (range 0 - ?) *Total group & within group correlations* 1. Years in Total Group 2. Years in Mainstreamed 3. Years in ESOL 4. Years in Hispanic 5. Years in Haitian (separate correlations analyses)	1. Degree of Acculturation 2. Degree of Acculturation 3. Degree of Acculturation 4. Degree of Acculturation 5. Degree of Acculturation
6. Are there differences in the level of anxiety among Mainstreamed & ESOL immigrant students?	Group: Mainstreamed versus ESOL *For Total group* (t-test)	Level of anxiety
7. Are there differences in the level of anxiety among Haitian & Hispanic immigrant students?	Ethnicity (Haitian versus Hispanic) *For Total group* (t-test)	Level of anxiety
8. Are there gender differences in the level of anxiety among Mainstreamed, ESOL, Haitian, & Hispanic immigrant groups?	Gender (Male versus Female) *Total group & within group* 1. Gender Total group 2. Gender Mainstreamed 3. Gender ESOL 4. Gender Haitian 5. Gender Hispanic (separate t-tests)	1. Level of Anxiety 2. Level of Anxiety 3. Level of Anxiety 4. Level of Anxiety 5. Level of Anxiety

9. What is the relationship between grade level & the level of anxiety among immigrant students within Mainstreamed, ESOL, Haitian, & Hispanic groups?	Grade level (range 9 – 12) *Total group & within group* 1. Grade level Total 2. Grade level Mainstreamed 3. Grade level ESOL 4. Grade level Haitian 5. Grade level Hispanic (separate correlation analyses)	1. Level of Anxiety 2. Level of Anxiety 3. Level of Anxiety 4. Level of Anxiety 5. Level of Anxiety
10. What is the relationship between years of English language studied & the level of anxiety among immigrant students within Mainstreamed, ESOL, Haitian, & Hispanic groups?	Years of English Language Studied (range 0 - ?) *Total group & within group* 1. Years in Total Group 2. Years in Mainstreamed 3. Years in ESOL 4. Years in Hispanic 5. Years in Haitian (separate correlation analyses)	1. Level of Anxiety 2. Level of Anxiety 3. Level of Anxiety 4. Level of Anxiety 5. Level of Anxiety
11. What are the relationships between the degree of acculturation & the level of anxiety among immigrant students within Mainstreamed, ESOL, Haitian, & Hispanic groups?	Level of Anxiety *Total group & within group* 1. Level of Anxiety Total group 2. Level of Anxiety Mainstreamed 3. Level of Anxiety ESOL 4. Level of Anxiety Haitian 5. Level of Anxiety Hispanic (separate correlation analyses)	1. Degree of Acculturation 2. Degree of Acculturation 3. Degree of Acculturation 4. Degree of Acculturation 5. Degree of Acculturation

The Setting

The study was conducted at a public, rural high school consisting of grades ninth to twelfth in a South Florida school district. The school demographics presented in this section are derived from the Florida Department of Education's School Advisory Council Report and Florida School Indicators Report. Data is current as of the 2000-2001 school year.

The school is a two-story building with ample parking. The corridors of the school are very clean and the surroundings are well kept.

The school enrolls a total of 1,191 students. The ethnicity of the school population is composed of 32% African-Americans, one percent American Indians, 61% Hispanics, and six percent Whites. It is important to note that the number of Haitian-Creole-speaking students is included in the African-American population. The ELL (English Language Learners) students comprise 12.4% of the total student population in the school. The dropout rate at this school is 5.3% compared to a statewide average of 3.8%.

Florida schools have a rating system by which each school receives a grade for their overall performance in several areas, including the reading and math test scores. They have an opportunity of improving their rating each year. For the 2000-2001 school year, this school received a D for its overall performance. It received an F for the 2001-2002 school year.

The school enrolls many students who have repeated grades. One hundred seventy-five freshmen have repeated a grade at least once. Fifty freshmen have

repeated a grade twice, and twenty-five have repeated a grade three times. In addition, seventy-five sophomores have repeated a grade at least once (Parker, 2002).

According to the Director of Alternative Programs of the district, being over-age is the number one reason for dropping out of school. In an effort to better its dropout rate, beginning in January 2003, twenty-four students in the school began a pilot program to get the unique help they need to graduate. That is, the students will get extra help with reading and reading comprehension, as well as extra help in mathematics.

The school is one of the largest migrant centers in the eastern United States. Migrant workers are those who travel from farm to farm to assist the owners of the farms to plant and harvest the crops. Migrant students, whose families travel seasonally to work on farms, represent about 70% of the 1,191 students at the school (Florida Department of Education, 2000/01).

Sample Description

The sample was selected from a rural high school in a South Florida school district. The sample included thirty-four students currently enrolled in the ESOL program and thirty students enrolled in mainstream English language classes. The second group of students was formerly enrolled in an ESOL program.

The participants in this study were selected based on specific criteria for selection.

Two groups of students were involved in this study. The criteria for the selection of the participants involved the following factors: 1) They were immigrant students in a

public high school in South Florida. 2) They were between the ages of 14 and 21. 3) One group of participants was enrolled in an English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) program. 4) The second group of students is presently enrolled in mainstream English language classes after being exited from the ESOL program. 5) The participants experienced the phenomenon being studied and understand the meaning and nature of the study (Gall, Borg, and Gall, 1996).

A Student Information Sheet was used to generate demographic data on the participating students. (See Appendix E for a copy of the Student Information Sheet.) Table 2 below presents the demographic characteristics of the sample. The table provides information on the size of the sample, and it delineates the number of students by gender and ethnicity. The students' ages and grade levels are also provided, as well as whether they speak English at home and their previous experience studying the English language.

Table 2: *Characteristics of the Sample*

Characteristics	Total Group N=64		Mainstream Group N=30		ESOL Group N=34	
Gender	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Male	34	53.12	19	63.33	15	44.12
Female	30	46.88	11	36.67	19	55.88
Ethnicity						
Haitian	36	56.25	17	56.67	19	55.88
Hispanic	28	43.75	13	43.33	15	44.12
Age	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
14	3	4.69	2	6.67	1	2.94
15	13	20.31	7	23.33	6	17.65
16	14	21.88	5	16.67	9	26.47
17	15	23.44	7	23.33	8	23.53
18	11	17.19	6	20.00	5	14.71
19	7	10.94	2	6.67	5	14.71
20	1	1.56	1	3.33	0	0.00
	Mean 16.67		Mean 16.60		Mean 16.74	
Grade	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
9th	19	29.69	6	20.00	13	38.24
10th	20	31.25	10	33.33	10	29.41
11th	17	26.56	7	23.33	10	29.41
12th	8	12.59	7	23.33	1	2.94
	Mean 10.22		Mean 10.50		Mean 9.97	
Speaks English at Home	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Yes	21	32.81	11	36.67	10	29.41
No	43	67.19	19	63.33	24	70.59
Years of Previous English Language Study	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
0	43	67.19	19	63.33	24	70.59
.1-.5	4	6.25	3	10.00	1	2.94
1	10	15.63	6	20.00	4	11.76
2	3	4.69	1	3.33	2	5.88
3	2	3.13	0	0.00	2	5.88
4	1	1.56	0	0.00	1	2.94
9	1	1.56	1	3.33	0	0.00
	Mean .56		Mean .59		Mean .54	

The participants were from fourteen to twenty years old. They are currently in ninth to twelfth grades. The students are either Haitian or Hispanic students. There are a total of sixty-four students in the sample, including thirty female and thirty-four male students. Of the sixty-four students, thirty-six are Haitian and twenty-eight are Hispanic. Of the sixty-four students, thirty-four are enrolled in an ESOL program and thirty are enrolled in mainstream English language classes after being exited from the ESOL program.

The Bilingual Verbal Ability Test is required in the context of entry and exit criteria for the ESOL program. After three years of participating in the ESOL program, the students are given the opportunity to take the BVAT again. A narrative report of the student's verbal cognitive ability, English language proficiency, and language use and exposure is provided. The test's satisfactory report, the ESOL teacher's recommendation, and the decision from the School LEP Committee are used to exit the student from the ESOL program, and the student is enrolled in mainstream English language classes. When the English language proficiency score is close to grade norms, the student will likely be successful in a mainstream classroom (Muñoz-Sandoval et al., 1998).

Among the students enrolled in the ESOL program, there were nineteen females and fifteen males of which nineteen were Haitian and fifteen were Hispanic. In the group of students enrolled in mainstream English language classes, there were eleven females and nineteen males of which seventeen were Haitian and thirteen were Hispanic.

Instrumentation

This study employed two instruments for the collection of quantitative data. The first instrument was the English Language Anxiety Scale (ELAS), which consists of twenty statements with a Likert-like scale that probes the participants' level of agreement or disagreement about anxiety in the ESOL and mainstream English classes. (See Appendix B for the statements included in the ELAS.) It has five options, one of them being a neutral position. The ELAS is modeled after a theoretically similar Likert-type anxiety assessment, the thirty-three-item Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) designed by Horwitz et al. in 1986. Validated by Horwitz (1991), the FLCAS is often used in the field of second language acquisition to assess the level of anxiety of the students. The ELAS and the FLCAS show statistical similarities. According to Cronbach's alpha test, the ELAS shows an internal consistency reliability of .89 with the FLCAS having an internal consistency reliability of .93 (Pappamihiel, 2002).

The second instrument used in this study is the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM), which measures the degree of acculturation. The MEIM is a fifteen-item set of statements with a Likert-like scale. (See Appendix A for the statements included in the MEIM.) Jean Phinney in the *Journal of Adolescent Research* originally published the MEIM in 1992. It has consistently shown good reliability, typically with alphas above .80 across a wide range of ethnic groups and ages (Phinney et al., 2001). On the basis of recent work, including a factor analysis of a large sample of adolescents (Phinney et al., 1998), it appears that the measure can best be thought of as comprising two factors, ethnic identity search (a developmental

and cognitive component) and affirmation, belonging, and commitment (an affective component). The preferred scoring is to use the mean of the item scores; that is, the mean of the twelve first items for an over-all score, and, if desired, the mean of the five items for search and the seven items for affirmation. Thus, the range of scores is from one to four.

The researcher followed the procedure detailed above for the scoring of the MEIM. A mean of the first twelve items was used for an over-all score, and a mean of the five items for search and a mean for the seven items for affirmation were also used.

Procedures

The researcher made telephone contact with the Principal of the school before visiting the school. The Principal assisted the researcher by providing a contact with the ESOL Coordinator at the school. A visit was arranged for the researcher to meet the prospective student participants for two consecutive weeks. The researcher visited the school twice prior to the commencement of the study. The data was collected during the researcher's third visit to the school.

The group of ESOL students consisted of two classes, one with sixteen students and the second with eighteen students, for a total of thirty-four student participants. The students were sitting in six rows consisting of six desks each. The ESOL Coordinator was present and assisted the researcher in the procedures. The researcher again explained the reasons for his presence and the purpose of the study. The Informed Consent for Parents and the Informed Assent for Participants were

explained and distributed. The students took the Informed Consent forms home and had the consents signed by their parents. The students signed the Informed Assent forms. The researcher and the ESOL Coordinator verified that the room temperature was comfortable and that there was sufficient lighting in the classroom.

The students received #2 pencils and they filled out the Student Information Sheet. (See Appendix E for a copy of the Student Information Sheet.) They were asked about their grade level, their age, their gender, if they speak English at home, and if they had any previous experience studying the English language in their native country. The Information Sheets were collected and organized.

The students in the ESOL program in Florida experience four levels of English language study. The participants in the study were enrolled in Level 2 of ESOL classes. Although they are all enrolled in Level 2, the students are at different levels of proficiency in English. Therefore, the researcher gave the students detailed explanations (including examples to guide them) on how to complete the ELAS, and answered all questions from the students. The students received assurances about confidentiality. The students completed the ELAS and the forms were collected and organized. Likewise, the students received an explanation about the MEIM, and all their questions were answered. The MEIM forms were collected and organized.

The mainstream students were summoned to the ESOL Coordinator's classroom through the school bulletin. They came to the classroom after class during two consecutive days. They sat in the same classroom as the ESOL students, which was in six rows of desks with six desks one behind the other. Their consent and assent

forms and their ELAS and MEIM forms were collected and organized in different folders.

Methods of Data Analysis

The correlational method, like the causal-comparative method to which it is closely related, is highly useful for studying problems in education and in other social sciences (Gall, Borg, and Gall, 1996). Its principal advantage over the causal-comparative or experimental methods is that it permits one to analyze the relationships among a large number of variables in a single study (Gall, Borg, and Gall, 1996). Another advantage of the correlational method is that it provides information concerning the degree of the relationship between the variables being studied (Gall, Borg, and Gall, 1996). The correlational study investigates relationships among two or more variables (McMillan, 2004).

Data reduction is the process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting, and transforming raw data. It is followed by the organization of information and data. The displays of data reduction allowed the researcher to arrive at proper insights and recommendations. The process of conclusion-drawing and verification takes place to reveal what the conclusions show and to verify the conclusions as the analysis proceeds. The analysis led the researcher to fulfill the purpose of the study and provided answers to the research questions.

The results of the ELAS and the MEIM were tabulated. The researcher used statistical methods to present evidence of the level of anxiety and the degree of acculturation of the participating students. A correlation between the results of the anxiety (the ELAS) and the acculturation (the MEIM) instruments was conducted by

means of the SPSS software. The ELAS and the MEIM were analyzed by means of correlations and two-tailed t-tests. Pearson r correlations and independent t-tests were performed. T-tests were used because only two variables at a time were compared, and this makes regression analysis unnecessary.

The findings in this study about anxiety and acculturation are presented in Chapter IV.

Chapter IV

Results

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between the level of anxiety and the degree of acculturation among immigrant students in a public, rural high school in South Florida. One group of students is currently enrolled in an ESOL program and the second group of students is enrolled in mainstream English language classes after being exited from the ESOL program.

In this chapter, the findings are reported in adequate detail to justify the conclusions. The results are organized as follows: 1) the research questions, 2) a narrative of the results of the analyses of the acculturation questions, 3) a narrative of the results of the anxiety questions, and 4) a narrative of the results of the question on anxiety and acculturation.

There are four groups of students being compared in the sample. One group consists of the students currently enrolled in the English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) program. Another group is composed of former ESOL students actually enrolled in mainstream English language classes after being exited from the ESOL program. The third group includes the Haitian students and the last group includes the Hispanic students. Both Haitian and Hispanic students are included in the Mainstreamed and the ESOL groups. Males and females in each group are being compared on their level of anxiety and their degree of acculturation. Two-tailed t-tests were used to ascertain the level of statistical significant difference among groups. The results are displayed in Tables 3 to 13.

Research Questions

These findings support the purpose of the study to answer the following research questions investigated:

1. Are there differences in the degree of acculturation among Mainstreamed ESOL and ESOL immigrant students in a public, rural high school in South Florida in terms of program status, gender, and ethnicity?

2. What is the relationship between grade level and years of English language studied and the degree of acculturation among immigrant students in a public, rural high school in South Florida and within Mainstreamed, ESOL, Haitian, and Hispanic groups?

3. Are there differences in the level of anxiety among Mainstreamed and ESOL immigrant students in a public, rural high school in South Florida in terms of program status, gender, and ethnicity?

4. What is the relationship between grade level and years of English language studied and the level of anxiety among immigrant Haitian and Hispanic students in a public, rural high school in South Florida?

5. What are the relationships between the degree of acculturation and the level of anxiety among immigrant students in a public,

rural high school in South Florida and within Mainstreamed,

ESOL, Haitian, and Hispanic groups?

Analyses of the Acculturation Questions

The MEIM consists of fifteen statements related to the degree of acculturation

of the participants. Only twelve of the statements were used for analysis of the

instrument. The statements are accompanied by a Likert-like scale with four options

to probe the level of agreement or disagreement on the part of the participants.

(Appendix A, which includes Table 13, displays the twelve statements of the MEIM

to which the students responded.) Using the 4-point Likert scale, all the participants

responded to the MEIM with answers that ranged from strongly disagree (#1) to agree

(#2) to disagree (#3) to strongly agree (#4).

This section presents the results of data analyses exploring the acculturation

differences between mainstream and ESOL students, Haitian and Hispanic students,

male versus female students, and the relationships between acculturation with grade

in school and years of English language studied. It begins with two research questions

and five sub questions related to acculturation and frequency distributions of

acculturation data.

The two research questions related to the degree of acculturation are the

following:

    1. Are there differences in the degree of acculturation between

       Mainstreamed and ESOL immigrant students in a public, rural high

school in South Florida in terms of program status, gender, and ethnicity?

2. What is the relationship between grade level and years of English language studied and the degree of acculturation among immigrant students in a public, rural high school in South Florida and within Mainstreamed, ESOL, Haitian, and Hispanic groups?

Research Question #1

Are there differences in the degrees of acculturation among Mainstreamed and ESOL immigrant students in a public, rural high school in South Florida in terms of program status, gender, and ethnicity?

Research Sub Question #1:

Are there differences in the degree of acculturation among Mainstreamed-ESOL and ESOL immigrant students in a public, rural high school in South Florida?

Table 3 below displays the mean scores between ESOL and Mainstreamed-ESOL students. It also displays the results of the two-tailed t-tests performed for the mean scores.

Table 3: *Acculturation MEIM Total Scale, Subscales, and Item Comparisons by Mainstreamed and ESOL Groups: Independent t-test Results (p=<.05)*

Variable	Mainstreamed		ESOL		*t*-test	*P*
	Mean	N	Mean	N		
MEIM Total Score	34.37	30	30.03	34	.20	Ns
MEIM: Ethnic Identity Search Subscale	12.80	30	13.24	34	-.68	Ns
MEIM: Affiliation, Belonging, and Commitment Subscale	21.57	30	20.79	34	.58	Ns

*p = < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001

Finding #1: There are no statistically significant differences among Mainstreamed and ESOL students in this study in their degree of acculturation.

Both the Mainstreamed and ESOL groups are composed of Haitians and Hispanics. Haitian and Hispanic students belong to two cultures that tend to remain separated linguistically and culturally from the English-speaking culture that surrounds them. This is reflected in Schumann's (1986) Acculturation Model, which states that, if a cultural group remains linguistically and culturally separate from the target culture, the acculturation process is hindered. Since both Hispanics and Haitians remain separate from the target culture, whether they are now in the Mainstreamed classes or in the ESOL program, there is no significant difference in acculturation between the two groups.

Sub Question #2:

Are there differences in the degree of acculturation between Haitian and Hispanic immigrant students in a public, rural high school in South Florida?

Table 4 below displays the mean scores for Haitian and Hispanic students by group status (ESOL and Mainstreamed-ESOL). The table also displays the results of the two-tailed t-tests performed for the degree of acculturation between Haitian and Hispanic students.

Table 4: *Acculturation MEIM Total Scale and Subscale Comparisons by Ethnicity for Total Group, Mainstreamed, and ESOL Groups: Independent t-test Results (p=<.05)*

Variable	Haitian		Hispanic		*t*-test	*P*
	Mean	N	Mean	N		
	Total Group					
MEIM Total Score	32.58	36	36.25	28	.202	Ns
	Mainstreamed Group					
MEIM Total Score	34.06	17	34.77	13	-0.291	Ns
	ESOL Group					
MEIM Total Score	31.26	19	37.53	15	-2.993	.005***
	Total Group					
MEIM: Ethnic Identity Search Subscale	12.42	36	13.82	28	-2.261	.027*
	Mainstreamed Group					
MEIM: Ethnic Identity Search Subscale	12.91	17	12.62	13	.353	Ns
	ESOL Group					
MEIM: Ethnic Identity Search Subscale	11.95	19	14.87	15	-3.82	.001***
	Total Group					
MEIM: Affiliation, Belonging, and Commitment Subscale	20.17	36	22.43	28	-1.75	Ns
	Mainstreamed Group					
MEIM: Affiliation, Belonging, and Commitment Subscale	21.12	17	22.15	13	-.524	Ns
	ESOL Group					
MEIM: Affiliation, Belonging, and Commitment Subscale	19.32	19	22.67	15	-1.95	Ns

*p = < .05. **p < .01. ***p<.001

Finding #2: For the Total MEIM scale (items 1 – 12), the results of the t-test for the

ESOL group reveal a significant statistical difference at the .001 level for the degree

of acculturation between Haitian and Hispanic students in the ESOL group. For the Ethnic Identity Subscale (items 1, 2, 4, 8, and 10) of the MEIM, the results of the t-test for the total group reveal a statistically significant difference at the .05 level for the degree of acculturation between Haitian and Hispanic students. The results of the t-test for the ESOL group reveal a significant statistical difference at the .001 level for the degree of acculturation between Haitian and Hispanic students in the ESOL group. In all three cases, it is the Hispanic group which displays the higher degree of acculturation. This means that the Hispanic students have a higher degree of acculturation. There is no significant statistical difference in acculturation among Haitian and Hispanic students in any of the groups for the Affiliation, Belonging, and Commitment Subscale (items 3, 5, 6, 7, 9, 11, and 12) of the MEIM.

According to Padilla (1980), Collier (1987), and García-Vázquez (1995), acculturation takes place through the first-hand contact between two different cultural groups. The Haitian and Hispanic students tend to keep themselves apart from the target language groups and, furthermore, they tend to keep apart from each other. Since it is the Hispanic group, however, that displays a higher degree of acculturation, the researcher infers that Hispanic students may have more community-based support than the Haitian students. This may explain why the Hispanic students have a higher degree of acculturation than Haitian students.

Sub Question #3:

Are there gender differences in the degree of acculturation among Mainstreamed-ESOL, ESOL, Haitian, and Hispanic students?

Table 5 below displays the mean scores for the male and female students as a total group, as members of the Mainstreamed group, as members of the ESOL group, as members of the Haitian group, and as members of the Hispanic group. The results of the two-tailed t-tests are also displayed in Table 5.

Table 5: *Acculturation MEIM Total Scale and Subscale Comparisons by Gender for Total Group, Mainstreamed, and ESOL Groups: Independent t-test Results (p=<.05)*

Variable	Female		Male		t-test	P
	Mean	N	Mean	N		
Total Group						
MEIM Total Score	33.73	30	34.58	34	-.51	Ns
Mainstreamed Group						
MEIM Total Score	33.00	11	35.60	19	-.869	Ns
ESOL Group						
MEIM Total Score	34.16	19	33.87	15	.123	Ns
Haitian Group						
MEIM Total Score	29.86	14	34.32	22	-2.075	.046*
Hispanic Group						
MEIM Total Score	37.13	16	35.08	12	.867	Ns
Total Group						
MEIM: Ethnic Identity Search Subscale	12.86	30	13.18	34	-.48	Ns
Mainstreamed Group						
MEIM: Ethnic Identity Search Subscale	12.18	11	13.16	19	-1.05	Ns
ESOL Group						
MEIM: Ethnic Identity Search Subscale	13.26	19	13.20	15	.06	Ns
Haitian Group						
MEIM: Ethnic Identity Search Subscale	11.07	14	13.27	22	-3.03	.005**
Hispanic Group						
MEIM: Ethnic Identity Search Subscale	14.44	16	13.00	12	1.481	Ns
Total Group						
MEIM: Affiliation, Belonging, and Commitment Subscale	20.87	30	21.41	34	-.415	Ns

	Mainstreamed Group					
MEIM: Affiliation, Belonging, and Commitment Subscale	20.82	11	22.00	19	-.582	Ns
	ESOL Group					
MEIM: Affiliation, Belonging, and Commitment Subscale	20.89	19	20.67	15	.12	Ns
	Haitian Group					
MEIM Affiliation, Belonging, and Commitment Subscale	18.79	14	21.05	22	-1.258	Ns
	Hispanic Group					
MEIM Affiliation, Belonging, and Commitment Subscale	22.69	16	22.08	17	.317	Ns

*p = < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001

Finding #3: The results of the t-test for the Total Score (items 1 – 12) of the MEIM reveal a significant statistical difference between males and females for the Haitian group at the .05 level. The results of the t-test for the Ethnic Identity Search Subscale (items 1, 2, 4, 8, and 10) reveal a statistically significant difference between males and females also for the Haitian group at the .01 level. In both cases, it is the male Haitians who display a higher degree of acculturation.

The gender differences in the degree of acculturation in the Haitian group may be attributed to the highly defined gender characteristics and roles for females versus males. The Haitian male is allowed more freedom than the Haitian female to explore and experience first hand the new culture.

Research Question #2:

What is the relationship between grade level and years of English language studied

and the degree of acculturation among Haitian and Hispanic immigrant students in a

public, rural high school in South Florida?

Sub Question #4: What is the relationship between grade level and the degree of

acculturation among immigrant students within Mainstreamed, ESOL, Haitian, and

Hispanic student groups in a public, rural high school in South Florida?

Table 6 below displays the results of the Pearson r correlations of the

relationships between grade level and degree of acculturation among immigrant

students in the study. The table displays the results by total group, Mainstreamed

group, ESOL group, Haitian group, and Hispanic group.

Table 6: Pearson r Correlations of Relationships between Grade Level and
Acculturation MEIM Scores, for Total Group, and Within Mainstreamed, ESOL,
Haitian, and Hispanic Groups

Correlations Between Grade Level and MEIM	Total Group	Main-stream Group	ESOL Group	Haitian Group	Hispanic Group
	N=64	N=30	N=34	N=36	N=28
	Pearson r	Pearson r	Pearson r	Pearson r	Pearson r
	P	P	p	P	p
MEIM Total Score	.039	.032	.099	.03	.076
	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
MEIM: Ethnic Identity Search Subscale	.003	-.052	.105	.009	.03
	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
MEIM: Affiliation, Belonging, and Commitment Subscale	.047	.-015	.076	.04	.075
	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns

*p = < .05. **p < .01, ***p < .001

Finding #4: There is no relationship between grade level and the degree of
acculturation among immigrant students in this study.

It was anticipated that there might have been a significant difference between
grade level and the degree of acculturation among immigrant students. Had there
been a significant difference, it would have been important to policymakers who
would then try to implement programs to help immigrant students in different grade
levels. One of the reasons that there was no relationship may be due to the fact that

there are various ages within each grade level due to the new State of Florida High School Graduation Requirements. The different ages within grade levels may be due to the fact that there is a high degree of retention at the school.

Sub Question #5:

What is the relationship between years of English language studied and the degree of acculturation among immigrant students within Mainstreamed, ESOL, Haitian, and Hispanic groups in a public, rural high school in South Florida?

Table 7 below displays the results of the Pearson r correlations of relationships between years of English language studied and the degree of acculturation among immigrant students in the study. It also displays the results by total group, Mainstreamed group, ESOL group, Haitian group, and Hispanic group.

Table 7: Pearson r Correlations of Relationships between Years of English Studied and Acculturation MEIM Scores, for Total Group, and Within Mainstreamed, ESOL, Haitian, and Hispanic Groups

Correlations Between Years of English Studied and MEIM	Total Group	Main-stream Group	ESOL Group	Haitian Group	Hispanic Group
	N=64	N=30	N=34	N=36	N=28
	Pearson r	Pearson r	Pearson r	Pearson r	Pearson r
	P	P	p	P	p
MEIM Total Score	.031	.042	.133	.17	.032
	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
MEIM: Ethnic Identity Search Subscale	.052	-.129	.049	.125	.21
	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
MEIM: Affiliation, Belonging, and Commitment Subscale	.014	.-112	.198	.268	.07
	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns

*p = < .05. **p < .01, ***p < .001

Finding #5: There is no relationship between the previous years of English language studied in the students' native countries and the degree of acculturation among the immigrant students in this study.

It was expected that some previous study of the English language would help the immigrant students with their acculturation and, consequently, with the learning of the English language. However, only thirty-one percent of the students had some exposure in limited degrees to the English language previous to coming to the United

States. Most of the students (67.2%) in the study had no previous exposure to the English language in their native countries. (See Table 2 on page 51.)

Analyses of the Anxiety Questions

The ELAS consists of 20 statements, which probe the level of anxiety of the students in ESOL classes and in mainstream English language classes. It is accompanied with a Likert-like scale that consists of five options, one of them being a neutral position. The options probe the level of agreement or disagreement with the statements on the part of the participants. (Appendix B, which contains Table 14, displays the twenty statements of the ELAS to which the students responded.)

This section presents the results of data analyses exploring the differences in the levels of anxiety between mainstream versus ESOL students, Haitian and Hispanic students, male versus female students, and the relationships between anxiety and grade in school, and years of English language studied. It begins with two research questions and five sub questions related to anxiety and the frequency distribution of anxiety data.

The two research questions related to the level of anxiety are the following:

3. Are there differences in the level of anxiety among Mainstreamed and ESOL immigrant students in a public, rural high school in South Florida in terms of program status, ethnicity, and gender?

4. What is the relationship between grade level and years of English language studied and the level of anxiety among immigrant students in

a public, rural high school in South Florida and within Mainstreamed,

ESOL, Haitian, and Hispanic students?

Research Question #3:

Are there differences in anxiety among Mainstreamed and ESOL immigrant students

in a public, rural high school in South Florida in terms of program status, ethnicity,

and gender?

Sub Question #6:

Are there differences in the level of anxiety between Mainstreamed and ESOL

immigrant students in a public, rural high school in South Florida?

Table 8 below displays the mean scores in the level of anxiety for the

Mainstreamed and ESOL students in relation to each of the twenty items in the

ELAS. It also displays the results for the two-tailed t-tests.

Table 8: *Anxiety Total Scale, Average Item Score, and Item Comparisons by Mainstreamed and ESOL Groups: Independent t-test Results (p=<.05)*

Variable	Mainstreamed N=30 Mean	ESOL N=34 Mean	*t*-test	*P*
Anxiety Total Score	74.07	59.44	3.82	.000***
Anxiety Average Item Score	3.70	2.97	3.82	.000***
Anxiety Items				
1. In ESOL/English classes, I forget how to say things I know in English.	3.87	3.21	2.15	.035*
2. In ESOL/English classes, I tremble when I know I'm going to have to speak in English.	3.40	3.00	1.09	Ns
3. In ESOL/English classes, I start to panic when I have to speak English without preparation.	3.73	2.88	2.77	.007**
4. In ESOL/English classes, when I speak English I feel like a different person.	3.67	3.26	1.87	Ns
5. In ESOL/English classes, even when I'm prepared to speak English, I get nervous.	3.40	2.91	1.48	Ns
6. In ESOL/English classes, I'm afraid that my teachers are ready to correct every mistake I make.	3.60	2.82	2.39	.020*
7. In ESOL/English classes, sometimes I can't express my true feelings in English and this makes me uncomfortable.	3.27	3.06	.648	Ns
8. In ESOL/English classes, I get nervous and confused when I speak English.	3.60	2.76	2.51	.015*
9. In ESOL/English classes, there are so many rules in English that I feel I can't learn them all.	3.53	2.88	1.91	Ns
10. In ESOL/English classes, I'm afraid that native English speakers will laugh at me when I speak English.	3.23	3.18	.172	Ns
11. I'm more nervous in the ESOL/English classes than in any other class.	3.90	3.56	1.05	Ns
12. I worry many times that I'm going to fail the ESOL/English classes.	3.67	2.97	1.94	.05
13. In ESOL/English classes, in group work I worry if my partner knows more English than me.	3.97	2.79	3.68	.000***
14. In ESOL/English classes, in group work I worry if my partner knows less English than me.	3.67	3.26	1.19	Ns
15. I get nervous when the teacher speaks to me in the ESOL/English classes.	4.33	2.82	5.01	.000***

16. In ESOL/English classes, I get embarrassed when I answer the teacher in English.	4.07	2.85	3.81	.000***
17. My stomach gets tight when I do something in ESOL/English classes.	3.90	3.15	2.33	.023*
18. In ESOL/English classes, I get so nervous that I forget everything.	3.97	2.91	3.20	.002**
19. In ESOL/English classes, I'm afraid to ask questions in English.	3.90	2.97	2.63	.011*
20. I daydream a lot in the ESOL/English classes.	3.73	2.74	3.16	.002**

*p = < .05. **p < .01, ***p < .001

Finding #6: There are statistically significant differences in the level of anxiety between Mainstreamed and ESOL immigrant students in this study. The results of the t-tests for the ELAS Total Score and the Average Item Score reveal significant differences at the .001 level. The results of the t-tests of Items 1, 6, 8, 12, 17, and 19 of the individual statements in the ELAS reveal significant statistical differences between the ESOL and the Mainstreamed groups in the students' level of anxiety at the .05 level. The results of the t-tests of Items 3, 18, and 20 of the individual statements of the ELAS reveal statistically significant differences between ESOL and Mainstreamed students at the .01 level. The results of the t-tests of Items 13, 15, and 16 of the individual statements of the ELAS reveal statistically significant differences at the .001 level between ESOL and mainstreamed students in this study. There was no statistically significant differences for Items 2, 4, 5, 9, 10, 11, and 14 of the individual statements of the ELAS.

These findings were expected. The students' level of anxiety interferes with their facility to acculturate, and, consequently, their lack of acculturation impedes their ability to learn English (Pappamihiel, 2002). All the mean scores for the ESOL students were lower on all twenty items of the ELAS. This indicates a higher level of

anxiety on the part of the ESOL students as compared to the Mainstreamed students. The ESOL students reported more frequently being forgetful, nervous, confused, embarrassed, and worried in ESOL classes. This was completely unexpected because the students in the ESOL classes, in general, are usually more at ease than the students in mainstream classes due to the nurturing atmosphere that is frequently provided in ESOL classes.

Sub Question #7:

Are there differences in the level of anxiety among Haitian and Hispanic immigrant students in a public, rural high school in South Florida?

Table 9 below displays the mean scores of the students by ethnicity in the Mainstreamed and ESOL groups. It also displays the results of the two-tailed t-tests performed on the students' mean scores.

81

Table 9: *Anxiety Scale Comparisons by Ethnicity for Total Group, Haitian and Hispanic Groups: Significant Independent t-test Results (p=<.05)*

Variable	Haitian		Hispanic		*t*-test	*P*
	Mean	N	Mean	N		
Total Group						
Anxiety Total Score	68.14	36	63.93	28	.991	Ns
Mainstreamed						
Anxiety Total Score	77.00	17	90.23	13	1.17	Ns
ESOL						
Anxiety Total Score	60.21	19	58.47	15	.336	Ns

*p = < .05. **p < .01. *** p < .001

Finding #7: There are no significant statistical differences between the Haitian and Hispanic immigrant students in their level of anxiety.

The researcher expected to find a significant difference in the level of anxiety between Haitians and Hispanics, especially after the analysis of the previous question. According to Horwitz et al. (1986) and Pappamihiel (2002), learning a second language inevitably causes anxiety, regardless of the cultural background of the students. Especially, older high school students are prone to suffer more anxiety while learning a second language.

Sub Question #8:

Are there gender differences in the level of anxiety among Mainstreamed, ESOL, Haitian, and Hispanic groups in a public, rural high school in South Florida?

Table 10 below displays the mean scores for the total group, the Haitian group, and the Hispanic group in Mainstreamed classes and ESOL classes in relation to gender. The table also displays the results of the two-tailed t-tests performed on the mean scores.

Table 10: *Anxiety Scale Comparisons by Gender for Total Group, Mainstreamed, ESOL, Haitian, and Hispanic Groups: Significant Independent t-test Results (p=<.05)*

Variable	Female		Male		t-test	P
	Mean	N	Mean	N		
Total Group						
Anxiety Total Score	67.3	30	65.41	34	.444	Ns
Mainstreamed						
Anxiety Total Score	73.55	11	74.37	19	-.135	Ns
ESOL						
Anxiety Total Score	63.68	19	54.07	15	1.958	Ns
Haitian						
Anxiety Total Score	64.93	14	70.18	22	-.95	Ns
Hispanic						
Anxiety Total Score	69.38	16	56.67	12	2.12	.04*

*p = < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001

83

Finding #8: The results of the t-test for gender differences in level of anxiety reveals no statistically significant differences for the Total, Mainstreamed, ESOL, and Haitian groups. However, there is a statistical significant difference for the Hispanic group at the .05 level.

The level of anxiety for the Hispanic group is higher for the male Hispanic students. According to the Florida Department of Education's statistics, many of the immigrant students in South Florida are migrant students. Migrant children are essential contributors to the economy of large households with economic uncertainty, creating a definite conflict for parents and children alike between children harvesting crops and children attending schools (Serrano, 1995).

The details of the results of the two-tailed t-tests on gender differences for the MEIM are found in Appendix C. The details for the results of the two-tailed t-tests on gender differences for the ELAS are found in Appendix D.

Research Question #4:

What is the relationship between grade level and years of English language studied and the level of anxiety among immigrant students in a public, rural high school in South Florida and within Mainstreamed, ESOL, Haitian, and Hispanic groups?

Sub Question #9:

What is the relationship between grade level and the level of anxiety among immigrant students within Mainstreamed, ESOL, Haitian, and Hispanic groups in a public, rural high school in South Florida?

Table 11 below displays the results of the Pearson r correlations for relationships between grade level and the level of anxiety for the students in the study. It also displays the students as members of the total group, Mainstreamed group, ESOL group, Haitian group, and Hispanic group.

Table 11: Pearson r Correlations of Relationships between Grade Level and Anxiety Total Score, for Total Group, and Within Mainstreamed, ESOL, Haitian, and Hispanic Groups

Correlations Between Grade Level and Anxiety	Total Group	Main-stream Group	ESOL Group	Haitian Group	Hispanic Group
	N=64	N=30	N=34	N=36	N=28
	Pearson	Pearson	Pearson	Pearson	Pearson
	r	*r*	*r*	*r*	*r*
	P	*P*	*P*	*p*	*p*
Anxiety Total Score	.228	.24	.01	.269	.176
	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns

*p = < .05. **p < .01, ***p < .001

Finding #9: There is no relationship between grade level and the level of anxiety among immigrant students in the study.

This finding was completely unexpected. The researcher expected that students in different grades would exhibit some anxiety. However, a large number of students in the school have repeated grades (Parker, 2002). It was expected to find that grade level has a relationship to the level of anxiety of the students because of the high retention rate at the school. Furthermore, the variation of age levels within grade levels are mixed up due to new Florida requirements for promotion, as mandated by

the *No Child Left behind Law* (2001). As a consequence, it would be difficult to get meaningful results in this respect.

Sub Question #10:

What is the relationship between years of English language studied and the level of anxiety among immigrant students within Mainstreamed, ESOL, Haitian, and Hispanic groups in a public, rural high school in South Florida?

Table 12 below displays the results of the Pearson r correlations of the relationships between years of English language studied and the level of anxiety of the students. It also displays the results for the different groups: the total group, the Mainstreamed group, the ESOL group, the Haitian group, and the Hispanic group.

Table 12: Pearson r Correlations of Relationships between Years of English Language Studied and Anxiety Total Score for Total Group, and Within Mainstreamed, ESOL, Haitian, and Hispanic Groups

Correlations Between Years of English Studied and Anxiety	Total Group	Main-stream Group	ESOL Group	Haitian Group	Hispanic Group
	N=64	N=30	N=34	N=36	N=28
	Pearson	Pearson	Pearson	Pearson	Pearson
	r	r	r	r	r
	P	P	P	p	p
Anxiety Total Score	.031	.027	.023	-.01	.09
	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns

*$p = < .05.$ **$p < .01,$ ***$p < .001$

Finding #10: There is no statistically significant difference in the relationship between years of English language studied and the level of anxiety among any of the groups in the study.

This also is an unexpected finding. The students had very little previous experience with the English language prior to coming to the United States, as displayed in Table 1 in Chapter Three. Sixty-seven percent of the students had no previous formal contact with the English language. Furthermore, the students tend not to mix with the target culture in and outside of the school context. Interaction between the students and the people outside their group is lacking, mainly due to the students' isolated living conditions. Consequently, contact between the target language community members and the ethnolinguistic groups is kept to a minimum outside the context of school. The students of migratory status tend to live in enclaves, which isolates them more. All these situations hinder the acquisition of the second language. The researcher expected that the lack of contact with the English language previous to coming to the United States would have been a strong reason for the students to feel anxious.

Analysis of the Acculturation and Anxiety Question

Research Question #5 and Sub Question #11:

What are the relationships between the degree of acculturation and the level of anxiety among immigrant students in a public, rural high school in South Florida and within Mainstreamed, ESOL, Haitian, and Hispanic groups?

Table 13 below displays the results of the Pearson r correlations of relationships between the degree of acculturation and the level of anxiety of the students. It also displays the mean scores of the students within the total group, the Mainstreamed group, the ESOL group, the Haitian group, and the Hispanic group.

Table 13: *Pearson r Correlations of Relationships between Acculturation and Anxiety for Total Group, and Within Mainstreamed, ESOL, Haitian, and Hispanic Groups*

Group	Acculturation: Total Scale Mean	Anxiety Mean	Pearson *r*	P
Total Sample	34.19	66.30	-.024	Ns
Mainstreamed	34.37	74.07	-.22	Ns
ESOL	34.03	59.44	-.01	Ns
Haitian	32.58	68.14	.06	Ns
Hispanic	36.25	63.93	-.19	Ns
	Acculturation Ethnic Identity Subscale Mean	Anxiety Mean	Pearson *r*	P
Total Sample	13.03	66.30	-.144	Ns
Mainstreamed	12.80	74.07	-.144	Ns
ESOL	13.24	59.44	-.02	Ns
Haitian	12.42	68.14	-.01	Ns
Hispanic	13.82	63.93	-.24	Ns
	Acculturation: Affiliation, Belonging, and Commitment Subscale Mean	Anxiety Mean	Pearson *r*	*P*
Total Sample	21.16	66.30	-.024	Ns
Mainstreamed	21.57	74.07	-.18	Ns
ESOL	20.79	59.44	-.004	Ns
Haitian	20.17	68.14	-.08	Ns
Hispanic	22.43	63.93	-.117	Ns

*p = < .05. **p < .01, ***p < .001

Finding #11: The Pearson r correlations reveal that there is no relationship between the degree of acculturation and the level of anxiety among immigrant students in this study.

The researcher expected the findings to show that there is a relationship between the degree of acculturation and the level of anxiety among the students. However, this was not the case. Based on the review of the literature, Schumann (1986) proposed that acculturation brings the learner into contact with target language speakers and verbal interaction with those speakers that bring about negotiation of input which then enhances language acquisition. In Schumann's model, high levels of motivation contribute positively to second language acquisition. According to Pappamihiel (2002), anxiety is a complex concept, dependent on not only one's feelings of self-efficacy, but also on appraisals in relation to the potential and perceived threats in certain situations. As stated before, the process of acquiring a second language inevitably brings about anxiety.

Chapter V

Conclusions, Limitations, and Recommendations

This chapter presents a summary of the findings in this study about the level of anxiety and the degree of acculturation among immigrant students in a public, rural high school in South Florida. For this study, the immigrant students were placed in different groups: Mainstreamed-ESOL students, ESOL students, Haitian students, and Hispanic students. They were also grouped as female versus male students. The chapter is divided into three sections: 1) conclusions, 2) limitations, and 3) recommendations.

Conclusions

This was a quantitative study with the purpose of investigating the relationship between the level of anxiety and the degree of acculturation among immigrant students in a public high school in South Florida. Participants in the study responded to two scales. The first scale is a recently developed English language anxiety scale (ELAS), which is a twenty-item Likert-type scale that prompts participants to respond to statements concerning their feelings about using the English language. Five responses range from strongly agree to strongly disagree with a neutral option.

The second instrument is the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM). The MEIM is a fifteen-item Likert-type scale that prompts participants to respond to statements concerning their feelings about their ethnic identity. Four responses range

from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Two-tailed t-tests were used to find the relationships between groups, namely between ESOL and Mainstreamed-ESOL students, between Hispanic and Haitian students, and between female and male students.

The results of the t-test on the degree of acculturation comparing the Mainstreamed-ESOL and the ESOL groups revealed no significant statistical difference between immigrant Mainstreamed-ESOL and ESOL students. There is, however, a statistically significant difference in the degree of acculturation between Haitians and Hispanics in the ESOL group on the MEIM Total Score, which indicates that the Hispanic students in the ESOL group have a higher degree of acculturation. These differences may be attributed to the fact that there are more community-based organizations for Hispanics than for Haitians. It is easier for Hispanic students to adapt to the culture in Florida because there are many more members of the Hispanic ethnic group who have lived in Florida for centuries. The Hispanic students are mostly Mexican, and they have a greater tendency to adapt to the new culture because there is more U. S. influence in Mexico, and, consequently, the students are more familiar with the U. S. culture. This is important because acculturation helps individuals to be successful in the new culture. Adapting to the new culture is essential for full participation in the target language community.

According to the ESOL Coordinator in the school, in this community both Haitians and Hispanics keep themselves separate linguistically and culturally from the target population and from each other. Since both ethnic groups keep separate from each other, their isolation is exacerbated. However, Hispanics are more familiar with

the U. S. target culture and they have more community support agencies available to them. This may help to explain their higher degree of acculturation.

There was a statistically significant difference between male and female Haitians in their degree of acculturation. The Haitian males tend to acculturate at a faster rate. This may be due to the fact that there are well-defined characteristics and roles in the Haitian culture between females and males. Haitian males are allowed more opportunities and freedom to explore and experience their new surroundings.

There is prior research supporting the conclusion that females are more anxious than males and there is also evidence to show that females tend to have closer interpersonal relationships with teachers (Bracken and Crain, 1994), which helps to alleviate anxiety and helps in acculturation. Grade level and years of previous English language study showed no statistical significant differences in any of the groups.

Based on the t-tests for the level of anxiety, significant statistical differences were found between Mainstreamed and ESOL students. The ESOL students have a higher level of anxiety. According to Cummins (1981, 1994, 1996, 2000), Krashen (1976, 1981, 1985, 1992), Alva (1999), de los Reyes (1999), Pappamihiel (2002), and other researchers, anxiety is detrimental to language acquisition. The higher level of anxiety may be due to the stress the students experience because they are children of migrant families. Especially the male students have a conflict because they are torn between being in school and feeling the demand of helping their families by working in the fields. Also, students in ESOL classrooms usually come from homogeneous societies. For example, the Hispanic students in this study come mainly from Mexico and they are accustomed to attend schools in their country with Mexican peers. On

the other hand, in the U.S. they have to learn to relate to students from different, diverse cultural backgrounds. They are not accustomed to a heterogeneous society. This is a source of anxiety.

There were no significant statistical differences in the level of anxiety in relation to ethnicity, gender, grade level, or years of previous English language study between any of the groups. The researcher did not expect these findings. Differences in the level of anxiety between the two ethnic groups were expected, and according to the results of this study, this did not occur.

It was expected that anxiety levels would be lower in the ESOL classes where students are supposed to feel a stronger sense of camaraderie and where they usually receive more support and nurturing. Students in the ESOL classrooms fall back on their respective languages, Spanish and Haitian Creole, as a means of communication with peers. Students are not required to always communicate with peers in English because they can speak to their peers in their native languages.

According to Yvonne and David Freeman in their latest book *Closing the Achievement Gap: How to Reach Limited Formal Schooling and Long-Term English Learners,* the ESOL secondary school population can be described as belonging to three groups of older English language learners. Freeman & Freeman (2002) explain that the first group includes students who have come to this country within the last five years and who have strong educational backgrounds and literacy in their first language. They have developed academic language and skills in their first language that will transfer to their content-area studies in English. Most of these students fit well into traditional ESOL programs and often are integrated into the mainstream

94

after one or two years. They are usually successful in acquiring literacy and skills in English.

A second group of older students who are recent arrivals in this country come to school with interrupted or limited-formal-schooling backgrounds as well as limited English proficiency. These students are faced with the complex task of developing conversational English, becoming literate in English, and gaining the academic knowledge and skills they need to compete academically with native English speakers.

Many of the English language learners in the third group have been in U. S. schools for a long time, maybe even since kindergarten. They have participated in different ESOL programs without ever having benefited from any kind of consistent support program. They also have often missed school for extended periods at different times, in particular the students with migratory status.

Most of the participants in this study fall into the two latter groups described above. They are recent arrivals from Mexico and Haiti and they come with little or no literacy or exposure to the English language. They are at varying degrees of developing English skills and experience difficulty in speaking, reading, and writing English. They have not reached full communicative competence in the target language. Cultural differences are affecting their levels of stress.

The implications of this study are revealing. There is a critical need for teachers, counselors, and administrators to learn about the process of acculturation and the level of anxiety that their immigrant students experience. They need to implement creative ways of reducing the level of anxiety of the students in order to

help them acculturate and, subsequently, acquire English language skills. One of the possible techniques that teachers could incorporate in their classrooms is cooperative learning groups in their lesson plans, whereby students will have more opportunities to interact positively with each other and, thus, reduce anxiety, increase English language acquisition, and increase positive interethnic relationships.

Providing appropriate instruction to immigrant students who are also English language learners has been an issue of particular concern and alarm to educators in the secondary level across the nation for quite some time, as documented by extensive research. This still remains a daunting challenge. Immigrant students who happen to be members of migrant families offer a particularly difficult challenge despite recent efforts by the Office of Migrant Education in Washington, D.C.

In spite of the fact that they are overworked and underpaid, practitioners need to develop and implement creative ways to get to know their immigrant students on a more personal level. A simple information sheet, such as the one used in this study (See Appendix E.), would help reveal a plethora of facts that may bring students and teachers closer to each other. An excellent example of a student survey particularly helpful to secondary immigrant students is found in Yvonne and David Freeman's book *Closing the Achievement Gap: How to Reach Limited-Formal-Schooling and Long-Term English Learners* (2002). School administrators may be able to help with this process by making sure that they allow practitioners to have enough time to meet and exchange information about their students.

Teachers, counselors, and administrators need to consult and work closely with the students' caregivers and families. They need to remind each other that

96

immigrant secondary students are trying to learn English at the same time that they are trying to become socialized into American society during adolescence, a time of major emotional, physical, and psychological change for the students. They would be well served to review Krashen's Monitor Model, in particular his Affective Filter Hypothesis, which is closely related to diminishing the level of anxiety. Furthermore, they could review Elizabeth Coelho's work in relation to the social integration of immigrant and refugee students, which will provide them with excellent ideas about strategies to help students to acculturate.

Limitations

The following are the limitations of this study:

1. Since only one researcher was involved in the administration of the instruments, the possibility of bias and subjectivity may be present. However, in this study the use of two different instruments, the ELAS and the MEIM, produced two different sets of data. Therefore, the researcher was able to overcome the bias that could exist with only one researcher involved in the study.

2. The only high school to which the researcher could obtain entry was a distance away on the west coast of South Florida. An experienced expert in the area recommended the location and population selected for the study. The recommendation of this expert was accepted without hesitation, and it proved to be accurate.

3. The study was conducted during a sensitive time. The administrators at the school gave the researcher a limited time to do the study. The school was preparing the students for the Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test (FCAT). The timing of the study may have an effect on the results. The students' anxiety level was being affected by the impending administration of the FCAT.

4. The study is limited to one school in one county in South Florida. As a result, caution must be exercised in generalizing the findings to other sites and populations.

Recommendations

The following are the recommendations for future research and for practitioners:

1. A mixed-methods study to complement this quantitative study is needed to verify the results and to expand on the causes for the students' anxiety and the effects of acculturation. The students' place of residence needs special attention.

2. A mixed-methods research study is needed to better inform about the implementation of effective programs for immigrant English language learners at the secondary school level. According to Walqui (2000), ethnographic studies of students acquiring English as teenagers could explicate their various daily life experiences that affect their language learning.

3. A mixed-method research study with similar questions needs to be conducted to look at ESOL and mainstream classrooms. Given unlimited time, money, and resources, thorough one-on-one interviews of the students, teachers, counselors, and parents need to be implemented. The study would provide qualitative data to be able to generalize to a broader population. Special attention should be given to the culture of migrancy in all its variations. The interviews should be accompanied with data obtained from questionnaires. These multiple sources of data would provide more reliability and, consequently, more validity to the study.

4. A comparative study is highly recommended. This comparative study should be between similar schools and/or districts in the state to provide decision makers with more useful data about immigrant secondary students who have limited formal education. The results of this study might have been different if the study would have been conducted in another part of the state where the students might have had more community support.

5. A long-term longitudinal study would be even more helpful to collect data about the level of anxiety and the degree of acculturation of immigrant students. The study should follow a cohort of students as they enter the ninth grade until they finish the twelfth grade.

6. A mixed-methods study only on the degree of acculturation would be highly desirable. Such a study would provide more accurate data on

the process of language acquisition of immigrant students. Another mixed-methods study only on the level of anxiety of immigrant students would provide data that teachers could use to implement programs that would reduce the level of anxiety of their students in their classrooms. This study could be a comparative study, which would compare immigrant students of different ethnic groups and/or compare immigrant students with non-minority students.

7. Findings in this study imply a deeper relationship among English language anxiety, identity development, and interethnic interactions. Future studies should focus on the interrelationship among these factors.

References

Acuna, R. (1995). *Anything but Mexican*. London: Verso.

Alva, S. A. & de los Reyes, R. (1999). Psychosocial stress, internalized symptoms,

And the academic achievement of Hispanic adolescents. *Journal of*

Adolescent Research, 14, 343-358.

August, D., Calderón, M., & Carlo, M. (2001). The transfer of skills from Spanish to

English: A study of young learners. *NABE News*, March/April. Washington,

DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Bandura, A. (1991). Self-efficacy conception of anxiety. In R. Schwarzer & R. A.

Wicklund (Eds.), *Anxiety and self-focused attention* (pp. 89-110). London:

Harwood Academic Publishers.

Bayardelle, E. (1984, Winter). Haitian students in the New York City public schools.

Bank Street College Bilingual perspective.

Beebe, L. & Giles, H. (1984). Speech accommodation theories: A discussion in terms

of second language acquisition. *International Journal of the Sociology of*

Language,46, 5-32.

Berry, J. W., Kim, U., Power, S., Young, M., & Bujaki, M. (1989). Acculturation

attitudes in plural societies. *Applied Psychology: An International Review,* 38,

185-206.

Berry, W. (1983). *Cultural pluralism in education: Theoretical foundations*. New

York, NY: Longman.

Blackburn, B. (2001). Disguised anti-colonialism: Protest against the white Australia Policy in Malaya and Singapore. *Australian Journal of International Affairs, 55,* (1), 101.

Brimelow, P. (1993). Closed door. *Forbes, 152,* (5), 58.

Beebe, E. (2001). *The practice of social research,* (9th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth/ Thomson Learning, Inc.

Bracken, B. A. & Crain, R. M. (1994). Children's and adolescents' interpersonal relations: Do age, race, and gender define normalcy? *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment, 12,* 14-32.

Brisk, M. E. (1998). *Bilingual education: From compensatory to quality schooling.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erbaum.

Brown, H. D. (1994). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (3rd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents.

Canada & the World Backgrounder (CWB). (2002). Closing the door. *CWB, 68,* (3), 26.

Castellanos, D. (1985). *The best of two worlds.* Trenton, NJ: New Jersey State Department of Education.

Castro Feinberg, R. C. (2002). *Bilingual education: A reference handbook.* Santa Barbara, CA: ABC-CLIO, Inc.

Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence (CREDE). (1999). *Program alternatives for linguistically diverse students*, F. Genesse (Ed.). Washington, DC: CREDE/CAL.

Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence (CREDE). (2001). Some
    program alternatives for English language learners. *Practitioner brief #3.*
    Washington, DC: CREDE/CAL.

Charles, C. M. & Mertler, C. A. (2002). *Introduction to educational research* (4th
    Ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Coelho, E. (1994). Social integration of immigrant and refugee children. In F.
    Genesse (Ed.), *Educating second language children: The whole child, the
    whole curriculum, the whole community.* New York, NY: Cambridge
    University Press.

Collier, C. (1987) Comparison of acculturation and education characteristics of
    referred and non-referred culturally and linguistically different children.
    NABE Theory, Research and Application: Selected Papers, L. M. Malave
    (Ed.). Buffalo, NY: State University of New York at Buffalo, pp. 183-195.

Collier, V. P. (1999). Acquiring a second language for school. In I. A. Heath & C. J.
    Serrano (Eds.), *Teaching English as a second language: Annual Editions
    99/00.* Guilford, CT: Dushkin/McGraw-Hill.

Crawford, J. (1992). *Hold your tongue. Bilingualism and the politics of "English
    only."* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley

Crawford, J. (1999). *Bilingual education: History, politics, theory, and practice* (4th
    edition). Los Angeles, CA: Bilingual Education Services, Inc.

Crawford, J. (2000). *At war with diversity. US language policy in an age of anxiety.*
    Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed Methods approaches* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Cummins, J. (1981). *Bilingualism and minority-language children.* Toronto, Ontario: OISE Press.

Cummins, J. (1981). *Empowering minority students.* Sacramento, CA: California Association of Bilingual Education.

Cummins, J. (1984). *Bilingualism and special education: Issues in assessment and pedagogy.* San Diego, CA: College-Hill.

Cummins, J. (1994). Knowledge, power, and identity in teaching English as a second language. In F. Genesee (Ed.), *Educating second language children: The whole child, the whole curriculum, the whole community* (33-58). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Cummins, J. (1996). *Negotiating identities: Education for empowerment in a diverse society.* Ontario, CA: California Association of Bilingual Education.

Cummins, J. (2000). *Language, power, and pedagogy: Bilingual children in the crossfire.*Toronto: Multilingual Matters.

Daley, C. E., Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Bailey, P. (1997, November). *Predicting achievement in college level foreign language courses.* Paper presented at the meeting of Midsouth Educational Research Association, Memphis, TN.

De Jong, E. J. & Ramos, F. (2003). Current English-only initiatives: Misconceptions and broken promises. *Sunshine State TESOL Journal,* Spring.

Echevarría, J., Vogt, M. E., & Short, D. (2000). *Making content comprehensible for English language learners: The SIOP model.* Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Edmonson, G., Anhalt, K. N., Capell, K, Robinson, A., & Barady, R. (2000). Is Europe having a change of heart on immigration? *Business Week,* 10/23/2000, (3704), 68.

Ehrman, M. & Oxford, R. (1995). Adult learning styles and strategies in an intensive training setting. *Modern Language Journal,* 74, 311-327.

Fillmore, L. W. & Snow, C. (2000). *What teachers need to know about language.* Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Foster, C. (1982). L'enseignement bilingue pour les enfants Haitien aux Etats-Unis. In C. Pierre-Jacques (Ed.), *Enfant de migrants Haitien en Amérique du Nord,* 68-71. Montreal: Centre de Recherches Caraibes.

Franco, J. (1983). An acculturation scale for Mexican-American children. *The Journal of General Psychology,* 108, 175-181.

Freeman, Y. S. & Freeman, D. E. (2002). *Closing the achievement gap: How to reach limited-formal-schooling and long-term English learners.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Gall, M. D., Borg, W. R., & Gall, J. P. (1996). *Educational research: An introduction* (6th Ed.). White Plains, NY: Longman Publishers.

García, E. (1999). *Student cultural diversity: Understanding and meeting the challenge* (2nd ed.). Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Co.

García-Vázquez, E. (1995). Acculturation and academics: Effects of acculturation on reading achievement among Mexican-American students. *The Bilingual Research Journal*, 19(2), 305-315.

Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: The roles of attitude and motivation*. London: Edward Arnold.

Gardner, R., Lalonde, R., & Pierson. R. (1983). The socio-educational model of second language acquisition: An investigation using LISREL causal modeling. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 2, 1-15.

George, D. & Mallery, P. (2001). *SPSS for Windows step by step: A simple guide and reference, 10.0 update* (3rd ed.). Needham heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Giles, H. & Byrne, J. (1982). An intergroup approach to second language acquisition. *Journal of Multicultural and Multilingual Development*, 3, 17-40.

Giles, H. C. (1985, Winter). Haitian families in the United States: The struggle to adjust.*Haitian Centers Council Newsletter,* 2(2), 1-2.

Giles, H. C. (1990). Counseling Haitian students and their families: Issues and Interventions. *Journal of Counseling and Development,* 68, 317-320.

Gitsaki, C. (1998). Second language acquisition theories: Overview and evaluation. *Journal of Communication and International Studies*, 4 (2), 89-116.

Gónzalez, J. M. & Darling-Hammond, L. (1997). *New concepts for new challenges: Professional development for teachers of immigrant youths*. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics and McHenry, IL: Delta Systems Co., Inc.

Graham, C. R. & Brown, C. (1996). The effects of acculturation on second language proficiency in a community with a two-bilingual program. *The Bilingual Research Journal,* 20(2), 235-260.

Greene, J. C. Caracelli, V. J., & Graham, W. F. (1989). Toward a conceptual framework for mixed-method evaluation designs. *Educational Evaluations and Policy Analysis*, 11(3), 255-274.

Guiora, A. Z. (1983). Introduction: An epistemology for the language sciences. *Language Learning*, 33, 6-11.

Horwitz, E. K. (1991). Preliminary evidence for the reliability and validity of a foreign language anxiety scale. In E. K. Horwitz & D. J. Young (Eds.), *Language anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications* (pp. 37-39). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Horwitz, M. B., Horwitz, E. K., & Cope, J. A. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, 70(2), 125-132.

Joseph, C. B. (1984). The child, the family, and the school in English-Haitian education. In C. R. Foster & A. Valman (Eds.), *Haiti – today and tomorrow: An interdisciplinary study* (351-358). Lanham, MD: University Press.

Keefe, S. E. & Padilla, A. M. (1987) *Chicano ethnicity.* Albuquerque, NM: University of New Mexico Press.

Kloss, H. (1998). *The bilingual tradition.* Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics and Delta systems.

Krashen, S. D. (1976). Formal and informal linguistic environments in language acquisition and language learning. *TESOL Quarterly*, 10, 157-168.

Krashen, S. D. (1981). *Second language acquisition and second language learning.*
Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Krashen, S. D. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition.* New
York, NY: Pergamon.

Krashen, S, D. (1985). *The input hypothesis: Issues and implications.* London:
Longman.

Krashen, S. D. (1991). Bilingual education: A focus on current research. *NCBE
Focus: Occasional Papers in Bilingual Education, No. 3.* Washington, DC:
NCBE.

Krashen, S. D. (1992). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition.* New
York, NY: Pergamon.

Laguerre, M. S. (1998). *Diasporic citizenship: Haitian Americans in transnational
America.* New York, NY: St. Martin's Press.

Lazarus, Emma. (1849-1887). *The New Colossus.* Inscription on the Statue of Liberty
in New York City.

Lee, J. (2002). Racial and ethnic achievement gap trends: Reversing the progress
toward equity? *Educational Researcher,* 31, 3-12.

Lucas, T. (1997). *Into, through, and beyond secondary school: Critical transitions for
immigrant youths.* Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics and
McHenry, IL: Delta Systems Co., Inc.

Lucas, T, Henze, R., & Donato, R. (1990). Promoting the success of Latino language-
minority students: An exploratory study of six high schools. *Harvard
Educational Review,* 60 (3), 315-340.

Mace-Matluck, B., Alexander-Kasparik, R., & Queen, R. M. (1998). *Through the golden door: Educational approaches for immigrant adolescents with limited schooling.* Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics and McHenry, IL: Delta Systems Co., Inc.

MacIntyre, P. D. & Gardner, R. C. (1991). Methods and results in the study of anxiety and language learning: A review of the literature. *Language Learning*, 41(1), 85-117.

MacIntyre, P. D. & Gardner, R. C. (1993). The effects of induced anxiety on three stages of cognitive processing in computerized vocabulary learning. *Studies in second language acquisition*, 16, 1-17.

MacIntyre, P. D. & Gardner, R. c. (1994). The subtle effects of language anxiety on cognitive processing in the second language. *Language Learning*, 44, 283-305.

Mena, F. J., Padilla, A. M., & Maldonado, M. (1987). Acculturative stress and specific coping strategies among immigrants and later generation college students. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, 9 (2), 207-225.

Mertens, D. M. (2003). Mixed methods and the politics of human research: The transformative-emancipatory perspective. In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (Eds.), *Handbook of mixed methods in the social and behavioral sciences.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Miles, M. B. & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: A sourcebook of new methods* (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Mooney, P. & Xue, S. (2000). The impossible dream. *MacLean's,* 113, 50, 20.

Muñoz-Sandoval, A. F., Cummins, J., Alvarado, C. G., & Ruef, M. L. (1998). *Bilingual verbal ability tests: Comprehensive manual (BVAT)*. Itasca, IL: Riverside Publishing.

National Center for Educational Statistics. (1996).

National Center for Educational Statistics. (1999). *Dropout rates in the United States*. Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research & Improvement, U.S. Department of Education.

National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education. (1998). *Summary report of the survey of the states' limited English proficient students and available educational programs and services 1996-97*. Washington, DC: US Department of Education.

National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education. (1999). *NCBE Newsletter*. Washington, DC: NCBE.

National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition and Language Instruction Educational Programs. (2002). *Survey of the states' limited English proficient students and available educational programs and services: 2000-2001summary report*. Washington, DC: U. S. Department of Education.

Newman, K. L. & Nyikos, M. (1999). Making content comprehensible for English language learners: The SIOP model. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 23 (4), 471-474.

Norrid-Lacey, B. & Spencer, D. A. (2000). Experiences of Latino immigrant students at an urban high school. *National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin*, 84(619), 43-54. Reston, VA: NASSP.

Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory. (2001). *Improving education for immigrant students : A resource guide for K-12 educators in the northwest and Alaska.*

Olsen, L. (1988). *Crossing the schoolhouse border: Immigrant students and the California public schools.* San Francisco, CA: California Tomorrow Policy Research.

Olsen, L. (1997). *Made in America: Immigrant students in our public schools.* New York, NY: The New Press.

Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Bailey, P., & Daley, C. E. (1997). *Foreign language anxiety Among college students.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Mid-South Educational Research Association, Memphis, TN.

Ovando, C. J., Collier, V. P., & Combs, M. C. (2003). *Bilingual and ESL classrooms: Teaching in multicultural contexts* (3rd ed.). Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill.

Padilla, A. M. (1980). The role of cultural awareness and ethnic loyalty. In A. M. Padilla (Ed.), *Acculturation: Theory, models, and some new findings.* Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Padilla, A. (Ed.). (1980). Acculturation: Theory, modes, and some new findings. *American Association for the Advancement of Science*, Symposium Series 39. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Pappamihiel, N. E. (2002). English as a second language students and English language anxiety: Issues in the mainstream classroom. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 36(3), 327-355.

Pappamihiel, N. E. (2001). Moving from the ESL classroom into the mainstream: An Investigation of English language anxiety in Mexican girls. *Bilingual Research Journal,* 25: 1 – 2.

Parker, R. (2002). Summer school: High school pilot program to aid students repeating grades. *Naples Daily News,* November 22.

Pekrun, R. (1992). Expectancy-value theory of anxiety: Overview and implications. In D. Forgays & T. Sosnowski (Eds.), *Anxiety: Recent developments in cognitive, psychophysiological, and health research* (pp. 23-39). Washington, DC: Hemisphere.

Phinney, J. S. (1992). The multi-group ethnic identity measure: A new scale for use with adolescents and young adults from diverse groups. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 7, 156-176.

Phinney, J. S., Madden, T., & Santos, L. (1998). Psychological variables as predictors of perceived discrimination among minority and immigrant adolescents. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 28, 937-953.

Phinney, J. S., Romero, I., Nava, M.., & Huang, D. (2001). The role of language, parents, and peers in ethnic identity among adolescents in immigrant families. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence,* 30, 135-153.

Public Law #103-382. (1994). The Improving America's Schools Act of 1994.

Public Law #107-110. (2001). The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001.

Rennie, J. (1993). ESL and bilingual program models. *ERIC/CLL Digest.* Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Rothstein, R. (1998). *The way we were? The myths and realities of America's student achievement.* New York, NY: The century Foundation Press.

Ruiz-de-Velasco, J. & Fix, M. with Chu-Clewell, B. (2000). *Overlooked and underserved: Immigrant students in U. S. schools.* Washington, DC: The Urban Institute.

Schumann, J. H. (1978). The acculturation model for second language acquisition. In R. C. Gingras (Ed.), *Second language acquisition and foreign language teaching* (pp.27-50). Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Schumann, J. H. (1986). Research on the acculturation model for second language acquisition. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development,* 7(5), 379-392.

Schumann, J. H. (1997). *The neurobiology of affect in language.* Malden, MA: Blackwell.

Scholastic Online. (2002). Immigration: Chinese exclusion acts. Available at http://teacher.scholastic.com/researchtools/researchstarters/immigration.htm

Serrano, C. J. (1995). Recognizing and addressing the unique needs of Spanish-Speaking migrant children in Florida. *Teach: A teacher training program.* Tallahassee, FL: Florida Department of Education.

Shank, G. D. (2000). *Qualitative research: A personal skills approach.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education, Inc.

Shannon, S. M. & Escamilla, K. (1999). Mexican immigrants in U.S. schools: Targets of symbolic violence. *Educational Policy,* 13(3) 347-370.

Schiller, N. G., DeWind, J., Brutus, M. L., Charles, C., Fouron, G, & Thomas, A. (1987). All in the same boat? Unity and diversity in Haitian organizing in New York. In C. R. Sutton & E. M. Chaney (Eds.), *Caribbean life in New York City: Sociocultural dimensions* (pp. 182-201). Staten Island, NY: The Center for Migration Studies of New York.

Short, D. J. (1998). Secondary newcomer programs: Helping recent immigrants prepare for school success. *ERIC/CLL Digest*. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Short, D. J. (2000). What principals should know about sheltered instruction for English language learners. *NASSP Bulletin*, 84(619), 17-27. Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals.

Spielberger, C. D. (1983). *Manual for the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (Form Y)*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Stepick, A. (1987). The Haitian exodus: Flight from terror and poverty. In B. Levine (Ed.), *The Caribbean exodus* (pp. 131-151). New York: Praeger.

Suárez-Orozco, C. & Suárez-Orozco, M. M. (2001). *Children of immigration.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Suárez-Orozco, M. M. (2001). Globalization, immigration, and education: The research agenda. *Harvard Educational Review,* 71(3), 345-365.

The Economist. (2000). The door opens, a crack. 356(8186), 37.

The New Encyclopedia Britannica, Vol. I. (2002). Definition of acculturation, p.57. Chicago, IL: Encyclopedia Britannica, Inc.

Thomas, W. P. & Collier, V. P, (1997). *School effectiveness for language minority students.* Washington, DC: NCBE.

Thomas, W. P. & Collier, V. P, (2002). *A national study of school effectiveness for Language minority students' long-term academic achievement.* Santa Cruz, CA: CREDE.

Unaeze, F. E. & Perrin, R. E. (1995). Haitian Americans. In R. J. Vecoli (Contributing Ed.), *Gale encyclopedia of multicultural America,* 1, 642-656. Detroit, MI: Gale Research, Inc.

United States Bureau of the Census. (1997).

United States Bureau of the Census. (2000).

United States Department of Education. (1998).

United States Information Agency. (1997). One from many: United States immigration patterns and ethnic composition. *Portrait of the USA.* Washington, DC: Author.

United States Population Bureau. (1999). *United States population data sheet.* Washington, DC: Author.

Valdés, G. (1998). The world outside and inside schools: Language and immigrant students. *Educational Researcher,* 27(6), 4-18.

Valdés, G. (2001). *Learning and not learning English: Latino students in American schools.* New York, NY: Teachers College Press, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. (M. Cole, V. John-Steiner, S. Scribner, & E. Souberman, Eds.). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Waggoner, D. (1993). *Census information on countries of birth foreign-born population. Numbers and needs: Ethnic and linguistic minorities in the United States,* 3(3), 1-3.

Walqui, A. (2000). *Access and engagement: Program design and instructional approaches for immigrant students in secondary schools.* Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics and McHenry, IL: Delta Systems Co., Inc.

Table 14:

Acculturation MEIM Item Comparisons by Mainstreamed and ESOL Groups: Frequency Distributions of Likert Agreement/Disagreement Scale Responses (4-Point Scale)

MEIM Items	Percentage Distribution Likert Scale Response Categories[a]			
	SA	A	D	SD
1. I have spent time trying to find out more about my ethnic group, such as its history, traditions, and customs.				
Total	18.8	34.7	99.2	47.3
Mainstreamed	10.0	20.0	43.3	26.7
ESOL	8.8	14.7	55.9	20.6
2. I am active in organizations or social groups that include mostly members of my own ethnic group.				
Total	56.5	53.9	67.9	21.8
Mainstreamed	30.0	33.3	26.7	10.0
ESOL	26.5	20.6	41.2	11.8
3. I have a clear sense of my ethnic background and what it means to me.				
Total	15.9	34.7	55.7	93.8
Mainstreamed	10.0	20.0	23.3	46.7
ESOL	5.9	14.7	32.4	47.1
4. I think a lot about how my life will be affected by my ethnic group membership.				
Total	44.7	59.1	64.5	31.8
Mainstreamed	30.0	26.7	23.3	20.0
ESOL	14.7	32.4	41.2	11.8

5. I am happy that I am a member of the group I belong to.

Total	21.8	21.8	65.3	91.2
Mainstreamed	10.0	10.0	30.0	50.0
ESOL	11.8	11.8	35.3	41.2

6. I have a strong sense of belonging to my own ethnic group.

Total	21.8	49.8	81.2	47.3
Mainstreamed	10.0	23.3	40.0	26.7
ESOL	11.8	26.5	41.2	20.6

7. I understand pretty well what my ethnic group membership means to me.

Total	24.7	34.3	69.1	72.0
Mainstreamed	10.0	16.7	36.7	36.7
ESOL	14.7	17.6	32.4	35.3

8. In order to learn more about my ethnic group background, I have often talked to other people about my ethnic group.

Total	28.0	58.0	83.8	30.2
Mainstreamed	13.3	43.3	36.7	6.7
ESOL	14.7	14.7	47.1	23.5

9. I have a lot of pride in my ethnic group.

Total	21.8	12.9	55.3	110.0
Mainstreamed	10.0	10.0	20.0	60.0
ESOL	11.8	2.9	35.3	50.0

10. I participate in cultural practices of my own group, such as special food, music, or customs.

Total	27.3	40.9	62.0	69.8
Mainstreamed	6.7	23.3	26.7	43.3
ESOL	20.6	17.6	35.3	26.5

11. I feel a strong attachment towards my own
    ethnic group.

	SA	A	D	SD
Total	30.6	40.2	63.2	61.1
Mainstreamed	10.0	16.7	36.7	36.7
ESOL	20.6	23.5	26.5	29.4

12. I feel good about my cultural or ethnic group.

	SA	A	D	SD
Total	18.8	25.1	70.8	85.3
Mainstreamed	10.0	13.3	26.7	50.0
ESOL	8.8	11.8	44.1	35.3

[a]SA = Strongly Agree, A = Agree, D = Disagree, SD = Strongly Disagree.

Table 15:

Anxiety Item Comparisons by Mainstream and ESOL Groups: Frequency Distributions of Likert Agreement/Disagreement Scale Responses (5-Point Scale)

Anxiety Items	Percentage Distribution				
	Likert Scale Response Categories[a]				
	SA	A	U	D	SD
1. In ESOL/English classes, I forget how to Say things I know in English.					
Total	5.9	56.1	21.4	58.2	58.5
Mainstreamed	0.0	26.7	6.7	20.0	46.7
ESOL	5.9	29.4	14.7	38.2	11.8
2. In ESOL/English classes, I tremble when I know I'm going to have to speak in English.					
Total	28.0	55.7	21.8	37.3	57.3
Mainstreamed	13.3	23.3	10.0	16.7	36.7
ESOL	14.7	32.4	11.8	29.6	20.6
3. In ESOL/English classes, I start to panic when I have to speak English without preparation.					
Total	28.0	42.7	44.3	49.4	45.5
Mainstreamed	3.3	13.3	26.7	20.0	36.7
ESOL	14.7	29.4	17.6	29.4	8.8
4. In ESOL/English classes, when I speak English I feel like a different person					
Total	30.9	54.9	28.8	49.8	35.5
Mainstreamed	13.3	16.7	20.0	23.3	26.7
ESOL	17.6	38.2	8.8	26.5	8.8
5. In ESOL/English classes, even when I'm prepared to speak English, I get nervous.					
Total	24.3	46.8	43.9	43.2	41.8

	Mainstreamed	6.7	23.3	23.3	16.7	30.0
	ESOL	17.6	23.5	20.6	26.5	11.8

6. In ESOL/English classes, I'm afraid that my teachers are ready to correct every mistake I make.

	Total	27.3	40.2	34.7	58.6	39.2
	Mainstreamed	6.7	16.7	20.0	23.3	33.3
	ESOL	20.6	23.5	14.7	35.3	5.9

7. In ESOL/English classes, sometimes I can't express my true feelings in English and this makes me uncomfortable.

	Total	18.0	56.8	35.1	54.5	35.5
	Mainstreamed	3.3	33.3	23.3	13.3	26.7
	ESOL	14.7	23.5	11.8	41.2	8.8

8. In ESOL/English classes, I get nervous and confused when I speak English.

	Total	24.3	45.3	54.3	21.8	54.3
	Mainstreamed	6.7	10.0	36.7	10.0	36.7
	ESOL	17.6	35./3	17.6	11.8	17.6

9. In ESOL/English classes, there are so many rules in English that I feel I can't learn them all.

	Total	27.3	43.9	37.3	43.2	48.5
	Mainstreamed	6.7	23.3	16.7	16.7	36.7
	ESOL	20.6	20.6	20.6	26.5	11.8

10. In ESOL/English classes, I'm afraid that native English speakers will laugh at me when I speak English.

	Total	22.1	46.8	40.2	49.4	41.4
	Mainstreamed	13.3	23.3	16.7	20.0	26.7
	ESOL	8.8	23.5	23.5	29.4	14.7

11. I'm more nervous in the ESOL/English classes than in any other class.

	Total	12.6	34.3	24.3	52.4	76.5
	Mainstreamed	6.7	16.7	6.7	20.0	50.0
	ESOL	5.9	17.6	17.6	32.4	26.5

12. I worry many times that I'm going to
    fail the ESOL/English classes.

Total	27.6	46.1	22.1	43.2	60.19
Mainstreamed	10.0	16.7	13.3	16.7	43.3
ESOL	17.6	29.4	8.8	26.5	17.6

13. In ESOL/English classes, in group work
    I worry if my partner knows more
    English than me.

Total	23.9	39.4	28.5	53.2	55.1
Mainstreamed	3.3	10.0	16.7	26.7	43.3
ESOL	20.6	29.4	11.8	26.5	11.8

14. In ESOL/English classes, in group work
    I worry if my partner knows less English
    Than me.

Total	24.7	24.7	40.9	52.0	57.6
Mainstreamed	10.0	10.0	23.3	16.7	40.0
ESOL	14.7	14.7	17.6	35.3	17.6

15. I get nervous when the teacher speaks
    to me in English.

Total	23.5	27.3	30.6	47.3	71.4
Mainstreamed	0.0	6.7	10.0	26.7	56.7
ESOL	23.5	20.6	20.6	20.6	14.7

16. In ESOL/English classes, I get
    Embarrassed when I answer the teacher
    in English.

Total	23.9	36.1	22.1	59.8	58.0
Mainstreamed	3.3	6.7	13.3	33.3	43.3
ESOL	20.6	29.4	8.8	26.5	14.7

17. My stomach gets tight when I do
    something in ESOL/English classes.

Total	18.5	33.9	33.9	52.0	61.8
Mainstreamed	6.7	13.3	13.3	16.7	50.0
ESOL	11.8	20.6	20.6	35.3	11.8

18. In ESOL/English classes, I get so
    nervous that I forget everything.

Total	26.8	27.6	37.6	46.5	61.4
Mainstreamed	3.3	10.0	20.0	20.0	46.7

		SA	A	U	D	SD
	ESOL	23.5	17.6	17.6	26.5	14.7
19. In ESOL/English classes, I'm afraid to ask questions in English.						
	Total	27.3	39.4	19.2	47.3	66.8
	Mainstreamed	6.7	10.0	13.3	26.7	43.3
	ESOL	20.6	29.4	5.9	20.6	23.5
20. I daydream a lot when I'm in the ESOL/English classes.						
	Total	27.3	29.8	60.2	34.3	48.5
	Mainstreamed	6.7	3.3	36.7	16.7	36.7
	ESOL	20.6	26.5	23.5	17.6	11.8

[a]SA = Strongly Agree, A = Agree, U = Uncertain/Neutral, D = Disagree, SD = Strongly Disagree.

APPENDIX C

The details of the MEIM results on gender differences are as follow:

MEIM Statement One: I have spent time trying to find out more about my ethnic group, such as its history, traditions, and customs.

In reviewing the results of the t-tests, they indicate that for Statement One of the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM) the 19 females in the ESOL classes have a mean score of 2.84 and the 15 males have a mean score of 2.93. Among the students in the mainstream English classes, the 11 females have a mean score of 2.45 and the 19 males have a mean score of 3.11. The 16 females in the Hispanic group have a mean score of 2.81 and the 12 males scored 3.25. The 14 females in the Haitian group scored 2.57 and the 22 males scored 2.91. The t-test results revealed no statistical significant difference at the .05 level between males and females.

MEIM Statement Two: I am active in organizations or social groups that include mostly members of my own ethnic group.

For Statement Two, the 19 females in the ESOL program have a mean score of 2.32 and the 15 males have a mean score of 2.47. In mainstream classes, the 11 females have a score of 2.36 and the 19 males scored 2.05. The 14 Haitian females scored 1.86 and the 22 males have a mean score of 2.23. The 16 Hispanic females scored 2.75 and the 12 males scored 2.25. The t-tests for Statement Two had no statistical significant differences at the .05 level between males and females.

MEIM Statement Three: I have a clear sense of my ethnic background and what it means for me.

Reviewing Statement Three of the MEIM, the 19 ESOL females have a mean score of 3.05 and the 15 ESOL males score 3.40. The 11 mainstream females have a mean score of 2.82 and 19 mainstream males scored 3.21. The 14 Haitian females scored 2.64 and their 22 male counterparts scored 3.18. The 16 Hispanic females have a mean score of 3.25 and the 12 Hispanic males scored 3.50. Again, the t-tests revealed no statistical significant difference at any level between males and females.

MEIM Statement Four: I think a lot about how my life will be affected by my ethnic group membership.

On Statement Four of the MEIM, the 19 females in ESOL classes have a mean score of 2.53 and the 15 males scored 2.47. The 11 mainstream females scored 2.18 and the 19 males scored 2.42. The 14 Haitian females have a mean score of 2.07 and the 19 mainstream males have a mean score of 2.41. The 16 Hispanic females scored 2.69 and the 12 Hispanic males have a mean score of 2.50. The t-tests for the ESOL, the mainstream, the Hispanic, and the Haitian groups showed no significant statistical difference.

MEIM Statement Five: I am happy that I am a member of the group I belong to.

MEIM Statement Five shows that the 19 females in the ESOL program have a mean score of 3.38 and the 12 males scored 3.42. The 11 females in the mainstream program have a mean score of 3.00 and the 19 males scored 3.32. The 14 Haitian female students have a mean score of 2.71 and the 22 males a score of 3.05. In the

Hispanic group, the 16 females scored 3.38 and the 12 males have a mean score of 3.42. The t-tests in none of the groups showed any statistical significant difference.

MEIM Statement Six: I have a strong sense of belonging to my own ethnic group.

Statement Six of the MEIM provided a mean score of 2.84 for the 19 females in the ESOL program and a score of 2.53 for the 19 males. The 11 females in mainstream English classes have a mean score of 2.73 and the 19 males scored 2.89. The 14 females in the Haitian group have a mean score of 2.57 and the 22 males scored 2.64. On the other hand, the 16 Hispanic females scored 3.00 and the 12 males have a mean score of 2.92. No t-test showed any statistical significant difference between the groups for this question.

MEIM Statement Seven: I understand pretty well what my ethnic group membership means to me.

For Statement Seven of the MEIM instrument, the ESOL females have a mean score of 2.84 and the males a score of 2.93. The mainstream females scored 2.82 and the males scored 3.11. For the Haitians, the scores were 2.43 and 2.95 respectively for females and males. Hispanics scored 3.19 for females and 3.17 for males. The t-tests for this question showed no significant difference between the groups.

MEIM Statement Eight: In order to learn more about my ethnic background, I have often talked to other people about my ethnic background.

The ESOL group scored 2.84 for females and 2.73 for males in Statement Eight of the MEIM. The mainstream group scored 2.09 and 2.53 for females and males. The Haitian females have a mean score of 2.14 and the males a score of 2.59

for this question. The Hispanic group had scores of 2.94 for females and 2.67 for males. The t-tests revealed no significant difference for any of the groups.

MEIM Statement Nine: I have a lot of pride in my ethnic background

For Statement Nine, the females in the ESOL program scored 3.21 and males scored 3.27. The mainstream females have a mean score of 3.36 and the males a score of 3.26. The Haitian females scored 3.00 and the males 3.23. The Hispanic females have a mean score of 3.50 and the males scored 3.33. There was no significant statistical difference in the t-tests for the ESOL, mainstream, Haitian, or Hispanics groups.

MEIM Statement Ten: I participate in cultural practices of my own group, such as special food, music, or customs.

MEIM Statement Ten shows a mean score of 2.74 for ESOL females and 2.60 for the males. The mainstream females have a score of 3.09 and the males have a score of 3.05. The Haitians have mean scores of 2.43 for females and 3.14 for males. For the Hispanics, it is 3.25 for females and 2.33 for males. The t-tests revealed no significant differences for ESOL and mainstream groups, but the Haitian group shows a significant difference of –2.133 with significance at the .040 level, and the Hispanic group shows a significant difference of 2.327 with significance at the .028 level.

MEIM Statement Eleven: I feel a strong attachment towards my own ethnic group

As far as Statement Eleven of the MEIM is concerned, the ESOL students have mean scores of 2.74 and 2.53 for females and males, respectively. For the mainstream students the scores are 2.91 for females and 3.05 for males. Hispanic

females scored 2.50 and Hispanic males have a score of 2.67. Again, the t-tests yielded no significance for this question.

MEIM Statement Twelve: I feel good about my cultural or ethnic background.

Finally, the results of MEIM Statement Twelve show scores of 3.11 for females and 3.00 for males in the ESOL group. The group of mainstream students has a mean score of 3.18 for females and 3.16 for males. Haitian females scored 2.93 and males scored 3.09, whereas Hispanic females have a mean score of 3.31 and males have 3.08. T-tests reveal no significant difference for any of the groups.

For the ESOL group of students, the t-test for the total MEIM (items 1-12) shows a score of .123, which has no significance. The t-test (total MEIM items 1-12) for the mainstream group reveals a score of -.869, which has no significance. The t-test for the total MEIM scores (items 1-12) for the Haitian students is -2.075 and this score has significance at the .046 level.   For the Hispanic students the total MEIM score (items 1-12) are .867, which has no significance.

APPENDIX D

The details of the answers to the ELAS questions on gender differences are as follow:

ELAS Statement One: In ESOL/English classes, I forget how to say things I know in English

For the ELAS Statement One, the 19 females in the ESOL group have a mean score of 3.26 and the 15 males have a mean score of 3.13. The 11 mainstream female students have a mean score of 3.73 and the 19 males have a mean score of 3.95. The 14 Haitian females have a mean score of 3.07 and the 22 males have a mean score of 3.91. The 16 female Hispanics have a mean score of 3.75 and the 12 males have a mean score of 3.00. The t-tests for the ESOL, mainstream, and Hispanic groups reveal no significant difference at the .05 level. However, the Haitian group's t-test reveals a significant statistical difference of −2.046 with significance at the .049 level.

ELAS Statement Two: In ESOL/English classes, I tremble when I know I'm going to have to speak in English.

ELAS Statement Two gives a mean score of 3.00 for both the 19 females and the 15 males in the ESOL group. In the mainstream group, the 11 females have a mean score of 4.00 and the 19 males have a mean score of 3.05. The 14 Haitian females have a mean score of 2.71 and the 22 Haitian males have a score of 3.14. The 16 Hispanic females have a mean score 3.94 and the 12 males a score of 2.83. The t-tests for ELAS Question Two reveal no significant difference for the ESOL, mainstream, or Haitian groups. However, the Hispanic group has a significant difference of 2.073, which indicates significance at the .048 level.

ELAS Statement Three: In ESOL/English classes, I start to panic when I have to speak English without preparation.

The 19 females in the ESOL group have a score of 3.00 for ELAS Statement Three and the 15 males have a mean score of 2.73. In the mainstream group, the 11 females have a score of 3.91 and the19 males have a score of 3.63. The 14 Haitian females have a mean score of 2.79 and the 22 males scored 3.59. For the Hispanic group, the 16 females scored 3.81 and the 12 males have a score of 2.58. The t-tests reveal no significant statistical significance for the ESOL, mainstream, or Haitian groups, but show significant difference for the Hispanic group of 2.073 with significance at the .048 level.

ELAS Statement Four: IN ESOL/English classes, when I speak English I feel like a different person.

In relation to Statement Four of the ELAS, the female ESOL students have a mean score of 3.11 and the males a score of 2.20. The female Mainstream students have a mean score of 3.09 and the males have a score of 3.47. Within the Haitian group the females have a score of 2.93 and the males have a score of 3.27. The Hispanic females have a mean score of 3.25 and the males have a score of 2.25. The t-tests for the Mainstream and Haitian groups show no significant difference. The ESOL group's t-test reveals a significant difference of 2.136 with significance at the .040 level. The t-test for the Hispanic group has a significant difference of 2.249 with significance at the .033 level.

ELAS Statement Five: In ESOL/English classes, even when I'm prepared to speak English, I get nervous.

For the ELAS Statement Five, the females in the ESOL group have a mean score of 3.16 and the males have a mean score of 2.60. In the mainstream group the females have a mean score of 3.73 and the males have a score of 3.21. The score for the females in the Haitian group is 3.14 and for the males it is 3.18. In the Hispanic group the females have a mean score of 3.56 and the males have a score of 2.50. The t-tests for the ESOL, Mainstream, and Haitian groups show no statistical significant differences. However, the t-test for the Hispanic group reveals a statistical significant difference of 2.334 with significance at the .028 level.

ELAS Statement Six: In ESOL/English classes, I'm afraid that my teachers are ready to correct every mistake I make.

In the ELAS Statement Six the females in the ESOL group have a mean score of 3.21 and the males have a score of 2.33. The females in the Mainstream group have a mean score of 3.27 and the males' score is 3.79. The Haitian females have a mean score of 3.29 and the males have a score of 3.64. The females in the Hispanic group have a mean score of 3.19 and the males' score is 2.25. The t-tests for the Mainstream, Haitian, and Hispanic groups show no significant statistical difference. The t-test for the ESOL group shows a significant difference of 2.063 that has significance at the .047 level.

ELAS Statement Seven: In ESOL/ English classes, sometimes I can't express my true feelings in English and this makes me uncomfortable.

For ELAS Statement Seven, the females in the ESOL group have a mean score of 3.32 and the males have a mean score of 2.73. The females in the Mainstream group have a score of 2.82 and the score for the males is 3.53. In the

131

Haitian group the females have a mean score of 3.00 and the score for the males is 3.50. The Hispanic females have a mean score of 3.25 and the males have a score of 2.58. There is no statistical significant difference for any of the groups in the t-tests.

ELAS Statement Eight: In ESOL/English classes, I get nervous and confused when I speak in English.

ELAS Statement Eight produced a mean score of 3.00 among the ESOL females and a score of 2.47 among the ESOL males. The Mainstream females have a mean score of 3.45 and the males have a mean score of 3.68. The females in the Haitian group have a mean score of 3.21 and the score for the males is 3.32. The females in the Hispanic group have a score of 3.13 and the score for the males is 2.83. The t-tests for Statement Eight reveal no significant statistical difference for any of the groups.

ELAS Statement Nine: In ESOL/English classes, there are so many rules in English that I feel I can't learn them all.

For ELAS Statement Nine the females in the ESOL group have a mean score of 3.00 and the males have a mean score of 2.73. In the Mainstream group the females have a mean score of 3.18 and the score for the males is 3.74. The Haitian females have a score of 3.21 and the males have a score of 3.36. The females in the Hispanic group have a mean score of 2.94 and the Hispanic males have a score of 3.17. The t-tests reveal no statistical significant difference in any of the groups.

ELAS Statement Ten: In ESOL/English classes, I'm afraid that native English speakers will laugh at me when I speak English.

For ELAS Statement Ten the females in the ESOL group have a mean score of 3.47 and the males have a score of 2.80. The females in the Mainstream group have a mean score of 3.45 and the males have a score of 3.11. The female Haitians scored 3.36 and the Haitian males scored 3.23. The females in the Hispanic group have a mean score of 3.56 and the Hispanic males have a mean score of 2.50. The ESOL, Mainstream, and Haitian groups do not show any significant statistical difference in the t-tests. The Hispanic group reveals a significant statistical difference between males and females of 2.071 with a significance of .048.

ELAS Statement Eleven: I'm more nervous in the ESOL/English classes than in any other class.

In the case of ELAS Statement Eleven the females in the ESOL group have a mean score of 3.68 and the ESOL males have a mean score of 3.40. The females in the Mainstream group have a mean score of 3.82 and the males have a score of 3.95. The Haitian females have a score of 3.29 and the Haitian males have a mean score of 3.86. In the Hispanic group the females have a mean score of 4.13 and the males have a score of 3.42. The t-tests reveal no statistical significant difference for any of the groups.

ELAS Statement Twelve: I worry many times that I'm going to fail the English classes.

For ELAS Statement Twelve the females in the ESOL group have a mean score of 3.00 and the males a score of 2.93. In the Mainstream group the females have

a mean score of 3.91 and the males have a score of 3.53. As far as the Haitian group is concerned, the females have a mean score of 3.50 and the males have a mean score of 3.45. The female Hispanics have a mean score of 3.19 and the males have a score of 2.92. The t-tests reveal no significant difference for any of the groups.

ELAS Statement Thirteen: In ESOL/English classes, in-group work I worry if my partner knows more English than me.

In the case of ELAS Statement Thirteen, the females in the ESOL group have a mean score of 3.32 and the males have a score of 2.13. The females in the Mainstream group have a score of 4.00 and the males have a score of 3.95. In the Haitian group the females have a mean score of 3.57 and the males have a score of 3.27. The Hispanic females have a mean score of 3.56 and the males have a score of 2.92. The t-tests do not reveal any statistical significant difference for the Mainstream, Haitian, or Hispanic groups. The ESOL group, however, has a t-test that reveals that there is a statistically significant difference of 2.743 with a significance of .010.

ELAS Statement Fourteen: In ESOL/English classes, in group work I worry if my partner knows less English than me

For ELAS Statement Fourteen the females in the ESOL group have a mean score of 3.63 and the males have a mean score of 2.80. The Mainstream females have a mean score of 3.18 while the males have a score of 3.95. The Haitian females and the males have both a score of 3.50. The Hispanic females have a mean score of 3.44 and their male counterparts have a score of 3.33. None of the groups have a statistically significant difference according to the results of the t-tests.

ELAS Statement Fifteen: I get nervous when the teacher speaks to me in the English classes.

In ELAS Statement Fifteen the females in the ESOL group have a score of 2.95 and the males have a score of 2.67. The females in the Mainstream group have a mean score of 4.27 for Statement Fifteen and the males have a score of 4.37. The females in the Haitian group have a mean score of 4.33 and the males have a score of 2.82. The females in the Hispanic group have a mean score of 3.44 and the male have a score of 3.42. The t-tests reveal no statistically significant differences in any of the groups.

ELAS Statement Sixteen: In ESOL/English classes, I get embarrassed when I answer the teacher in English.

For ELAS Statement Sixteen the females in the ESOL group have a mean score of 2.84 and the male have a score of 2.87. In the Mainstream group the females have a score of 3.64 and the males have a score of 4.32. The Haitian females have a score of 4.07 and the males have a score of 2.85, whereas the Hispanic females have a score of 3.25 and the males have a score of 3.08. The ESOL, Mainstream, and Hispanic groups have no statistically significant differences among the members in their t-tests. However, the Haitian group has a significant difference of -2.166 with a significance of .037.

ELAS Statement Seventeen: My stomach gets tight when I do something in English classes.

In regards to ELAS Statement Seventeen the females in the ESOL group have a mean score of 3.53 and the males have a score of 2.67. The Mainstream females have a mean score of 4.18 while the males have a score of 3.74. Haitian females have a mean score of 3.90 and the males have a score of 3.15. In the Hispanic group the females have a score of 3.69 and the males have a score of 2.83. The t-tests for the Mainstream, Haitian, and Hispanic groups show no statistically significant differences. The ESOL group, on the other hand, shows a statistically significant difference of 2.121 with a significance of .042.

ELAS Statement Eighteen: IN ESO/English classes, I get so nervous that I forget everything.

In Statement Eighteen of the ELAS the ESOL females have a mean score of 3.05 and the males have a mean score of 2.73. The Mainstream females have a score of 4.45 and the males have a score of 3.68. The females in the Haitian group have a mean score of 3.97 and the males have a score of 2.91. The Hispanic females have a score of 3.56 and the males have a score of 2.75. There are no statistically significant differences in the t-tests for any of the groups.

ELAS Statement Nineteen: In ESOL/English classes, I'm afraid to ask questions in English.

For ELAS Statement Nineteen the ESOL females have a mean score of 3.26 and the males have a mean score of 2.60. The females in the mainstream group have a mean score of 4.00 whereas the males have a mean score of 3.84. In the Haitian group the females have a mean score of 3.90 and the males have a score of 2.97. The females in the Hispanic group have a mean score of 3.75 and the males have a mean

score of 2.83. The t-tests show no statistically significant differences in any of the groups.

ELAS Statement Twenty: I daydream a lot when I'm in the English classes.

In ELAS Statement Twenty the 19 females in the ESOL group have a mean score of 2.89 and the 15 males have a mean score of 2.53. In the mainstream group the 11 females have a mean score of 3.45 and the 19 males have a mean score of 3.89. In the Haitian group the 30 females have a mean score of 3.73 and the 34 males have a mean score of 2.74. In the Hispanic group the 16 females have a mean score of 3.00 and the 12 males have a mean score of 2.67. The t-tests reveal that there are no statistically significant differences in any of the groups.

The mean for the total anxiety score (items 1-20) for the 19 females in the ESOL group is 63.68 and for the 15 males is 54.07. The result of the t-test for this group is 1.958, which has no statistical significant difference. The mean for the total anxiety score for the 11 females in the Mainstream group is 73.55 and for the 19 males is 74.37. The result of the t-test for this group is -.135, which has no statistical significant difference.

The mean for the total anxiety score for the 14 females in the Haitian group is 64.93 and for the 22 males is 70.18. The result of the t-test for this group is -.902, which has no statistical significant difference. The mean for the total anxiety score for the 16 females in the Hispanic group is 69.38 and for the 12 males is 56.67. The result of the t-test for this group is 2.12, which has significance at the.044 level.

APPENDIX E

Student Information Sheet

Name _____

Age _____ Gender _____ Grade _____

What language is spoken at home? _____

How long have you been in the United States? _____

How old were you when you arrived to the United States? _____

Do you speak English at home? _____ With whom? _____

Before coming to the United States, did you study English? _____ How long?
_____

Circle the correct answer to the following questions:

What school level did your parents finish?

Mother: elementary school   secondary school   university

Father: elementary school   secondary school   university

In general, how do you feel when you speak English?

Comfortable   A little nervous   Very nervous

How well do you speak English?

Very well   good   okay   not good

How well do you read English?

Very well   good   okay   not good

How well do you understand other people speaking to you in English?

Very well   good   okay   not good

How well do you write English?

Very well   good   okay   not good

Consentimiento de los padres para los estudiantes poder participar

Estimado Sr./Sra. _____:

    Su hijo/hija, _____, ha sido seleccionado para participar en un estudio de investigación educacional el cual será llevado a cabo por el Sr. Herminio Flores, estudiante del doctorado en la Universidad Lynn en Boca Ratón, Florida. El estudio consiste en contestar dos cuestionarios para detectar el nivel de ansiedad en las clases de inglés y el grado de aculturación de los estudiantes. Su hijo/hija contestará además una serie de preguntas sobre su edad, su educación, fecha de llegada a los Estados Unidos y nivel de educación de sus padres. Es posible que el Sr. Flores contacte en persona o por teléfono con el estudiante para aclarar o profundizar algunas preguntas.

    El Sr. Flores está investigando si el nivel de ansiedad de los estudiantes en las clases de inglés está afectando su nivel de aculturación. El estudio incluye estudiantes que son inmigrantes en una escuela superior en el sur de la Florida. Se espera que los resultados de esta investigación sean de beneficio en el futuro para otros estudiantes inmigrantes en los programas de inglés como segundo idioma en las escuelas superiores públicas del sur de la Florida.

    Su hijo/hija estará sentado durante una de sus clases de inglés mientras completa los cuestionarios. No se anticipa ninguna incomodidad y el riesgo es mínimo. La participación de su hijo/hija en el estudio es completamente voluntaria y él/ella puede negar su participación en cualquier momento sin consecuencia negativa alguna. Si su hijo/hija renuncia a su participación en el estudio, la información obtenida acerca de él/ella será eliminada y destruida. Toda la información obtenida de los cuestionarios será mantenida en absoluta confidencialidad. Los estudiantes recibirán un número o alias en lugar de su nombre para proteger la identidad y confidencialidad de la persona.

    La información obtenida por medio de esta investigación estará segura en una caja fuerte en la oficina del Sr. Flores por un periodo de cinco años y entonces será destruida. El informe escrito acerca de esta investigación no incluirá ninguna información que pueda identificar a nadie personalmente. Los resultados del estudio serán publicados en una tesis doctoral y posiblemente en revistas profesionales. La Universidad Lynn ha autorizado el acceso a todos los materiales relacionados con este estudio. Cabe mencionar que la participación en este estudio no incluye ninguna remuneración monetaria.

    Si usted considera necesario tener una consulta privada con el investigador para discutir cualquier aspecto de la investigación, usted podrá comunicarse con la Doctora Serrano en la Universidad Lynn llamando al (o con el Sr. Flores   La Doctora Serrano es la moderadora del comité de

disertación del Sr. Flores y ella podrá contestar cualquier pregunta acerca de la investigación.

Le entregamos dos copias de este informe. Por favor, firme ambas copias para indicar que usted ha leído y entendido el informe y que usted está de acuerdo que su hijo/hija participe en el estudio. Por favor, devuelva una copia al Sr. Flores y guarde una copia para su récord personal.

Muchas gracias por su atención y consideración..

_____ _____
Nombre de la persona autorizada (Por favor, use letra de molde.)   Fecha

_____
Firma de la persona autorizada

_____ _____
Nombre del investigador (en letra de molde)   Fecha

_____
Firma del investigador

Appendix G

Konsantman Enfòme – Paran

Nou mande pitit ou a _____ pou li patisipe nan yon rechèch ke Mesye Herminio Flores, yon etidyan nan nivo doktora, nan depatman edikasyon, Sante ak Sèvis Imen nan Kolej Ross ki chita nan Inivèsite Lynn nan Boca Raton, Florida. Rechèch sa ap mande ke yo pran de ekzamen ki rele "English Language Anxiety Scale (ELAS) et Multigroup Ethnic Indentiy Measure (MIEM)."

Pitit ou ap gen pou li ranpli yon kesyonè konsènan fòmasyon etnik ak edikasyon nivo fanmi l. Nou ka mande piti ou a tou pou'l patisípe nan yon entèvyou ke n ap tepe sou radyo kote ap gen kèk kesyon sou zafè pwogram ESOL la nan lekòl piti ou a. N ap tradui tout entèvyou yo. N ap kontakte pitit ou anpèsòn oswa pa telefòn pou yon lot entèvyou pou nou revize analiz entèvyou inisyal la pou asire ke tout bagay korèk.

Bi etid la sè pou dekouvri si nivo akultirasyon afekte pa enkyetid pou etidyan imigran yo nan yon lekòl piblik. Nou seleksyonnen pitit ou paske li kalifye kom model volontè pou etid la. Nou espere ke rechèch etid sa ap benefisye lòt etidyan imigran ka
pra l antre nan pwogram ESOL nan lekòl piblik nan Sid Florid.

Pitit ou ap asiste yon klas ak yon ekzamen ak yon entèvyou. Nou pa atenn pyès jennman ak risk. Patisipasyon pitit ou se yon bagay konplètman volotè, e pitit ou a kapab wete tèt li nan etid la nenpòt lè, san pyès konsekans negatif. Si pitit ou a wete tèt li nan etid la, tout enfòmasyon nou kolekte sou lyo ap elimine e detwi. N ap kenbe tout enfòmasyon ke pitit ou te ban nou nan tout konfidans. Kopi entèvyou a ap nan yon sistèm kote n ape itilize yon nimewo ak fo non pou pwoteje e kenbe tout konfidans idantite pitit ou a.

Rezilta etid la ap nan yon bwat sekirite ki lokalize nan ofis lakay mwen, kote m ap kenbe'l pou senk an, aprè m ap detwi li. Rezilta rechèch la pap gen enfòmasyon pèsonel ladann. Tout rezilta rechèch la ap pibliye nan yon disertasyon doktoral e nan lòt kote tankou jounal pwofesyonèl. Enstitisyon Revi Bòd lan de Inivèsite Lynn otorize aksè a tout materyo konsènan rechèch etid sa. P ap gen pyès lajan pou patisipasyon nan rechèch sa a.
Sou demann ou ka gen yon konsiltasyon prive avèk moun k ap dirije rechèch la, l ap mete lè apa pou l pale de rezilta etid la. Ou ka santi lib tou pou kontakte Dr. Cheryl Serrano, Moun nan tèt komite disètasyon, nan Inivèsite Lynn nan (██████████
██████ si ou ta gen nenpot kesyon ki konsène yon aspe de etid la.

N ap ba ou de kopi konsantman enfòm la. Si vouplè, siyen toude kopi yo, ki endike ke ou te li, konprann, e konveni pou kite pitit ou patisipe nan rechèch sa a. Si vouplè, retounen youn nan kopi yo e kenbe lòt kopi an pou tèt ou.

Mèsi pou atansyon ou e konsiderasyon ou.

_____   _____
Non Moun Otorize a (Enprime)   Date

_____   _____
Siyati Moun Otorize   Date

_____   _____
Non Chèchè an (Enprime)   Date

_____   _____
Siyati Chèchè an   Date