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Nature and effect of bilingual education programs on second language acquisition

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Nature and effect of bilingual education programs on second language acquisition

Abstract

Bilingual programs, a newcomer to public education, are struggling against the hardships which accompany stages of infancy. Historically, bilingualism has been attempted in American schools since the eighteenth century when early immigrants organized schools to educate their children. Even today, public school classrooms contain children from other countries speaking different languages, representing different cultures. An education which enhances this bilingual atmosphere seems appropriate to fulfill the needs of non-English-speaking children. However, bilingual education in America is being denied the attention it deserves; consequently, the bilingual education effort to implement successful programs is accompanied by numerous problems.

THE NATURE AND EFFECT OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS
ON SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

A Research Paper
Presented to
the Department of School Administration
and Personnel Services
University of Northern Iowa

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts in Education

by
Mark David Finanger

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PROGRAMS ON SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Bilingual programs, a newcomer to public education, are struggling against the hardships which accompany stages of infancy. Historically, bilingualism has been attempted in American schools since the eighteenth century when early immigrants organized schools to educate their children. Even today, public school classrooms contain children from other countries speaking different languages, representing different cultures. An education which enhances this bilingual atmosphere seems appropriate to fulfill the needs of non-English-speaking children. However, bilingual education in America is being denied the attention it deserves; consequently, the bilingual education effort to implement successful programs is accompanied by numerous problems.

Statement of the Problem

In a country where two or more languages exist under a single government, one of the languages becomes the dominant language. Therefore, any other language existing or competing with the dominant language is eased out of the system until it is no longer used. For many years this "melting pot" theory worked in America and for

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confronting bilingual program attempts to meet the child's needs; and (3) the hardship experienced by the child in her pursuit of program goals. The study will focus on the Mexican American children who live in the Southwestern United States.

Importance of the Problem

The Mexican American has lived in the Southwestern part of America since the seventeenth century. This group of people has not been willing to abandon their cultural and linguistic heritage as the price for belonging to the dominant culture. Instead, the leadership in the Mexican American movement suggests the goal of acculturating into the dominant culture using bilingual programs as the vehicle to accomplish that purpose.

As a result of school failure among Spanish-speaking children and a high drop out rate, recent court action has recognized the rights of these children and other non-English-speaking individuals and has entitled them to equal educational opportunities. Bilingual education programs are a response to these legal decisions and concentrate on first and second language activities for these children in the belief that language deficiency is a major barrier to their academic growth in school.

Definitions of Terms

An anglo, for the purposes of this paper, is a North American who is not classified as being of Spanish language origin.

Bilingual education is the instruction in two languages and the use of those two languages as medium of instruction for any part of or all of the school curriculum.

A bilingual program provides language arts and curriculum content instruction in two languages.

Code switching, or alternation, is the change from one language to another in speech or writing. The change may vary in the frequency and the duration of the use of each of the languages.

The first language is also called the home language, mother tongue, or vernacular.

Interference is the use of elements from one language while speaking or writing another. These elements may include words, expressions, structures, or sounds.

A maintenance program is the distribution of teaching time designed to maintain through the school knowledge of both the home language and the second language. The maintenance may be at equal levels or at different levels.

The melting pot is a concept of American nationality whereby immigrants from all over the world, after several

generations of North American schooling, social and economic interaction and intermarriage, blend into a new American ethnic type.

Mexican Americans are citizens of the United States of America whose ancestry can be traced to the Republic of Mexico.

A transitional program is the distribution of teaching time in such a way as to phase out one of the languages of instruction. The transfer, which may be gradual or abrupt, is generally made from the mother tongue to the national language.

Second language acquisition is the learning of another language after having acquired the basics for the first.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of literature will be divided into three parts: (1) the historical perspective of bilingual education in America, (2) the program and goals of bilingual education, and (3) the components of bilingual education programs. Together, these three parts of literature review will explore the effect of bilingual programs on the Mexican American child's ability to acquire English as a second language.

Historical Perspective of Bilingual Education in America

Describing past educational practices designed to teach Mexican American children, Flores says,

Depressing statistics direct attention to the dismal performance of the schools in meeting the needs of the Mexican American community.¹

¹A.R. Flores, "Bilingual Education for Mexican American Children," Bilingual Education, ed. H. LaFontaine, et al. (Wayne: Avery Publishing Group Inc., 1978), p. 256.

The U.S. experience with bilingual schools fall into two different periods, pre-World War I and post-1963.²

Founded by immigrants, the U.S. has been populated by people from virtually every country. The earlier immigrants (1600-1880) faced cultural and linguistic problems in developing and adjusting to the American culture. However, it was the later immigrants that faced the greatest opposition to their native culture and language and overt pressure to change and to assimilate.³

As a result of the Americanization movement in the decade from 1913 to 1923, states passed statutes requiring English to be the language of instruction in the public and private schools. The purpose of these statutes was "to ensure that the schools would serve as a melting pot to transmit the means to participate in and contribute fully to American life."⁴ Opposing views on the "melting pot" theory are discussed even today.

Considering socio-economic pressures, Pialorsi sees no reason to apologize for requiring minorities to learn a language that is spoken by so many the world over.

²Andrew D. Cohen, A Sociolinguistic Approach to Bilingual Education (Rowley: Newbury House Publishers, Inc., 1975), p. 29.

³Ibid.

⁴Cohen, op. cit., p. 30.

The possession of the skill "to use English as a meaningful second language has very little to do with the damaging effects of acculturation and transculturation."⁵

Despite the proponents' case for teaching Hispanic pupils in the home language, Rodriquez believes it is the function of education to

take children away from home, away from the comforting intimacies and isolation of the barrio, and make them confront the public world where the victories of self-respect and success (no matter how they define it), must be won.⁶

Contrary to these points of view, Foerster argues the melting pot theory is no longer tenable.

Rather than a melting pot, as a nation we are more like a salad bowl . . . It is a time for the monocultural curriculum of the past to give way to the multicultural curriculum of the present and future."⁷

John and Horner have stated that inherent in the "melting pot" theory is the assumption that "any socialization acquired before the school should be undone by the

⁵Frank Pialorsi, Teaching the Bilingual (Tuscon: The University of Arizona Press, 1974), p. 8.

⁶Peter Gerner, "From Mexican Boy to American Man: The Education of Richard Rodriquez," Chicago Tribune, April 1, 1982, p. 1, 14. Section 3.

⁷Leona M. Foerster, "Components of a Multicultural Curriculum." Bilingual Education, ed. H. LaFontaine, et al. (Wayne: Avery Publishing Group Inc., 1978), p. 299.

school so that the child can be turned out in the common mold."⁸ Arguing in favor of the Mexican American, Carrillo claims that this ethnocentric model has been largely responsible for the failure of the traditional system and the dominant society to respect the cultural and linguistic distinctness of this group.⁹ Cordasco described the implementation of this philosophy as an assault upon the Mexican American individual in the following words:

In its efforts to assimilate all of its charges the American school assaulted (and in consequence, very often destroyed) the cultural identity of the child; it forced him to leave his ancestral language at the school house door . . .¹⁰

Kobrick says that the curriculum is one-sided and does not meet the needs of the Mexican American children.

Children are immediately retarded in their school-work. For many the situation becomes hopeless, and they drop out of school. In other cases, believing the school system offers no meaningful program, parents may fail to send their children to school at all.¹¹

Proposing a cure for motivation which has been deflated by failure, Larson writes,

⁸Frederico M. Carrillo, The Development of a Rationale and Model Program to Prepare Teachers for the Bilingual Bicultural Secondary School Programs (San Francisco: R and E Research Associates, 1977), p. 30.

⁹Ibid.

¹⁰Ibid.

¹¹Jeffrey W. Kobrick, "The Compelling Case for Bilingual Education," Saturday Review of Education, 55 (April, 1972), p. 22.

Sustaining motivation requires reconsideration of the need for bilingualism, the importance of dealienation, the potential involved in being able to communicate effectively . . .¹²

Kobrick proposes a conclusive argument in favor of respect for diversity and pluralism when he writes,

Bilingual-bicultural education is perhaps the greatest educational priority today in bilingual communities . . . the very fact of the adoption of a program recognizing a child's language and culture may help to change the way the school views the child. It may teach us that diversity is to be enjoyed and valued rather than feared or suspected.¹³

The 1940's were marked by considerable expansion of programs in English as a second language. Intensive English drills were designed to facilitate later instruction through English in school subjects, with no effort to develop the children's knowledge of their own language and culture.¹⁴

Though small-scale efforts to teach bilingual education had been attempted for many years, it was the Coral Way School in Miami, Florida that started contemporary bilingual education in 1963. Funded by

¹²Donald N. Larson and William A. Smalley, Becoming Bilingual, A Guide to Language Learning (South Pasadena: William Carey Library, 1972), p. 4.

¹³Kobrick, op. cit., p.p. 173-174.

¹⁴Andrew D. Cohen, A Sociolinguistic Approach to Bilingual Education (Rowley: Newbury House Publishers, Inc., 1975), p. 31.

private and public foundations, this model bilingual program became the unofficial demonstration model school for the nation.¹⁵

In a much celebrated case the United States Supreme Court unanimously ruled in the Lau versus Nichols decision that

"there is no equality of treatment merely by providing students with the same facilities, textbooks, teachers, and curriculum; for students who do not understand English are effectively foreclosed from any meaningful education."¹⁶

This was a landmark decision because it endorsed the Bilingual Education Act of 1968, the HEW Executive Memorandum, and state legislation mandating bilingual education as a means toward achieving quality in education for language minority children.

In 1971, Massachusetts passed the nation's first comprehensive state bilingual education law, declaring that

classes conducted exclusively in English are 'inadequate' for the education of children whose native tongue is another language and that bilingual education programs are necessary 'to ensure equal educational opportunity to every child.'¹⁷

¹⁵Frank Cordasco, "The Bilingual Education Act," Phi Delta Kappan. 51 (March, 1969), p.p. 75-76.

¹⁶Alfredo R. Flores, "Bilingual Education for Mexican American Children," Bilingual Education, ed. H. LaFontaine, et al. (Wayne: Avery Publishing Group Inc., 1978), p. 258.

¹⁷Ibid.

Addressing the question, "Will foreign languages still be taught in the year 2000, Fishman foresees only a small possible diminution in the total number of mother tongues by the year 2000 or by any other foreseeable dates. Fishman assumes that most vernacular mother tongues are here to stay and that "more vernacular should be used/taught in the early elementary grades in the year 2000 than is the case today."¹⁸

Programs and Goals of Bilingual Education

The Office of Education has interpreted bilingual education officially to mean the use of two languages, one of which is English, as mediums of instructions, . . . for the same student population, in a well-organized program which encompasses part or all of the curriculum, plus study of the history and culture associated with a student's mother tongue.¹⁹

Gaarder lists three major goals of bilingual education: (1) development of a more effective, more "humane" one-way bridge to English; (2) more effective education for children whose mother tongue is not English;

¹⁸ Joshua A. Fishman, "Will Foreign Languages Still Be Taught in the Year 2000?" Bilingual Education, ed. H. LaFontaine, et al. (Wayne: Avery Publishing Group Inc., 1978), p. 287.

¹⁹ Paul R. Streiff, "Development of Guidelines For Conducting Research In Bilingual Education," (Doctoral dissertation, University of California Los Angeles, 1974), p. 17.

plus the long-term development and maintenance of that mother tongue; and (3) provision of a source of jobs in education and of preferential treatment for members of the ethnic groups involved.²⁰

The second goal was addressed by Spanish-speaking Senator Joseph Montoya of New Mexico in a letter to the U.S. Commissioner of Education on October 11, 1974.

It is my view . . . that bilingual education must have as its goal the fulfillment of what is inherent in its title: two languages. Children learn to speak a language at home or in their community. The school is, ideally, the place where children learn to read and write in that language; thus becoming literate . . . If a bilingual program is available in his school, he can learn to speak two languages instead of one, and because he is instructed in two languages (as the law directs for bilingual programs) he can soon become literate in two languages instead of one.²¹

Troike says bilingual programs may involve (a) learning to read first in another language and subsequently transferring this skill to English, or (b) using the native language only orally and introducing reading first in English after enough of it has been learned.²²

²⁰A. Bruce Gaarder, "Bilingual Education: Central Questions and Concerns," Bilingual Education, ed. H. LaFontaine, et al. (Wayne: Avery Publishing Group Inc., 1978), p. 36.

²¹Ibid.

²²Rudolph C. Troike, "Synthesis of Research on Bilingual Education," Educational Leadership, 38 (March, 1981), p. 498.

Transitional Program.

Flores describes one of two common categories of bilingual education programs:

"in transitional bilingualism one or more native languages are used in the elementary schools as a bridge into a more prestigious and international language such as English."²³

According to Sibelman, the transitional approach would necessitate the training of teachers in the language and culture of non-English-speaking groups. As the children acquired English the need for a continued program would diminish. Eventually, the outcome would be a sharply reduced need in some ethnic groups and perhaps different needs as immigration patterns change.²⁴

The author learned from a telephone interview with the Director of the Intercultural Development Research Association (IDRA) in San Antonio, Texas, that transitional programs are being unsuccessfully attempted in Texas. School administrators claim that they are available and effective, making federal funding possible. In practice, however, IDRA has been unable to find a single transitional program which is consistent with program goals and objectives.

²³A.R. Flores, "Bilingual Education for Mexican American Children," Bilingual Education, ed. H. LaFontaine, et al. (Wayne: Avery Publishing Group Inc., 1978), p. 49.

²⁴Larry Sibelman, "Bilingual Education: A Mosaic of Controversy," Bilingual Education, ed. H. LaFontaine, et al. (Wayne: Avery Publishing Groups Inc., 1978), p.p. 40-41.

Of the schools that have been funded and have so-called "bilingual programs", Superintendent McAllister (of Sonora Independent School District) believes that few have anything approaching what the Texas Education Agency understands to be bilingual education. McAllister assumes they are doing what Sonora is doing -- using the home language in order to teach the children English. "They call it bilingual education to secure funding and to satisfy the Mexican American community and state and federal education officials."²⁵

In his conversations with teachers, Gene Gonzales, a Mexican American parent, was convinced that

bilingual education simply involves too much material to cover in a day's work and would only lead to a child's flunking out . . . There was just not enough time to teach in two languages -- and the children were there to learn English.²⁶

Maintenance Program

Rivera describes the second bilingual program, a maintenance program:

"The vernicular, be it English or Spanish, is respected, maintained, developed, and strengthened.

²⁵Robert L. Hardgrave, Jr. and Santiago Hinojosa, The Politics of Bilingual Education: A Study of Four Southwest Texas Communities (Manhaca: Sterling Swift Publishing, 1975), p. 78.

²⁶Ibid.

It is used to facilitate teaching of all content areas of the curriculum, English is introduced and taught as a second language to the Spanish Dominant Child. Spanish is likewise introduced and taught as a second language to the English (monolingual) speaking child."²⁷

The "maintenance" approach, is a bilingual program established as a permanent part of the education of minority children and perceived as going on into future generations. "The aim of such a program," explains Sibelman, "is not assimilation but rather assumes a public policy of perpetuating and promoting the separate or divergent social origins of the population into the indefinite future."²⁸

Troiike claims the two terms "transitional" and "maintenance" more properly refer to the purposes of a bilingual program; either to provide a transition into English or to enable children to maintain their native language while developing sufficient command of English to participate on an equal basis with English speakers in the regular classroom. Troiike says that "in actuality maintenance supports transition."²⁹

²⁷Carmen Rivera, "Administration, Supervision and Implementation of a Bilingual School Curriculum," Proceedings: National Conference on Bilingual Education (Austin: Dissemination Center for Bilingual Bicultural Education, 1972), p. 111.

²⁸Ibid.

²⁹Ibid.

Components of Bilingual Education Programs

A look at bilingual education programs in operation across the nation presents the reviewer with a tremendous variety of programs organization and implementation. The author has explored five aspects of bilingual education programs which make important contributions toward program goals. The five ingredients -- curriculum, teaching personnel, educational administration, community, and evaluation -- act in meaningful ways within the overall rubric of bilingual education programs to help the child in his effort to achieve second language acquisition. Since bilingual education programs are still experiencing an exploratory stage, weaknesses, as well as strengths, have developed in each of the five areas.

Curriculum

Rivera addresses the concern about the methodology and materials of curriculum in a bilingual program:

This is the greatest weakness of a bilingual program. The dearth of materials reported a few years ago still exists. The location of materials in Spanish for our three groups of language learners . . . became for us a long and arduous task. When, in addition, these materials had to meet the additional requirements of legibility, attractiveness, price, reading level, language, and above all, relevancy, the task became almost monumental.³⁰

³⁰Rivera, op. cit., p.p. 238-239.

Hardgrave and Hinjosa tell that many schools in Texas have turned to Mexico and have used instructional materials developed for Mexican schools. Del Rio went one step further in bringing in a highly qualified teacher from Monterrey to teach first grade at the Garfield School and to work with other teachers in bilingual curriculum development.³¹

Robinett explains how efforts are being made to provide bilingual education programs with curricular materials:

Neither curriculum components of bilingual projects nor commercial interests have been able to keep pace in curriculum development. To help meet the growing demand, the Bilingual Education Programs Branch of the U.S. Office of Education has set in motion acquisition and production projects of national scope. One such project is the Spanish Curricula Development Center, which is charged with producing Spanish curricula materials for the primary level. As the materials are written, they are piloted in local bilingual programs, then revised and prepared for distribution to other bilingual projects serving as field trial centers in various parts of the country . . . these preliminary materials produced as a general edition will be converted to multiple editions which reflect the inputs of local and regional interest."³²

The Spanish Curricula Development Center makes provisions, to the extent possible, for an active Language Arts-Vernacular Strand, to meet the language needs of

³¹Hardgrave, op. cit., p.p. 34-35.

³²Ralp Robinett, "Developing Curriculum for Bilingual Education," Bilingualism in Early Childhood. ed. W.F. Mackey and T. Andersson (Rowley: Newbury House Publishers, 1977), p. 310.

Spanish-dominant children. The strand provides structured and unstructured reading experiences designed to develop systematically Spanish decoding skills, skills prerequisite to effective use of reading in the content areas, and habits and tastes in the reading of Spanish literary-type materials.³³

In describing the importance of reading readiness, Thonis explains how mastery of oral language influences the child's reading ability:

As oral language competency expands, the child uses a more precise sound system and a more sophisticated one; he has more words in his vocabulary and has multiple meanings for many of them. This ability to understand and to speak provides him with the necessary background of speech skills which he can bring to the next step in language acquisition -- the recognition of this same speech in visual form and the comprehension of it."³⁴

In her booklet, "Reading and the Bilingual Child," Ching states:

Bilingual children will be able to succeed in learning to read English only when they have developed good listening and speaking abilities in the English language. Teachers of bilingual children must not begin formal reading instruction of English until the

³³Robinett, op. cit., p. 312.

³⁴Eleanor Wall Thonis, Literacy for America's Spanish Speaking Children, ed. A. Ramirez, Reading Aids Series, Vol. XIX (Newark: International Reading Association Inc., 1976), p. 6.

children have acquired adequate English language skills; otherwise, the children may be doomed to frustration and failure in learning to read.³⁵

Ching cautions teachers to be aware of linguistic interferences and conflicts in sound and structure between the child's first language and standard English. When the teacher has acquired a knowledge of these variations and has diagnosed the specific linguistic needs of the children, he may plan and execute an English language skill development program based on areas of auditory discrimination, vocabulary and concept development, grammar, and oral expression.³⁶

Macnamara explains that the educated person has two production or encoding skills, speaking and writing, and two reception or decoding skills, listening and reading. In each of these skills four aspects can be distinguished.³⁷

Gary explains that when we comprehend something -- decoding spoken or written symbols into meaning -- we arrive at the meaning by the rules of the grammar which in normal human language relate meaning and sound sequences.

³⁵Doris C. Ching, Reading and the Bilingual Child, ed. H.J. James, Reading Aids Series, Vol. XVIII (Newark: International Reading Association Inc., 1976), p. 12.

³⁶Ching, op. cit., p.p. 13, 17.

³⁷John Macnamara, "The Bilingual's Linguistic Performance -- A Psychological Overview," Bilingualism and the Bilingual Child, ed. F. Cordasco (New York: Arno Press, 1978), p.p. 58-59.

Similarly, when we produce or encode a meaning, as in speaking or writing, we do so by utilizing the same phonological, syntactic, and semantic rules that we used in decoding. The only substantial difference between encoding and decoding is the motor skills required for the encoding process, be it writing, speech, or sign language. The rules are the same.³⁸

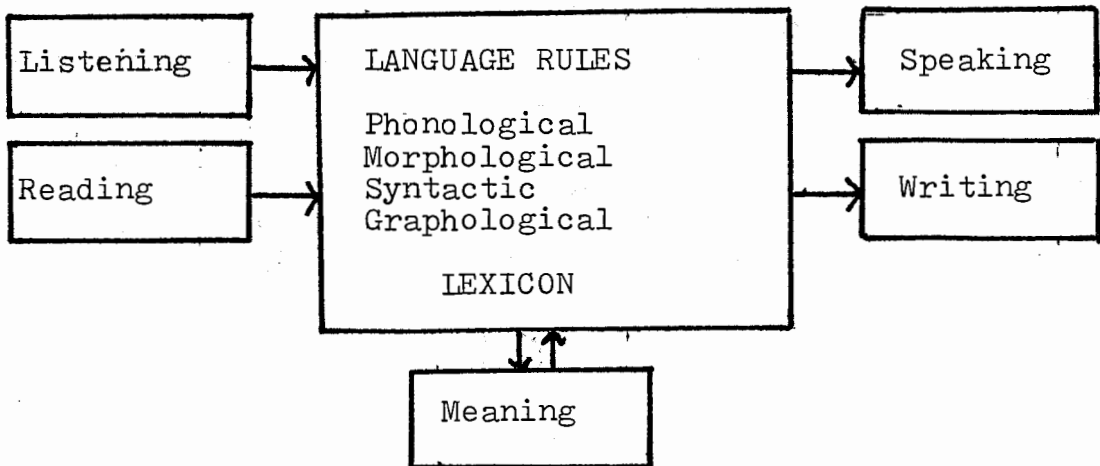
Gary illustrates these four major language skills and their accompanying language rules in a perception-production process shown in Model I below.³⁹

Model I.

The Perception-Production Process

Decoding Tasks:

Encoding Tasks:



³⁸Judith Olmsted Gary, "Why Speak if you don't need to? The Case for a Listening Approach to Beginning Foreign Language Learning," Second Language Acquisition Research, ed. W.C. Ritchie (New York: Academic Press Inc., 1978), p. 189.

³⁹Ibid.

"Bilingualism," says Macnamara, "involves two such matrices, or, because not all bilinguals possess all four skills, at least sections from two such matrices."⁴⁰

Flores makes some generalizations about the organizational patterns of the curriculum in the bilingual school. Two models are illustrated to show time allotments to each of the languages taught in the school for Spanish and English-speaking children.

In Model II instruction may be offered in both languages, with about equal time given to each language within any time block, either separately or in a blended manner.⁴¹ For the model to work effectively, children must have an equal command of both languages.

Model II.

Bilingual Instructional Strategy with Either a
Bilingual Teacher or a Teaching Team with
at least One Team Member Speaking the
Child's Home Language

S	E	S	E	S	E	S	E	S	E	S	E
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

In the plan depicted in Model III on the following page, instruction begins totally in Spanish as a language

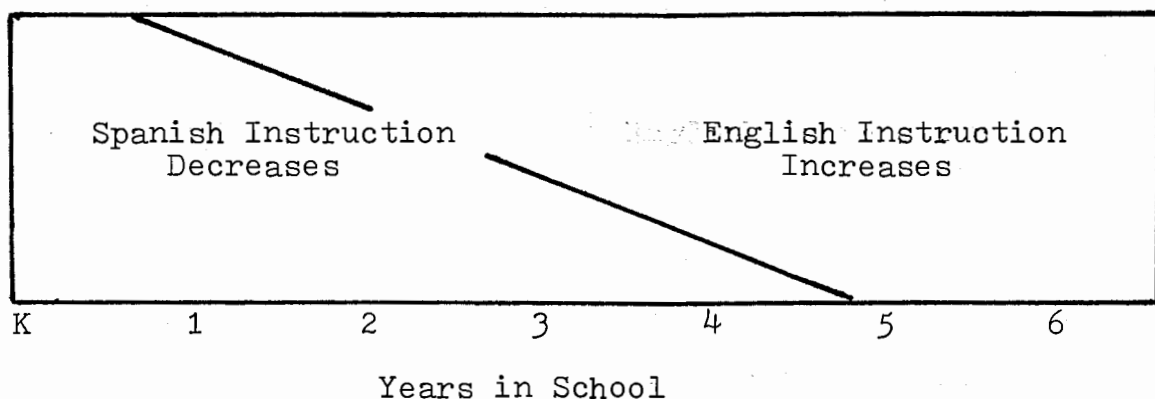
⁴⁰Macnamara, loc. cit.

⁴¹A.R. Flores, "Bilingual Education for Mexican American Children." Bilingual Education, ed. H. LaFontaine, et al. (Wayne: Avery Publishing Group, Inc., 1978), p.p. 57-58.

of instruction is reduced to a "maintenance" level, or is phased out completely, until all instruction is given in English. This program reflects one which is transitional in nature.⁴²

Model III.

Spanish Instruction Decreases as
English Instruction Increases



Troike says there is no research as yet to show whether one curriculum model in bilingual education is more effective than another, although "the National Institute of Education has recently funded several large-scale projects that should provide some useful information within the next several years."⁴³

⁴²Flores, op. cit., p.p. 58-59.

⁴³Rudolph Troike, "Synthesis of Research on Bilingual Education," Educational Leadership, 38 (March, 1981), p. 503.

Teaching personnel

The teacher is the key to the successful implementation of any curriculum. Foerster says, "Diagnostic-prescriptive teaching which leads to individualization of instruction is a must if pupils are to acquire important skills."⁴⁴

Suggesting that a bilingual teacher presents the child with the perfect model, Flores claims the bilingual teacher is able to plan better his learning activities and to allow for any adjustments that may help his children learn. He is able to check constantly to see if his students are comprehending his lesson presentation.⁴⁵

Andersson and Boyer believe the use of a single bilingual teacher, particularly in the self-contained classroom, "is especially suitable in the nursery, kindergarten, and primary grades, where the child still feels dependent on the teacher."⁴⁶

It is usually the case, however, that few persons are able to function equally well in two languages. Obviously, two or more teachers, each using one language,

⁴⁴Leona M. Foerster, "Components of a Multicultural Curriculum," Bilingual Education, ed. H. LaFontaine, et al. (Wayne: Avery Publishing Group, Inc., 1978), p. 301.

⁴⁵Flores, op. cit., p. 65.

⁴⁶Theodore Andersson and Mildren Boyer, Bilingual Schooling in the United States. (Austin: National Educational Laboratory Publishers, Inc., 1978), p. 136.

is necessarily required to teach the curricular subjects. Andersson and Boyer explain the most obvious advantage of this "team" arrangement is that "it is possible to use native, unaccented speakers teaching in each language."⁴⁷

Specific criteria required of the language competence required of teachers varies from author to author.

Carter felt that perhaps the biggest skill failing among teachers of Mexican American students was the almost universal inability to communicate in Spanish. "There is no valid reason," says Carter, "why teachers should not become relatively proficient in a language spoken by so many of their students."⁴⁸

An advocate of ESL programs for Mexican Americans, Smith did not consider it compulsory for the teacher to be fluent in Spanish. She did recognize, however, that some knowledge of the language would be an asset in enabling the teaching to establish a rapport with the students and serving as a bridge for clarifying concepts and making explanations.⁴⁹

⁴⁷Theodore Andersson and Mildred Boyer. Bilingual Schooling in the United States (Austin: Southwest Educational Development Laboratory, 1970), p.p. 115-116.

⁴⁸Frederico M. Carrillo, The Development of a Rationale and Model Program to Prepare Teachers for the Bilingual-Bicultural Secondary School Programs. (San Francisco: R and E Research Associates, 1977), p. 53.

⁴⁹Ibid.

Gaarder's opinion of teacher competence in language supported the dual language, dual literacy aims of many bilingual program, teachers of English should be native speakers or have near native proficiency in order to meet the vernacular needs of the students.⁵⁰

Obviously, the final choice for native English and for native Spanish-speaking teachers to become bilingual remains a decision on the teacher's part. The time and personal commitments involved are great and the effort does not guarantee successful results. Seliger says there is much evidence that "the age of the learner is a factor in the ability to acquire a nativelike pronunciation of a second language."⁵¹ Children are able to acquire complete control of the phonological system of another language, while post-pubic second language learning almost always leaves residue of foreign accent. Seliger is confident that,

variables such as education, language background, years of second language study, and desire to improve accent are not as important as the age at which the learner begins to acquire the second language.⁵²

⁵⁰Ibid.

⁵¹Herbert W. Seliger, "Implications of a Multiple Critical Periods Hypothesis for Second Language Learning," Second Language Acquisition Research, ed. W.C. Ritchie (New York: Academic Press, Inc., 1978), p. 12.

⁵²Ibid.

Considering the time and money involved, as well as the chance that the attempt to become bilingual may be unsuccessful, it is easier to understand why public school teachers reacted negatively when Texas made bilingual education mandatory in Texas public schools:

Mrs. Nancy Donaldson, an Anglo teacher in the North Town (Texas) Elementary School, thinks it is hard for a child to go into a classroom where another language is spoken, but insists,

English is the American language; they will need it. Mexican children should have intensive English . . . the teachers should know some Spanish, but bilingual education would be difficult; we have to teach reading, math, and so many things in English, how would we have time to teach in Spanish, too?⁵³

Fear over job security has been paramount, but teachers have resisted what obviously means a radical curriculum change, requiring of them not only a different classroom format, but special workshops and perhaps summer training programs for which they may have little enthusiasm. The conservatism of the classroom teacher has meant that he or she has been virtually dragged into bilingual education. Teacher opposition is frequently revealed in

⁵³Jean Meadowcroft and Douglas E. Foley, "Life in a Changing Multi-Ethnic School: Anglo Teachers and Their Views of Mexican Children," Bilingual Education, ed. H. LaFontaine, et al. (Wayne: Avery Publishing Group, Inc., 1978), p. 86.

private conversation, and inevitably it is manifest in the classroom situation. When the teacher is not committed to bilingual education, the resultant frustration may be taken out on the Mexican American child.⁵⁴

Educational Administration

Since bilingual programs are a new phenomena, very little has been written in the area of the supervision of such programs. "Supervisors of bilingual education have painfully learned from their own experiences,"⁵⁵ says Rodriquez.

Hardgrave presents the following description of the school superintendent's leadership role:

The initiative in the past for the development of bilingual programs has been primarily in the hands of the Superintendent of schools. His interest, his support or opposition to bilingual education, has been the most crucial factor. In certain instances, the first moves toward implementing a bilingual program have come from the school board; in others, from community pressure -- from organizations of parents or from the students themselves. Whatever the source, however, the Superintendent holds the power to make or break the program.⁵⁶

⁵⁴Robert L. Hardgrave, Jr. and Santiago Hinojosa, The Politics of Bilingual Education: A Study of Four Southwest Texas Communities (Manhaca: Sterling Swift Publishing, 1975), p. 12.

⁵⁵Juan C. Rodriguez, Supervision of Bilingual Programs (Doctoral Dissertation, University of Massachusetts, 1975), p. 12.

⁵⁶Hardgrave, op. cit., p. 11.

School and Community Relations. McNerney, talking about the leadership function of the supervisor, states that:

He must be able to bring people of like interest together, stimulating groups to action. He must create an atmosphere in which barriers and boundaries are broken down.⁵⁷

The Superintendent must present a clear and accurate vision of bilingual education in an effort to keep bilingual education outside the arena of community conflict and to enlist support for the program from all sections of the community, Mexican American and Anglo. "In facing the community," says Hardgrave, "the school superintendent must be a consummate politician."⁵⁸

Staff Development. Regarding the technical assistance functions of a supervisor, A.S. Barr states that:

Supervision is an expert technical service primarily concerned with studying and improving the conditions that surround learning and pupil growth.⁵⁹

The Superintendent faces the delicate problem of alleviating teachers' anxieties as he educates them to the meaning of bilingual education. Teacher resistance is likely to be substantial. The school administrator must work with confidence to achieve staff development through effective in-service programs and workshops. Most school

⁵⁷Chester T. McNerney, Educational Supervision. (New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., Inc., 1951), p. 11.

⁵⁸Hardgrave, op. cit., p. 12.

⁵⁹A.S. Barr, Supervision (2nd ed., Appleton-Century Crofts, Inc., 1957), p. 11.

systems are willing to organize workshops to assist teachers in improving their qualifications. Cooksey describes how he initiated an in-service program:

Maintaining that no bilingual program can get off the ground as long as the faculty has a defeatist attitude, . . . Cooksey interprets the problem to be lack of training with an absence of challenge. An in-service program which Cooksey initiated gave direction, cohesion, and thrust to phases of language theory and methods. His features of the program included a contrastive analysis of the sounds, structure, and vocabulary systems of the two languages; oral drill techniques with practice and suggestions for their use in class . . . some ideas for adopting to the needs of second language learners the texts provided by the State, with emphasis on preparing sound and structure drills from selections in these texts. . . .⁶⁰

Higher Educational Leadership. The superintendent of schools, the director of personnel, the coordinator of the bilingual program, and the school principal must look for support for continuing education from colleges and universities.

This is where effective supervision is required to exercise special sensitivity so as to bring to the children those teachers who will most adequately respond to their needs.

According to Andersson and Boyer, teacher-preparing institutions are traditionally responsible for the education of teachers of non-English languages for all levels, but

⁶⁰ Robbie Choate Cooksey, "Priorities in Instituting the Teaching of English as a Second Language in a Southwest Texas School," Teaching the Bilingual, ed. F. Pialorsi (Tucson: The University of Arizona Press, 1974), p.p. 249-250.

they have not been able to fill today's needs, either in quantity or in quality.⁶¹ In fact, Gaarder has discovered

the plans of studies in master's degree and doctoral programs offered in "bilingual education" consist of a selection of standard education courses in English; a course or so in the history and culture of the minority people, also in English, plus an invitation to enroll for courses in the institution's department of foreign languages.⁶²

Observing the growing need for specialists in bilingual programs, Andersson and Boyer recommend the maintenance of close working relationships between local school systems and training institutions.⁶³

Mir de Cid claims that several university programs currently offer a teacher education preparation for bilingual teachers. They are planned -- according to A Comprehensive Design for Bilingual-Bicultural Education --

to produce teachers skilled in teaching two languages to students who have no background in or knowledge of one of the languages and who need language skills in both in order to move in both languages.⁶⁴

It is significant that the 1978 revision of NCATE includes for the first time standards for Multicultural Education under the heading, "Basic Teacher Education Programs". Standard 2.1.1. reads:

⁶¹Theodore Anderson and Mildred Boyer, Bilingual Schooling in the United States (2nd ed.; National Educational Laboratory Publications, Inc., 1978), p. 141.

⁶²Ibid.

⁶³Andersson and Boyer, op. cit., p. 80.

⁶⁴Margarita Mir de Cid, "Bilingual Teacher Training in Higher Education," Bilingual Education, ed. H. LaFontaine, et al. (Wayne: Avery Publishing Group, Inc., 1978), p. 360.

Multicultural education could include, but not be limited to, experiences which . . . examine linguistic variations and diverse learning styles as a basis for the development of appropriate teaching strategies . . .

Multicultural education is viewed as an intervention and an on-going assessment process to help institutions and individuals become more responsive to the human condition, individual cultural integrity, and cultural pluralism in society.⁶⁵

The Guidelines For Program Development In Teacher Education For Multilingual Settings calls institutions of higher education, conventionally the sole source of preservice education and inservice graduate education, to assume major responsibility for preparing administrators and for supplying teachers professionally equipped to teach in bicultural-bilingual situations. A basic premise of these guidelines relates to an analysis of teaching competencies:

Very few higher order competencies are developed during the pre-teaching college experience. Lower order competencies can be developed during the initial instructional period. Experience coupled with inservice education activities are the major vehicle through which lower level competencies get into the higher order competencies needed for effective bilingual teaching.⁶⁶

Future implications suggest that increasing numbers of people will enter the United States for whom

⁶⁵Francis X. Sutman, Eleanor C. Sandstrom, and Francis Shoemaker, Educating Personnel for Bilingual Settings: Present and Future (Temple University: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1979), p.p. 7-9.

⁶⁶Sutman, op. cit., p. 28.

English is not a first language; consequently, institutes of higher education must lead the way in providing for the under-graduate and graduate student an education which will prepare them to effectively teach and administer America's bilingual education program.

Community

When Texas made bilingual education mandatory in public schools, conflict between school and community resulted. Many school administrators were opposed to bilingual education when they considered the time, effort, and money involved in teaching two languages in all subjects. The Mexican American community, on the other hand, angered at the lack of education for their children, strongly supported the program's implementation. Disagreements about bilingual education led to fierce confrontations between school and community. Illustrating one such battle, the case which follows -- Marcos Perez et. al. V. The Sonoro Independent School District et. al. -- occurred over segregation in Sonoro public schools.

The Sonora Independent School District (I.S.D.) enrolls all children in the Sutton County. The population of 3,000 is divided almost equally between Anglo (45 per cent) and Mexican American, (55 per cent).

In December 1969, a group of Mexican American parents brought suit against the Sonora I.S.D.⁶⁷ The

⁶⁷Hardgrave, op. cit., p. 69.

class action alleged that the Sonora school system operated in violation of the Equal Protection clause of the Fourteenth Amendment. A plan prepared on behalf of the plaintiffs emphasized a bilingual approach. They claimed that bilingual education might alleviate the discouraging drop-out rate among Mexican American children.

The School Board opposed any notion of bilingual education. The Board, adhering to the assimilation theory, argued that the Mexican American child must acquire the English language and American culture.

In his final ruling, the judge approved of the plan as submitted by the defendants, the Sonora I.S.D. Nevertheless, the Mexican Americans felt they achieved success at the expense of the Anglos -- their main concern had been integration of the schools and the suit forced the issue.

Relating his memories of discrimination during his youth in Sonora, one Mexican American involved in the suit said, "all we want is to be treated equal. I am just as human as anybody else."⁶⁸

In 1973, the Texas statute made bilingual education mandatory in all Texas public schools. While many school administrators who previously opposed bilingual education still bend requirements to minimize fundamental changes,

⁶⁸Ibid., p. 78.

other administrators have tried to implement bilingual programs in the Texas schools.

Addressing the bilingual education issue -- a change which confronts both Mexican American and Anglo communities from a different perspective since the Texas Bilingual Act -- Carrillo states:

The schools must now be prepared to deal with community feeling. Parents are no longer willing to accept major changes in educational activities without some interaction with the schools that satisfies their concern that the new way is the best possible one for educating their children.⁶⁹

Brantley, a superintendent at Laredo, Texas, believes that "bilingual education can be a 'success' only if the entire community is involved."⁷⁰

Rodriguez, former chief of the Mexican American Affairs Unit at the Office of Education, expresses his concern for bilingual programs. "You have to sell the bilingual program on its merits to the whole community -- or else it will go down the drain."⁷¹

Recommending that parents be utilized in the instructional phase of learning, Ramirez suggests asking parents to "contribute resource materials for the heritage

⁶⁹Frederico M. Carrillo, The Development of a Rationale and Model Program to Prepare Teachers for the Bilingual-Bicultural Secondary School Programs, (San Francisco: R and E Research Associates, 1977), p. 65.

⁷⁰Hardgrave, op. cit., p. 20.

⁷¹Ibid., p. 10.

curriculum and enlist their help in the actual teaching of other aspects of curriculum as well."⁷² Jarmillo felt that "prospective teachers could learn much more in the community than they could in the classroom."⁷³

The arguments in favor of positive school and community relations are numerous. A public which is excluded from participation in the bilingual education program will not be supportive; therefore it is imperative that the community be educated to clearly understand what bilingual education is about. Emphasizing the value of school/community relations, Hardgrave concludes, "The final success of bilingual education will be determined outside the school."⁷⁴

The child

The major focal point of any school program, bilingual or otherwise, centers around the specific needs of the children who are to be involved.

Many of the leading authorities in early childhood education, bilingual education, and linguistics agree that the earlier children are educated in language learning, the easier it is for them to acquire one or more languages besides their mother tongue. Montessori noted children's

⁷²Carrillo, loc. cit.

⁷³Ibid.

⁷⁴Hardgrave, op. cit., p. 13.

remarkable ability to learn more than one language. She has written that "Only a child under three can construct the mechanism of language, and he can speak any number of languages if they are in his environment at birth."⁷⁵

Flores writes that "The earlier a bilingual program is started the easier a second language is acquired."⁷⁶

According to Saviile-Troike,

At the age of three or four practically every child entering a foreign community learns to speak the new language rapidly and without a trace of an accent. This facility declines with age.⁷⁷

An observation which has enormous implications for the proponents of bilingual schooling is Osgood's study. Suggesting the unsuspected speech potential of the human infant, Osgood's recordings of infant vocalizations disclosed that "within the data for the first two months of life may be found all of the speech sounds that the human vocal system can produce."⁷⁸

⁷⁵Theodore Anderson, "The Role of the Teacher in a Bilingual Bicultural Community," Bilingual Education, ed. H. LaFontaine, et al. (Wayne: Avery Publishing Company, 1978), p. 344.

⁷⁶Alfredo R. Flores, "Bilingual Education for Mexican American Children," Bilingual Education, ed. H. LaFontaine, et al. (Wayne: Avery Publishing Company, 1978), p. 258.

⁷⁷Ibid.

⁷⁸Theodore Andersson and Bildred Boyer, Bilingual Schooling in the United States. (Austin: National Educational Laboratory Publishers, Inc., 1978), p.p. 154-155.

Linguistic Interference. Andersson tells of a major misunderstanding that has confronted bilingual education programs in their efforts to teach English to the Spanish-speaking child; a problem caused by the fact that laymen do not understand the difference between a first language and a second language. "This lack of understanding," says Andersson, "has extended to many of our educators, who have expected our Spanish-speaking children to perform in English as though it were their mother tongue."⁷⁹

Troike writes that,

we have all been brought up to believe that a straight line is the shortest distance between two points. In education, it might seem logical that the best way to teach English to limited English speakers is simply to teach them English.⁸⁰

Troike insists that bilingual education is more complex than that since students must learn subject matter through their native language while they are mastering English.⁸¹

Lado says, "This pre-existing set of habits -- the first language -- is one of the great barriers to learning a second language."⁸² The first language habits interfere

⁷⁹Theodore Andersson, "Bilingual Schooling: Oasis or Mirage?" Hispania, 52 (March, 1969), p.p. 69-74.

⁸⁰Rudolph Troike, "Synthesis of Research on Bilingual Education," Educational Leadership, 38(March, 1981, p. 498.

⁸¹Ibid.

⁸²Robert Lado, Linguistics Across Cultures (Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press, 1957), Foreword.

with the transfer of knowledge from first to second language. Lado informs that the child has unconsciously developed a special set of 'blind spots' that prevents him from responding to features that do not constitute the contrastive signals of his native language. This interference phenomena makes second language acquisition a difficult task for the child.⁸³

Explaining that the structure of language is partially learned as a set of habits, Larson claims that,

The habits of one language interfere with new habits needed for a second language . . . This interference is evident in pronunciation in the formation of words and sentences.⁸⁴

Saville-Troike believe a contrastive analysis is useful in ordering the elements of the second language so that they may be presented in a graded sequence. Being aware of systematic differences between languages is a useful prerequisite for developing teaching methods and materials. Because languages are systematic, a child's speaking habits will not be effectively altered by piecemeal "correction" of his native habits as he learns English, and such an approach may inhibit fluency in any case.⁸⁵

⁸³Ibid.

⁸⁴Donald W. Larson and William A. Smalley, Becoming Bilingual (South Pasadena: William Carey Library, 1972), p. 68.

⁸⁵Muriel R. Saville, "Interference Phenomena in Language Today: Their Nature, Extent, and Significance on the Acquisition of Standard English," Elementary English, 12 (March, 1971), p. 396-405.

In addition to observing the contrastive analysis of the languages involved, Ervin-Tripp suggests looking at performance errors like fatigue, stress, sentence length, and grammatical complexity as distinct types of interference which requires analysis of the learner's linguistic system. Ervin-Tripp explains that many of the factors which interfere with the linguistic performance of a speaker learning English as a second language are the same as those affecting a monolingual speaker of English, while some are due to the more complex linguistic and socio-linguistic rules which the bilingual must learn to control.⁸⁶

In her study, Ben-Zeev explains the employment of one of four mechanisms, (1) language analysis, (2) sensitivity to feedback cues, (3) maximization of structural differences between languages and (4) neutralization of structure within a language, that the bilingual child uses to resolve the interference between his languages.⁸⁷ Ben-Zeev describes how these mechanisms work:

For mechanisms 1, 3, and 4 the content on which the strategy is focused is clearly the structure of language itself, primarily at the syntactic level . . .

⁸⁶Ibid.

⁸⁷Sandra Ben-Zeev, "Mechanisms by Which Childhood Bilingualism Affects Understanding of Language and Cognitive Structures," Bilingualism Psychological, Social, and Educational Implications (New York: Academic Press, Inc., 1977), p. 31.

Mechanism 2 concerns language structure also but at a more superficial level, and this mechanism concerns cues from the environment which are associated with language in addition to cues from language structure itself.⁸⁸

Code-switching. Alternation of two languages by the bilingual speaker in order to convey social meaning, also called code-switching, is different from interference since it may occur even when a speaker is able to say something in both languages. Gumperz and Hernandez-Chavez⁸⁹ describe topics of conversation, social context, illusions to past events, and cultural attitudes among the social phenomena affecting choice of language of bilingual children.

Noting that code-switching is confined almost exclusively to informal speech, Shaffer reasons,

...it is often delivered more rapidly with less concern for suitable phrasing and word choice such as would be allowed by greater time in preparing a written text or as might be required by speaking in a formal situation, where one may speak slower as he weighs his words for effect.⁹⁰

⁸⁸Ibid.

⁸⁹Celia Genishi, "Language Use in a Kindergarten Program for Maintenance of Bilingualism," Bilingual Education, ed. H. LaFontaine et al. (Wayne: Avery Publishing Group, Inc., 1978), p. 185.

⁹⁰Douglas Shaffer, "The Place of Code-Switching in Linguistic Contacts," Aspects of Bilingualism, ed. M. Paradis (Columbia: Hornbeam Press, Inc., 1970), p. 267.

McClure and Wentz pointed out that from a grammatical standpoint, it is useful to view code-switching as comprising two separate devices which are a part of an individual's linguistic competence: code-changing and code-mixing. The authors describe these devices as follows:

The code-change is a complete shift to another language system (I put the forks en la mesa). Code-mixing on the other hand, does not involve a complete shift of the discourse to the opposite code, but rather incorporates elements of one code into discourse being conducted in the other, (I put the tenedores (forks) on the table). Code-mixing occurs when a person is momentarily unable to access a term for a concept in the language which he is using but can access it in another code.⁹¹

A longitudinal case study of two bilingual children was attempted by Fantini to discover when and how bilinguals acquire their switching ability. Fantini summarized his results as follows:

"Code-switching was a very early development, beginning only a few days after the introduction of English. The initial sorting of languages was done in relation to specific persons present within a limited social situation. As the children's linguistic abilities developed and, also as their world was enlarged, other social factors contributed to language differentiation. Setting was the next major factor; initially there was one clear-cut division -- the home, and the world outside the home. This simple dichotomy gave way to other refinements as the children had additional experiences which forced them to

⁹¹Erica McClure and James Wentz, "Chicano Children's Code-Switching: An Overview," Bilingual Education, ed. H. LaFontaine, et al. (Wayne: Avery Publishing Group, Inc., 1978), p. 180

consider still other factors in making language choices. Other factors relating to interlocutors were how well they were known, the degree of intimacy, their physical appearance, certain roles, their switching patterns, and the presence of audience. In all cases, however, the children made their own decisions as to whether a specific code met their own terms of appropriateness. A "wrong" language -- used in inappropriate circumstances -- was "marked" and provoked comment or visible reactions."⁹²

From the results of his study, Fantini observed that code-switching began as early as two, despite delayed exposure to English. At four years the children were capable of appropriate language use while switching rapidly and naturally. By five both behaved like normal children in either of the two languages.⁹³

Contributions of the biology of language. Rivers observes that, recent findings about neurological development clearly indicate differences between first and second language learning by children.⁹⁴ According to Dr. Wilder Penfield, the distinguished former director of Montreal Neurological Institute,

If children are taught foreign languages early and thus acquire a good accent, the "speech units" will be 'hidden away in the brain', waiting to be employed

⁹²Alvino E. Fantini, "Bilingual Behavior and Social Cues: Case Studies of Two Bilingual Children," Aspects of Bilingualism, ed. M. Paradis (Columbia: Hornbeam Press, Inc., 1978), p. 292.

⁹³Ibid.

⁹⁴Wilga M. Rivers, "Language Learning and Language Teaching -- Any Relationship?" Second Language Acquisition Research, ed. W.C. Ritchie (New York: Academic Press, 1978), p. 201.

when language is resumed later in the school career.⁹⁵

Lenneberg, throughout his writing, assumes that the child's capacity to learn language is a consequence of maturation. Describing the "critical period" for language acquisition Lenneberg says;

In its earliest stages it is limited by a lack of maturation and related to lateralization of cerebral functions in language processes. In early childhood both hemispheres of the brain assume language-related functions with the child regularly beginning to use language between 18 and 28 months. Specialization of lateralization occurs later, fixed around age 13 marking the end of the acquisition process.⁹⁶

Lenneberg presents a table summarizing developmental stages of language. This table indicates that

. . . From twenty-one to thirty-six months, language acquisition occurs . . . From age three to ten years, some grammatical refinement takes place . . . From ages eleven to fourteen, foreign accents emerge, and from the middle teen years on, acquisition of second language becomes more and more difficult . . ."

Contributions of Cognitive Psychology. Describing Piaget's cognitive basis of language learning, King writes,

Piaget sees as a necessary condition for acquiring language the coordination of the sensori-motor schemes, built up through action during the first eighteen months of life.⁹⁷

⁹⁵Paul Christophersen, Second-Language Learning, (London: Cox and Wyman Ltd., 1973), p. 48.

⁹⁶Carolyn Kessler, The Acquisition of Syntax in Bilingual Children (Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University Press, 1971), p. 18.

⁹⁷Martha King, "Language: Insights from Acquisition," Theory Into Practice (Columbus: The Ohio State University, 1975), p.p. 293-297.

According to Murray, Piaget's theory holds that "cognitive structures are forms for ideas that are not merely true, but those which are necessarily true."⁹⁸

Language, according to this theory, initially contributes very little to structural development because to understand information presented in language the child must have already constructed a scheme or structure into which to assimilate the information.

Expounding on the idea that meaning precedes language, Murray explains that the educational implications of this position

constitutes a general pedagogical recommendation that teaching by telling is inherently ineffective unless a provision has been made for the child to construct -- independently of language -- the meaning behind the word.⁹⁹

Kessler hypothesizes that the child's knowledge of language in the Piagetian sense is a function of his level of language acquisition and cognitive development. The second-language learner has the cognitive development to manipulate language. His problem is to internalize a sufficient number of rules for the grammar he is constructing.¹⁰⁰

⁹⁸Frank B. Murray, "Implications of Piaget's Theory for Reading Instruction," Reading Aids Series, ed. S. Jay Samuels (Newark: International Reading Association, 1978), p. 98.

⁹⁹Ibid.

¹⁰⁰Kessler, op. cit., p. 99.

Chomsky and McNeill propose that children have an innate language acquisition device (LAD). The device, operative until approximately age 12, allows the child to observe the linguistic input from his environment, form hypothesis about the principles of organization operative in the language while at the same time being guided by and limited by the language universal themselves.¹⁰¹

Bruner openly admits the strong influences of the theory of language formulated by Chomsky, stating further that the very use of language presupposes the operations of certain underlying cognitive processes, as hierarchy and transformation, and that these concepts are first used and perfected in the sphere of language before being transferred to the area of thinking in general.¹⁰²

Evaluation

Education places a high premium on the visible, quantifiable surface aspects of its work. Bilingual education is no different: teachers want to know each child's strengths and weaknesses to aid in the selection of appropriate materials and strategies for individual children. Administrators want measures that determine whether or not children should be placed in a "bilingual"

¹⁰¹Ibid.

¹⁰²Ibid.

or mainstream class. Federal and state agencies who distribute funds for bilingual programs require objective evidence of need and progress in order to justify the assignment of monies.

Streiff explains the three stages of application and approval processes of bilingual education programs. After an application statement has been received, the U.S. Office of Education requires from the applicant a formal proposal of the planning activity for Stage One funding. In his description of the process Streiff explains that

Funding for Stage 1 will ordinarily be for a period of one year or less, and will result in a formal report to the U.S. Office of Education establishing (1) the level of local interest and support for a program to promote bilingualism, and (2) a well-articulated 'approach.'¹⁰³

If a project successfully completes the first stage by meeting the specifications established by the U.S. Office of Education and selected outside consultants, "funding for stage two is made available for periods up to three years."¹⁰⁴

¹⁰³Paul R. Streiff, "Development of Guidelines For Conducting Research In Bilingual Education" (Doctoral dissertation, University of California Los Angeles, 1974), p. 50.

¹⁰⁴Ibid.

Before making a decision to continue the program, the U.S. Office of Education looks carefully over the evaluation data and a year-end report of progress made by the program. Bilingual Education projects that indicate successful implementation of programs after the three-year period, constituting stage 3, are encouraged to continue a fourth year. Data on terminated projects in addition to successful bilingual education programs will provide a basis for summative evaluation data on the bilingual education effort.

Within this larger framework is the project director, superintendent of schools, building principals and other administrators who assume responsibility for evaluation of key elements of the program which are essential to its success. Medina indicates "instruction, staff development, materials acquisition and development, and community involvement,"¹⁰⁵ are among the more important project components of bilingual education which require an evaluation plan. The following literature review will briefly discuss the evaluation of these components and also the child.

¹⁰⁵Amelia C. Medina, "A Comparative Analysis of Evaluative Theory and Practice for the Instructional Component of Bilingual Programs" (Doctoral dissertation, Texas A & M University, 1975), p. 73.

Curriculum. According to Gaarder,

"In 1973, under contract with the U.S. Office of Education an excellent 'process evaluation' was made of a random sample of thirty-four projects supported under the Bilingual Education Act and serving Spanish speaking children.¹⁰⁶

The evaluators noted that teaching materials in Spanish were inadequate and that "in many projects the bilingual staff was preparing their own."¹⁰⁷ Preference was made to the Spanish-language materials which have been collected in Spanish-speaking countries for use in the bilingual classroom: the evaluators discovered that these foreign materials tend to be too difficult for American children.

Gaarder revealed the following information as a result of the evaluation:

Some projects professed to be devoted to the transitional language-bridge philosophy: others professed to be aiming at long-term maintenance and development of the non-English mother tongue. The evaluators found marked incongruity between those professions and what was actually happening in the projects.¹⁰⁸

¹⁰⁶A. Bruce Gaarder, "Bilingual Education: Central Questions and Concerns," Bilingual Education, ed. H. LaFontaine (Wayne: Avery Publishing Group, Inc., 1978), p. 37.

¹⁰⁷Ibid.

¹⁰⁸Ibid.

Teacher. In evaluating teacher performance, Sutman suggests the utilization of one or both of the following instruments.

Especially useful by preservice teachers is the Self-Evaluation Profile for Teachers in Multicultural and Bicultural Situations. This profile will help teachers assess "their readiness and ability to handle the special attitudinal and intellectual demands of a multicultural situation."¹⁰⁹

For the supervisor or administrator, the Evaluation Profile for Areas of Performance for Teachers in Bilingual Settings could serve as a rating sheet for placement on the teacher's file or as a tool "for observation, discussion, and improvement of classroom management."¹¹⁰

It is usually the case that most criteria on the bilingual evaluation forms reflect the adopted characteristics of evaluative measures already existing in monolingual situations.

Community. The establishment of the type of bilingual program needed in a community -- either maintaining both languages or assimilation into the English

¹⁰⁹Francis X. Sutman, Eleanor C. Sandstrom, Francis Shoemaker, Educating Personnel for Bilingual Settings: Present and Future (Temple University: The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education., 1979), p. 48.

¹¹⁰Ibid.

language -- depends on societal needs and trends of that particular community. Modes of research using polls, surveys, and questionnaires, can help identify the specific community values, attitudes, and priorities toward the second language and bilingual education. Evaluation of this criteria will enable the supervisor to meet, to the extent possible, the needs of the community.

The child. Most bilingual programs find the evaluation of pupil achievement the most difficult of the program components. Dr. Chester C. Christian Jr. claims that,

No bilingual standards have been developed which function in U.S. society as do monolingual standards, providing the type of measurement of language development which reflects societal standards and contributes significantly to degree and type of mobility, so there are no guidelines for the traditionalist.¹¹¹

In her claim that cultural factors are critically relevant to all evaluation of student achievement, Saville-Troiike insists that, "Validity and reliability of tests should be considered culture-specific."¹¹²

¹¹¹Chester C. Christian, Jr. "Techniques of Measuring Language Development in Bilingual Programs," Proceedings National Conference on Bilingual Education (Austin: Dissemination Center for Bilingual Bicultural Education, 1972), p. 160.

¹¹²Muriel Saville-Troiike, Culture in the Classroom (Roslyn: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 1978), p. 49.

According to Zirkel, the linguistic aspect of bilingual programs is analyzed into two subareas: language dominance and language proficiency.¹¹³ Language dominance tests, used to help administrators determine which language should be used to instruct the child, remains the target of much criticism by teachers and linguists who argue that the tests are unrealistic and nondiagnostic.¹¹⁴

The second subarea, language proficiency, overlaps with language dominance and refers to skills in Spanish and English but separately rather than ~~comparatively~~, comparatively.

Test publishers have been unsuccessful in attempts to translate existing intelligence and nationally normed achievement tests into other languages. The publishers fail to acknowledge differences in dialect, word difficulty, cultural content, and norms for ethnic subgroups.

Cohen observes the two essential ways which bilingual education programs for Spanish-speaking

¹¹³Perry A. Zirkel, "Evaluation and Testing in Bilingual Programs," Bilingual Education, ed. H. LaFontaine (Wayne: Avery Publishing Group, Inc., 1978), p. 373.

¹¹⁴Ibid.

children have been evaluated. One way is to evaluate the child's success in meeting curriculum objectives. The second approach tries to determine whether students participating in bilingual programs have a better school experience than students schooled in monolingual programs. Cohen says, "There are few thorough evaluations of U.S. Spanish-English bilingual education programs as compared to English-only monolingual programs in the literature."¹¹⁵

Troike writes, "The only large-scale evaluation of Title VII-funded programs, . . . was flawed in a number of respects, and contributed little to our research knowledge."¹¹⁶

John, Horner, and Fishman join others when they claim, "In the United States, where bilingual education programs are relatively new, there is still little evaluative information available."¹¹⁷

¹¹⁵ Andres D. Cohen, A Sociolinguistic Approach to Bilingual Education (Rowley: Newbury House Publishers, Inc., 1975), p. 33.

¹¹⁶ Rudolph C. Troike, "Synthesis of Research on Bilingual Education," Educational Leadership, 38 (March, 1981), p. 499.

¹¹⁷ Amelia C. Medina, "A Comparative Analysis of Evaluative Theory and Practice for the Instructional Component of Bilingual Program." (Doctoral dissertation: Texas A & M University), p. 20.

Chapter 3

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Summary

The review of literature was intended to make educators aware of the strengths and weaknesses of the bilingual education effort in America. The literature review discussed four aspects of bilingualism in America: (1) the historical perspective of bilingual education, (2) two common types of bilingual programs, (3) goals of bilingual programs, and (4) components of bilingual programs. The non-English-speaking child's need to acquire English was shown to be directly influenced by each of these four areas.

The early period of bilingual education in the United States, pre-World War I, produced no widely accepted curricular model. The second period of bilingual education, 1963 to the present, has not yet established a clear trend. Since monolingual English speakers outnumber bilinguals, it is only natural for the majority to feel uncomfortable in the presence of the many other native tongues spoken by fellow Americans or newcomers. And yet this diversity will not simply disappear by making minority ethnic groups abandon their group identity. The melting pot theory of the early twentieth century has, for the most part, been convincingly discredited; however, the struggle between the

ethnocentrists and cultural pluralists continues. The negative attitudes that exist clash with the goals of a bilingual program and where these feelings are strong, the conditions are not conducive for operating such a program.

The most effective arm for supporters of bilingual education is the legal mandate backed by the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Lau v. Nichols Supreme Court decision of 1974. Stemming from this legal recognition, non-English-speaking children are commonly allowed to participate in bilingual transition, after which they are expected to handle all their instruction in English and, as far as many schools are concerned, to allow their home language to fall into disuse and expire. The maintenance program is another bilingual plan for non-English-speaking children which strengthens the mother tongue as English is taught as a second language. Both programs, transitional and maintenance, are struggling in their efforts to meet the needs of non-English-speaking children.

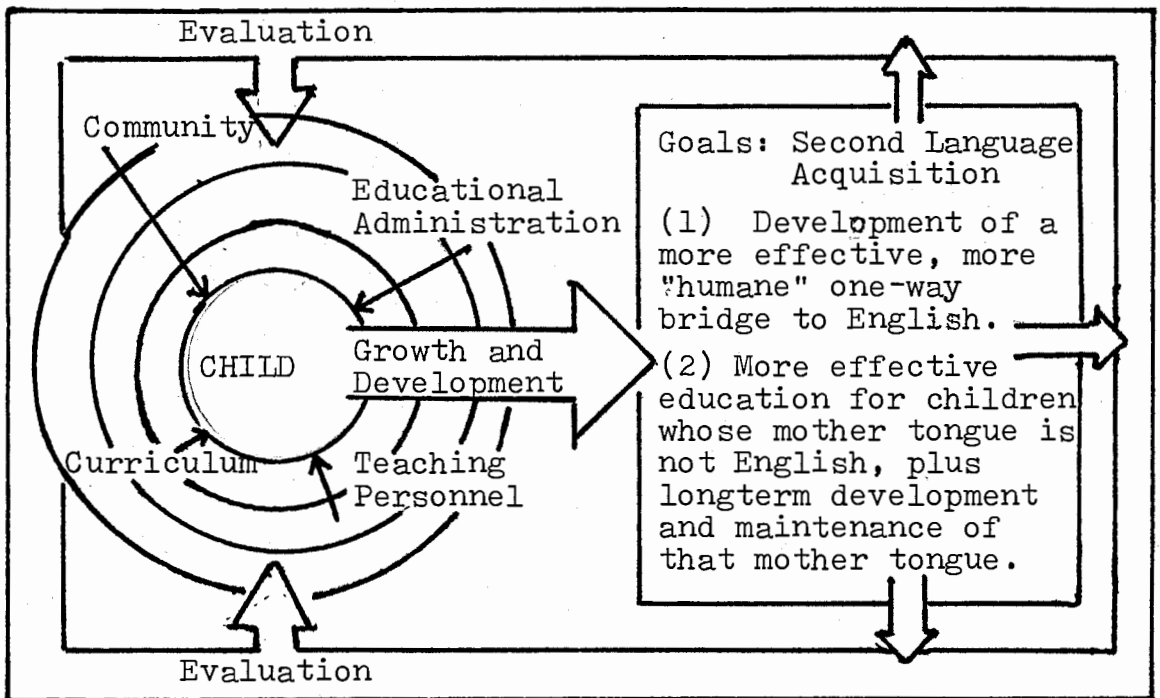
Conclusion

It is necessary for important components of bilingual education to be strengthened in order to guide the child toward the goals of second language acquisition. The major ingredients composed in the bilingual program are curriculum, teaching personnel, educational administration, community, and evaluation. The author recommends that there be provisions for cooperative efforts by these various program components to focus on the development of the non-

English-speaking child toward program goals. To complement this recommendation, the author has built a model which is illustrated below. Since the child is the focal point of the program, she is placed in the center of the model to receive the treatment of the program components. As the five forces act upon the child, growth and development toward program goals is experienced.

Model IV.

Components of Bilingual Programs



In conclusion, it can be said that bilingual programs are more than just another "trend". Bilingual education has been endorsed with legal recognition and federal funds. With the successful implementation and coordination of the five program components, bilingual education will continue to observe the needs of a growing population of non-English-

speaking children. This promising young movement promotes educational reform so urgently needed as global relationships increase, that fears of failure cannot be permitted to stand in the way of the most strenuous efforts to succeed.

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