THE RELATIONSHIP OF BILINGUAL/BICULTURAL
INSTRUCTION TO THE ACHIEVEMENT AND
SELF-CONCEPT OF SEVENTH GRADE
MEXICAN-AMERICAN STUDENTS

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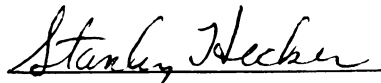1971

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ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP OF BILINGUAL/BICULTURAL INSTRUCTION TO THE ACHIEVEMENT AND SELF-CONCEPT OF SEVENTH GRADE MEXICAN-AMERICAN STUDENTS

By

Xavier A. Del Buono

Introduction

Mexican-American educators, parents, and community groups are seeking new and innovative ways to provide better educational opportunities for Spanish-speaking students. Since it is generally accepted that a major obstacle to educational achievement among students from this population is the differences in language and cultural background between themselves and the schools, emphasis is being given to bilingual/bicultural school programs.

The literature in this field reveals many studies of the phenomenon of bilingualism but few studies relate directly to bilingual education and its effect on school achievement and student academic self-concept. However, the literature does reveal several basic constructs related to the achievement and self-concept of bilingual students. It is evident that students from bilingual backgrounds often lack essential communication skills and this has an adverse effect upon their achievement, as measured by standardized

tests. Bilingual students are culturally different from other, monolingual students and demonstrate that the values held in the home are different from those held in the community as a whole. These students may have somewhat higher potentialities than monolingual students from a similar environment, but may not be encouraged by their cultural background to value certain personality characteristics which contribute to school achievement in traditional schools. It is also evident from the literature that the student's self-concept may be affected by the conditions of poverty, language difficulties, and migration; and that teachers may have an influence on the self-concept.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to probe the relationship of a bilingual/bicultural school program and the achievement and academic self-concept of Mexican-American seventh grade students. The premise held was that Mexican-American students who were taught subject matter in their native language for a portion of the school day and received systematic, sequential instruction in English as a Second Language would achieve greater and have more positive self-concepts of their ability to achieve in school than a similar group of Mexican-American students in a regular school program.

Design of the Study

The design of this study was descriptive. Pre-existing groups were compared on their mean post-test scores on achievement in social studies, reading, language, and academic self-concept. Data were also gathered on socio-economic status and mental ability of the population sample. In the multivariate analysis of covariance the SES and mental ability were held as covariates and student scores on the Stanford Achievement Subtests, Social Studies, Paragraph Meaning, Language; and on the General Self-Concept of Ability Scale were used as dependent variables.

Findings

Within the basic framework of this study and the population sample selected, the hypotheses tested provided certain insight as to the relationship of the bilingual/bicultural instructional program and school achievement and academic self-concept of Mexican-American seventh grade students.

In the multivariate analysis of covariance it was found that when the Stanford Achievement Subtests, Social Studies, Paragraph Meaning and Language; and the General Self-Concept of Ability Scale were used as the dependent variables to measure school achievement and academic self-concept, there were differences in the group mean scores between students in the program and students in the comparison group. These differences favored the students in the bilingual/bicultural program.

The univariate analysis of variance indicated that differences occurred between the group mean scores in social studies, language, and academic self-concept, but no difference was found in the test for paragraph meaning.

There was no difference in the analysis between the sexes, nor was there significant interaction between sex and treatment.

Although it cannot be stated that the cause for the differences found was the direct effect of the treatment, it can be concluded that Mexican-American seventh grade students in the bilingual/bicultural program did significantly better in school achievement and had more positive self-concepts of their ability than did Mexican-American seventh grade students in the traditional program.

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TO THE ACHIEVEMENT AND SELF-CONCEPT OF SEVENTH

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By

Xavier A. Del Buono

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DEDICATION

To my wife, Eunice, and my sons, Michael, Carlos, and David, whose love means everything to me.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

This investigation is aimed at determining the relationship of bilingual/bicultural instruction and a unilingual instructional program to the school achievement and self-concept of Mexican-American children. A comparison is made of the results of two instructional programs for junior high school students in a Midwestern city.

In one program Mexican-American students were taught social studies in their native language, Spanish. The social studies curriculum included units of study on the history and cultural heritage of the Mexican-American, as well as some instruction in Spanish language skills. One period a day was devoted to instruction in English as a Second Language (E.S.L.).

Students in the comparison group were Mexican-American students placed in regular classes in different schools. They received no instruction in English as a Second Language.

Educational statistics derived from Census data provide a discouraging picture of the educational status of Mexican-Americans. Taking the Southwest and Midwest as a

1

whole, Mexican-Americans on the average have about eight years of schooling, or four years less than Anglos. Educational statistics must be scrutinized closely, however, by state and county and city. In Texas, for example, 40 per cent of all Mexican-Americans are functionally illiterate.

Obviously, the drop-out rate among Mexican-Americans is very high, with most of the drop-outs occurring by eighth or ninth grade. High drop-out rates at the high school level then come as no surprise, and they appear more ominous when they occur in urban settings where occupations require relatively high levels of skill and education. Nor is it surprising that Mexican-American enrollments in college are low. About 2 per cent of California's college population, for example, is of Spanish surname.

Educators generally agree that the cultural and linguistic differences between Spanish-speaking Mexican-American children and the language and value system of the school are major factors contributing to their relative lack of educational success, and to the negative self-concept often observed in these children. The requirement of living in two cultures and communicating in two languages has created among Mexican-American youth many problems of identity and of learning. Their parents have attempted to preserve an honored and ancient legacy from Spain and Mexico, and at the same time, have tried to adapt their way of life to the cultural press of the dominant Anglo community.

A significant barrier in the acculturation process between the Mexican-American and the culture-at-large is language. Manuel (1935) commented directly on this barrier by stating:

> The first source of difficulty is one that really affects us all -- the division of the community into contrasting groups, English-speaking and Spanish-speaking, each with a lack of understanding of the other. After more than a century of living together, in many respects, we are still a divided people. (pp. 188-202)

Another major barrier to the acculturation process and to school success of the Mexican-American child has been the schools' insistence on using English as the only language of instruction. In discussing this, Sanchez (1963) commented:

> . . . the schools have not only <u>not</u> seized upon Spanish as a natural cultural resource and means by which to bring about proficiency in the English language -- not only have we failed by this omission but, by commission, we have placed a stigma on the use by children of their mother tongue! We speak of Spanish-speaking children as having a language handicap, we forbid the use of Spanish and even punish children for speaking it -- while all the time we give lip service to the wisdom of learning foreign languages, and our government spends millions supporting programs that aim at teaching a foreign language to monolingual English-speaking students in high school and college. (p. 10)

The literature in the area of sociolinguistics affirms the statement that language is both a vehicle of culture and a reflection of culture. Language is an important part of the characteristic behavior of a people bound together in a culture. It is intimately related to a particular way of feeling, thinking, and acting, and it is rooted in and

reflects a commonly accepted set of values. There is, therefore, an intimate relationship between the child, his family, his community, his language, and their view of the world. How to harmonize these with American English and with prevailing American culture patterns without damaging the self-concept of a non-English speaking child is a real challenge to educators. In bringing this message to the educator, Chavez and Ericksen (1957) stated:

> Unless teachers in bicultural communities understand
> the differences in values between the two cultures, they
> will define as unacceptable the many forms of behavior
> that are usually in the foreign culture. Living in a
> bicultural community should be viewed as an opportunity
> to develop international understanding. (p. 199)

Another important factor affecting the education of the Mexican-American child is the proper ordering of language skills. There is general agreement that just as a child first learns to hear, understand, and speak his own language and then learns to read and write it, so should he learn his second language in the same way. What is not understood or accepted by many educators is that a Spanish-speaking child who has lived his first five or six years in a Spanish-speaking family and community is ready to learn to read and write Spanish but not English.

The enactment of Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, the Bilingual Education Act, in January, 1968, has provided the framework and financial resources to promote experimentation and planning of bilingual and bicultural educational programs. A review of the

program proposals submitted for funding in California shows
a wide range of stated goals and objectives for bilingual
education. Three major classifications of purpose are readily
identified:

1. To educate all children bilingually.

2. To educate the linguistic minority bilingually.

3. To transfer from one medium of instruction to
   another.

The vast majority of the 26 approved projects fall
into the third classification. A review of these programs
indicates, as evidenced by the stated purposes of the exist-
ing programs, that there is much ambiguity as to the bene-
fits to be realized from a bilingual/bicultural educational
program for Spanish/speaking children. There is a need for
empirical evidence to profile the effects of bilingual/
bicultural programs on the educational status of Mexican-
American children. The current literature on bilingualism
gives limited information on the organization of bilingual
schools, on the content and teaching-learning process, and
their relationship to school achievement and self-concept of
bilingual children. There is a need to organize and present
the research and writings related to effective program
development in bilingual education.

Purpose of the Study

This study investigated the relationship between
bilingual/bicultural instruction and student achievement and

self-concept of ability of Mexican-American seventh grade students. The following major hypothesis and subhypotheses were explored:

Major Hypothesis: Mexican-American students enrolled in bilingual/bicultural instructional programs will tend to have higher achievement in school subjects and a more positive self-concept of ability than a similar group of Mexican-American students enrolled in traditional school programs taught only in English.

Subhypothesis A: Mexican-American students in the bilingual/ bicultural program will have greater achievement in reading comprehension as measured by the Stanford Achievement Test, Paragraph Meaning than students in the comparison group.

Sybhypothesis B: Mexican-American students in the bilingual/ bicultural program will have greater achievement in language as measured by the Stanford Achievement Test, Language than students in the comparison group.

Sybhypothesis C: Mexican-American students in the bilingual/ bicultural program will have greater achievement in social studies as measured by the Stanford Achievement Test, Social Studies than students in the comparison group.

Subhypothesis D: Mexican-American students in the bilingual/ bicultural program will have more positive

self-concepts of their academic ability as measured
by the General Self-Concept of Ability Scale than
students in the comparison group.

This study also includes a review of the litera-
ture and research in the various fields that are considered
important elements in the development of bilingual education
programs.

Significance of the Problem

Among the multitude of problems facing public educa-
tion in recent years, none has demanded more attention than
the question of developing realistic and relevant programs
for economically disadvantaged children from different cul-
tural and linguistic backgrounds. The uneasiness of our
national conscience is reflected in the many outpourings of
legislation and monies for the specific purpose of improving
educational opportunities for all pupils, regardless of race,
color, creed, or national origin. In the schools of Califor-
nia and the Southwest a large percentage of these children
from low-income families are of Mexican descent. For these
thousands of Spanish-speaking children from Mexican families,
the public schools have not kept the glibly made promise of
an education which may prepare them for productive adult
roles in the economic and social life of our nation. These
children have brought their language and their cultural back-
grounds to our classrooms with the same enthusiasm and high
expectations that all children so trustingly place in the

hands of their teachers. Many schools, however, have rejected their language, have minimized their culture, and have ignored their identity. They have insisted that the Spanish and Indian heritage of these children be left outside the classroom doors. They have stripped these Spanish-speaking pupils of many strengths; they have expected them to find their way in an instructional program that has been built upon a different system of values, an unfamiliar culture, and an alien language.

These school practices have had a significant effect on the concept Mexican-American students hold of themselves as school learners. The negative attitude toward their language and cultural heritage and the limited success of traditional programs to teach them English has, in effect, convinced many that they are incapable of normal or superior achievement in school. This negative self-concept of his ability as a school learner functionally limits the learning of many students and is a factor that prevents them from working at their maximum level.

Such educational practices are not consistent with the stated goals of respect for the unique worth of each individual, of the development of each pupil to his fullest potential, and of equality of opportunity for all children. Nor are such practices in keeping with the national need for linguists in government, in business, and in our schools. The present avenue of education, then, as a means of upward

social mobility has become a dead-end street for far too many
Spanish-speaking children. The Congress of the United States
has found that one of the most acute educational problems in
the United States is one which involves millions of children
of limited English-speaking ability because they come from
environments where the dominant language is other than
English. It has now declared it to be the policy of the
United States to provide financial assistance to local educa-
tional agencies to provide and carry out new and imaginative
elementary and secondary school programs designed to meet
these special educational needs.

Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined, as used in this
study, for clarity to the reader:

1. Bilingual Education -- throughout this disserta-
   tion this term shall refer to an instructional
   program which uses concurrently, two languages
   as mediums of instruction in any portion of the
   curriculum except the languages themselves.

2. Unilingual Instruction -- in this dissertation
   this term shall be used to describe an instruc-
   tional program which uses one language as the
   medium of instruction.

3. Culture -- in this dissertation this term shall
   refer to a system of meanings, methods, and values
   which develop from the common frame of reference
   of a social group, and which remain relatively
   constant while the composition of the group
   changes.

4. Mexican-American -- this label shall be used in
   this dissertation in reference to Americans of
   Mexican descent.

5. <u>Self-Concept</u> -- throughout this dissertation this term shall refer to the general self-concept of ability based on the proposition that the ways in which a student views himself and his world are (1) products of how others see him, and (2) primary forces in his academic achievement.

Delimitations of the Study

The stated goals and objectives of existing bilingual education programs developed under the guidelines for the Bilingual Education Act, ESEA Title VII include the improvement in school achievement and change toward a more positive self-concept for participating students. This study is an attempt to probe the correlation between the school achievement and the self-concept of Mexican-American children in a Title VII bilingual/bicultural program and a similar group in a unilingual traditional program. Correlation is not inferred to be an index of causality. This study limits its considerations to school achievement in English language skills and social studies. No attempt is made to consider the effect of the treatment on other school subjects.

An additional limitation of this study is that the self-concept measured is the general self-concept of ability to achieve in school (as defined in the study).

The researcher does not intend to infer beyond the immediate population in the study. The results will have limited application elsewhere, except to the extent that other populations are comparable to the populations of interest to this study. Finally, other limitations are:

1. The length of time of the study, approximately
    one school year; and

2. The varying degrees to which the stated bilingual/
    bicultural curriculum was implemented in the
    treatment schools.

Summary and Overview

It is generally assumed that the language barrier and
cultural conflict between Mexican-American children and the
middle class, Anglo-oriented school program are major fac-
tors contributing to their low achievement and negative self-
concept. Bilingual/bicultural programs are being initiated
in many schools in the Southwest in an effort to improve this
condition. This study is designed to compare and correlate
the interrelationship between an existing bilingual/bicul-
tural program, a traditional unilingual program, and school
achievement and self-concept of Mexican-American children.

A comprehensive review of related literature is pre-
sented in Chapter II. This review includes the writings and
research in areas considered to be important elements in the
development of educationally sound bilingual/bicultural pro-
grams. It also provides the necessary rationale for decision
making relative to alternative programs for children for whom
English is a second language.

In Chapter III the design for the study is presented.
This includes a description of the setting, the population
sample, a discussion of the bilingual/bicultural program,

the source of the data, and the design and statistical model of the study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

The literature related specifically to bilingual education in the United States is limited, primarily because cultural and linguistic plurality have not been considered national goals in American education. With the exception of a brief period in California (1848-1872) and in the German communities in the Midwest at the turn of the century, the schools have attempted to assimilate the racial and ethnic minorities into the language and culture of the dominant Anglo majority. Carter (1970) presented the deleterious effect of this philosophy on the Mexican-American population. His list of recommendations for improvement included a high priority for bilingual/bicultural school programs.

This chapter, then, attempts to review and present the literature in those related areas that are considered vital factors in the development of bilingual/bicultural education programs. The hope is that such a review will provide the rationale and pedagogical support for bilingualism as a goal in American education.

The literature related to self-concept is presented
as Part II of this chapter and deals primarily with the
relationship of self-concept and school achievement.

PART I

Bilingualism and Intelligence

Numerous studies since the early 1920's have attempted
to determine whether monolingual and bilingual persons differ
in intelligence. Using standardized I.Q. tests, seven major
studies concluded that bilingualism was detrimental to intel-
ligence. Four of these studies had no controls for age dif-
ferences, social background, or degree of bilingualism; thus
their results are of dubious value. Three other studies,
the Saer, the Pintner, and Jones-Stewart, did provide some
evidence that monolinguals were superior in measurable
intelligence to bilinguals.

Using a Welsh translation of the Stanford-Binet
scale, Saer (1923) tested 1,400 children in rural Wales.
His results indicated that the monolingual children were
statistically superior to the bilingual children. However,
when only urban children were tested no significant differ-
ences were discovered between monolinguals and bilinguals.
Saer provided no controls for socioeconomic class.

A study done in New York City by Pintner (1923) used
the verbal and nonverbal Pintner tests. Three schools were
used in the study, with one set of results indicating the

superiority of monolinguals, another their inferiority, and another proved inconclusive.

The Jones and Stewart (1951) study incorporated both verbal and nonverbal tests. Their results, using 10 and 11 year olds, concluded that monolinguals were superior on both tests. Jones (1960) conceded that the lack of socioeconomic controls could have accounted for the differences.

The study of Peal-Lambert (1962) provided evidence in support of the beneficial effects of bilingualism on intelligence. In the Peal-Lambert study, the research was designed to examine the effect of bilingualism on the intellectual functioning of children and to explore the relationship between bilingualism, school achievement, and student attitudes about the second language community.

They administered a test standardized in French Canada to 110 French-Canadian children 10 years of age, one group monolingual in French and the other group bilingual in French and English. The bilinguals were equally fluent in their two languages; they were tested in their first language (French); and they were of the same socioeconomic status. The two groups were compared as to age, sex, intelligence (verbal and nonverbal), and literacy. The results of the study concluded that bilinguals were superior to monolinguals on both the verbal and nonverbal tests. They surmised that the bilinguals' experience with two languages created superior concept formation because of the flexibility required to exist in two different cultures.

A number of other studies (Seidl 1937, Arsenian 1937, Spoerl 1944, Darcy 1963, Lewis-Lewis 1965) could find no significant differences between bilinguals and monolinguals.

A review of many of these studies by Carroll (1962) led him to conclude facility in learning to speak and understand in a foreign language is a fairly specialized talent, relatively independent of those traits ordinarily included under intelligence.

In light of the Spoerl, Darcy, and the Lewis-Lewis studies, this reviewer can only agree with Carroll since, at this time, the results of past research prove inconclusive, revealing for the most part that the structure of the intellect is not understood well enough to test the effects of bilingualism.

Motivational Factors Related to Second Language Learning

There are a number of interpersonal relationships that affect achievement in second language acquisition. The attitudes of the student, the teacher, the student's peers and parents, and the speakers of the language are all factors in the learner's motivation to acquire the language.

A series of language studies done at McGill University developed a socio-psychological theory of language learning.

An individual successfully acquiring a second language, according to this theory, adopts various characteristics of the other linguistic-cultural group. The student's

ethnocentric tendencies and his attitudes toward the other
group are believed to determine his success in learning the
new language. His attitudes and orientation toward learning
a second language determine his motivation.

A number of studies by Wallace Lambert and his col-
leagues (Lambert 1963a, Lambert and Gardner 1959, Lambert et
al. 1963, Anisfeld and Lambert 1961) drew attention to the
major importance of what they called integrative motivation
to the learning of foreign languages. Their studies indi-
cated two classes of motivation for language learning, instru-
mental and integrative, and that the presence of the latter
is necessary to successful mastery of the higher levels of
proficiency, indicated by the ability to think and speak
like a native speaker.

Politzer (1960) made a study on the amount of time
college students spent in voluntary language laboratory per-
iods and compared this to the students' achievement on tests.
He found that the students receiving the highest grades spent
the least amount of time in the laboratory, but he offered
no analysis of why this occurred.

Carroll (1962) studied the influence of parents on
second language acquisition. Carroll found that the greater
the parents' use of the foreign language in the home, the
higher were the mean scores of the students.

Biculturalism

The intimate relationship of language and culture has been pointed out by a number of prominent linguists. Kenneth L. Pike (1954) described it in the statement:

> In sum, then, we may say that the linguist wishes to discover the structure of language behavior, and obtains its structuring only in reference to that larger behavior field, and relative to the structural units of that larger field, the linguist must on occasion refer to that larger field in order to get access to that frame of reference within which the linguistic units obtain part of their definition. (p. 27a)

Charles C. Fries (1945), in his chapter titled "Contextual Orientation" from his book, <u>Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language</u>, stated: "Every language is inextricably bound up with the whole life experience of the native users of that language."

Gaarder (1967), testifying before a Senate subcommittee, described language as:

> . . . the most important exteriorization or manifestation of the self, of the human personality. It is like the water the fish swims in or the air around us. We are all unaware of it in a certain measure, and a little child is completely unaware of his language as something outside of himself. If the school, the all-powerful school, rejects the mother tongue of an entire group of children, it can be expected to affect seriously and adversely those children's concept of their parents, their homes, and of themselves.

There is no subject more elusive or more misunderstood than the relation of language to culture. In part the difficulty is caused by a confusion between two basic meanings of the word culture. It is the anthropological meaning of culture as a total way of life, the learned and shared patterns of behavior of a group of people living together,

which is only slowly coming to be understood and accepted by language teachers.

Culture in the anthropological meaning is also related to language in a very basic way. In expressing typical feelings, thoughts, attitudes, values, language is both a vehicle and a mirror of culture. It may be an overt expression of cultural values, at least at a given time and place. Or it may communicate a message which even contradicts the meaning of the words used: "I'm sure he's all right." As Hall (1961) demonstrated in his book, cultural patterns are revealed as clearly by what he called the "silent language" as they are in words. Hall asserted:

> Most Americans are only dimly aware of this silent language even though they use it every day. They are not conscious of the elaborate patterning of behavior which prescribes our handling of time, our spatial relationships, our attitudes toward work, play, and learning. In addition to what we say with our verbal language, we are constantly communicating our real feelings in our silent language--the language of behavior. Sometimes this is correctly interpreted by other nationalities, but more often it is not. (p. 10)

One of the interesting aspects of anthropological study is to observe how different languages reflect in their structure and in their vocabulary different outlooks on the world around one and on life.

Interpretations are made within the framework of one's own cultural patterns. Linguists have defined speech as a purely historical heritage of a group, the product of a long-continued social usage. It is very clear that speech

is a "cultural function." The study of language then becomes the study of a people and a culture.

Brooks (1969), in an article entitled "Teaching Culture in the Foreign Language Classroom," developed a workable definition of culture for educators that is germaine to any discussion of biculturalism. He evolved his definition negatively, stating that "culture is not geography, history, folklore, sociology, literature, or civilization." Reinforcing his definition, he claimed that the most distinguishing characteristic of the study of culture, as opposed to these other disciplines, was the central importance of the individual. He expanded his discussion by identifying five positive components of culture, these being: growth, refinement, fine arts, patterns of living, and a total way of life. He viewed the fourth component as the most important, describing it as "the role of the individual in life situations of every kind and his conformity to the rules and models for attitude and conduct in them" and stated that this was the most useful component in second language instruction. For Brooks, the third and fifth meanings came into effect as language competence increased.

In having another language Brooks believed that a complete understanding can occur only when the student comprehends the unique native language and its relationship to a particular life style.

He concluded his definition of culture, stating that:

No individual could create culture by himself; no individual escapes having the imprint of his culture deeply pressed upon him. One of the purest examples of the results of man's association with man is language. Not to recognize language, the simple ability to communicate in words, for the amazing creative process that it is, and to denigrate it instead, is to fail to recognize the very fulcrum upon which all humanism rests. (p. 25)

Using this definition of culture as a guideline, one can readily perceive the intimate relationship culture plays in language acquisition, thus making it a necessary and vital component of any bilingual program.

Bilingualism and Biculturalism

The literature on bilingualism is concerned primarily with effects on the psychological and linguistic development of the student and his school achievement, as well as his personal and social adjustment. As a corollary, bilingualism also raises the question as to the advisability of teaching English as a Second Language, and that of the time and method of instruction. These questions have been discussed and investigated. The only point of agreement is that the findings so far are inconclusive and need further careful investigation. The implication seems to be that bilingualism is a much more complicated condition of affairs than simply that of the use of two languages by an individual.

If bilingualism is not a simple concept, then it needs further differentiation and clarification. The dictionary definition simplifies the concept of bilingualism "as able to speak one's native language and another with

approximately equal facility." The difficulty arises in applying this definition to specific cases, its value as a working concept is lost. Situations generally referred to as bilingual involve other factors with which the investigator must be concerned. Bilingualism refers not only to two distinct patterns of linguistic habits, but also to distinct patterns of cultural habits in all of their anthropological implications. The problem then is one of "biculturalism" as well as bilingualism.

J. P. Soffietti (1955) noted that just as there are degrees of bilingualism, there are degrees of biculturalism. To distinguish between various concepts of bilingualism and biculturalism, Soffietti developed a system of identification to explain most situations except multilingual and multicultural. The situations he identified are : (1) bicultural-bilingual (usually considered as the true bilingual, participates in two cultures); (2) bicultural-monolingual (this can be characterized by the child of an immigrant family who has given up his native tongue but not the native customs and beliefs); (3) monocultural-bilingual (the person who participates in one culture but has learned to use a second language); and (4) monocultural-monolingual (the most common situation in the United States).

Studies of the effects of bilingualism on the intellectual and social development of a child indicate that most of the difficulties and retardations are due to the bicultural aspects of the situation.

It is the living in two distinct cultures, whether overtly or in one's internal life, that creates problems of adjustment. It is a conflict between ways of life, beliefs, customs, value systems, and not necessarily one between language systems.

A person learning a second language in a monocultural setting will not automatically learn a whole new set of cultural patterns and develop cultural conflicts. As a matter of fact, it is seldom that a person studying a second language in the schools ever gets beyond the "synonym" stage of foreign language learning; all he usually learns is another way of referring to the same or similar thing, situation, or event.

Studying the developmental aspects of second language learning, Lambert (1963b) concluded:

> The process of linguistic enculturation seemed to
> be the most advanced stage of language skill and took
> a long time to acquire. (p. 363)

Since the meanings expressed in a language are determined by the cultural behavior, one cannot understand a language fully without understanding at least the distinct cultural meanings expressed through it. Hence, the student of language cannot go into any significant depth of the target language without considering differences in cultural meanings. A substantial knowledge of specific facts concerning the culture, thought patterns, traditions, the value systems which account for life styles and behavior of a people is necessary. In learning a foreign culture, the student

tends to transfer also the patterns of his native culture to the culture to be learned, at both level of production as well as the reception level, as Lado (1964) stated:

> The student learns the target culture not from scratch as he learned his native one, but with the experience, meanings, and habits of his native culture influencing him at every step. The native culture experience will facilitate learning those patterns that are sufficiently similar to the function satisfactorily when transferred. The native culture experiences will interfere with those cultural patterns and meanings that are not equitable with similar ones or that are partly similar but function differently in the target culture. (p. 30)

Learning to behave in conformity with the nonverbal culture patterns of another society is as much a task as learning verbal patterns, i.e., its language. To change the cultural pattern is as difficult as the linguistic ones. Both are based on deep-rooted systems of habit, some of which have strong emotional bases.

Horacio Ulibarri (1970), commenting on the importance of including a cultural component in any bilingual program, felt that any program that does not take account of community needs and aspirations is doomed to failure. However, Ulibarri said: "A program encompassing the problems, hopes, and ideals of the situation becomes alive and vibrant and most likely will receive widespread support."

Looking at the positive aspects of a bilingual/bicultural program, Ulibarri saw such a program as "a harmonious and controlled interaction between two cultures."

He conceived of acculturation as a process consisting of four evolving stages of development. They are:

(1) confusion and nonacceptance of the new culture, (2) rejection of his native culture in an imitative effort to acquire more mobility in the new culture, (3) superficial return to native culture stressing bilingual ability, and (4) truly understands both cultures and functions as an integrated personality within both cultures. Of this process Ulibarri said:

> As he develops into the second stage of acculturation, the intonation patterns of the individual become definitely theatrical and, as he acquires more dexterity in his rhetorical mannerisms, he is likely to deny any knowledge of his native language or dialect.
> (p. 117)

Joshua A. Fishman (1965), speaking at the University of Texas in favor of bilingual programs, commented:

> Our political and cultural foundations are weakened when large population groupings do not feel encouraged to express, to safeguard and to develop behavioral patterns that are traditionally meaningful to them. Our national creativity and personal purposefulness are rendered more shallow when constructive channels of self-expression are blocked and when alienation from ethical-cultural roots becomes the necessary price of self-respect and social advancement regardless of the merits of the cultural components under consideration.
> . . . Certainly, now that the basic patterns of American nationhood are safely established and have momentum of their own, cultural and linguistic diversity deserves to be protected for its own sake, as a "good" of American reality and as a "given" of democratic sensitivity.
> (p. 152)

And again, testifying in the Senate in support of the Bilingual Education Act, Fishman (1967) stated:

> Biculturalism requires awareness of one's heritage, identification with it--at least on a selective basis--and freedom to express this identification in a natural and uninhibited manner. (p. 125)

History of Bilingualism

Bilingual schools were established by law in Ohio in 1840 as a result of a large number of German immigrants. Cincinnati, in the same year, made German an optional subject --a model with the addition of French used by New York in 1854 and St. Louis in 1864.

By the turn of the century, 14 programs were in progress with nearly 5,000,000 students. Though often identified as foreign languages in the elementary school (FLES), these were actually bilingual. For example, Cincinnati in 1914 used this plan:

> . . . two teachers were assigned to two classes one teaching German and the other English to both classes, alternately. The German teacher, in addition, taking charge of such branches as drawing, music, and primary occupation work. (Cincinnati Public Schools, 85th Annual Report, 1914)

Faced with a shortage of qualified teachers, a special training program for teachers of German was initiated in Cincinnati in 1871. Cleveland followed in 1875 and St. Louis started such a program in 1882. The social conditions created by World War I terminated nearly all of these programs.

The dominant culture in the U. S. has generally considered bilingualism and biculturalism as somehow "un-American."

Illinois, Texas, and until recently, California have laws prohibiting public school instruction in foreign languages--restricting such usage to foreign language classes.

Jack Forbes (1967) found in his research that:

Southern California, for example, remained a Spanish-speaking region until the 1870's with Spanish-language and bilingual public schools, Spanish-language newspapers, and Spanish-speaking judges, elected officials, and community leaders. The first Constitution of the State of California, created in part by persons of Mexican background, established California as a bilingual state and it remained as such until 1878. (p. 8)

Additional hindrances to bilingual instruction include parents of non-English-speaking children who believe that bilingual instruction will retard their children's acquisition of English. Many children, influenced by their peer group and school, begin to view their mother tongue and attendant culture as a social stigma. Bilingual teachers educated in a biased atmosphere suppress their cultural and linguistic heritage to attain their position and often believe that their students should follow the same path. Aligned with these difficulties are the pragmatic problems of staffing, materials, and methodology which plague any educational program, but have reached a critical point in bilingual education.

Bilingual Schooling

Yarborough (1967) stated:

After Sputnik I, there was a fear that the Russians were getting ahead of us in science and engineering, and we were able to pass the National Defense Educational Act of 1958 of which I was co-author. (p. 130)

Not only did this historic space venture awaken the U. S. to its deficiencies in mathematics and science, but also to

rapid communication via satellite creating a global village that demands intimate knowledge of a multitude of languages.

Congress, finally realizing the implications of developing second and foreign language abilities, passed the Bilingual Education Act, January 2, 1968. The Bilingual Education Act of 1968 became operational September, 1969, in 76 selected educational agencies throughout the United States. Seven and one-half million dollars in federal funds finance these programs, the money coming from Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. This program is designed to meet the special needs of children between the ages of 3 and 18 who have difficulty in speaking and/or understanding English. Of these 76 programs, 67 are for children whose mother tongue is Spanish. Twenty-six bilingual programs are located in California. For the 1970-71 school year 58 new programs have been funded.

The funds are to be used in three areas: (1) planning and developing programs to meet the needs of children of limited English-speaking ability in schools having a high concentration of impoverished youths; (2) providing in-service and pre-service training for instructional personnel who will participate in bilingual programs; and (3) establishing, maintaining, and operating programs, including the acquisition of teaching materials and equipment.

Needs Assessment

The Bilingual Education Act was designed to assist students whose dominant language is not English between the

ages of 3 and 18. They must come from families whose income
is less than $3,000 per year or who receive payments through
aid to dependent children. An applicant for this program
must prove that existing programs do not meet the needs of
this group of students. The project area must have the
highest population of students with a dominant language
other than English.

Four areas must be investigated to determine the need
for a Bilingual program in a school district. Geographic
and numerical data must be gathered on children whose domi-
nant language is not English. The data gatherers should pro-
vide data from actual or projected school enrollments that
indicate the number of children whose dominant language is
not English with a breakdown by school. Census data, commu-
nity surveys, migratory labor information, and observations
of the community may be used to determine the number of peo-
ple in the community whose dominant language is not English.

The grant proposal must provide proof that these
students' educational needs are not being met. Relevant
data in this area may include achievement and other standard-
ized tests, locally prepared tests, classroom observation,
school attendance records, dropout rate, unemployment rates
for 18-25 year olds, percentage of high school graduates con-
tinuing their education, surveys comparing the relationship
of the English-speaking population to the target group.

Linguistic ability can be determined from language
tests in both English and the dominant language, classroom

surveys, interviews of bilingual individuals, reports from teachers and/or administrators, and observation of children in their family environment.

Information must also be collected on the socio-economic status of the target group. Relevant information in this area may be gathered from community surveys, census data, and unemployment data.

The Office of Education (1970) reminded the writers of these proposals that:

> . . . if the assessment of needs presents a problem for which adequate performance objectives cannot be readily constructed, the problem should not be shelved. This practice might lead to undue emphasis upon the more mechanical, easily designed program objectives rather than acceptance of the critical challenges pin-pointed in the assessment of needs.

Theodore Andersson and Mildred Boyer (1969), in their book, <u>Bilingual Schooling in the United States</u>, grouped their assessment of needs for a bilingual program under two categories, (1) urgency, and (2) feasibility.

Under urgency they discussed using population data as a criterion for assessing need, adding that care must be exercised in using these data so that non-English language groups are not excluded simply on the basis of lack of numbers, since in a given area the ratio may appear disproportionate.

They continued their discussion, pointing out that while most ethnic groups with a dominant language other than English come from low economic status, perhaps a bilingual program would be more successful if the middle class were

involved in the program, to convince them of the need and advantages of such a program.

Their approach is much broader in scope than the guidelines set forth by the U. S. Office of Education, in that Andersson and Boyer considered such things as the political advantage or disadvantage of bilingualism and the prestige of bilingualism.

Under feasibility they discussed materials, their availability, form, and interest at various age levels.

Parental interest in a bilingual program is of primary importance, since no program will be successful if parents doubt the need of acquiring a second language. Under this topic the "cultural dynamics" of the group must be assessed in terms of whether the group wants to join the majority culture or develop their own. The authors stressed that the most important factor in achieving literacy is an understanding of the students' cultural context since in some languages (they used Cherokee) literacy is reserved for adults--not for children.

Concerning personnel, the authors stressed that the level of language competence in the target group must be assessed before assigning staff, since in some cases, "a non-native speaker may be more acceptable as a model in an area where parents think their own language is inadequate." (p. 103)

William Mackey (1969) divided needs assessment into four categories: (1) the behavior of the bilingual at home,

(2) school curriculum; (3) the language distribution in the community, its immediate area, and the nation; and (4) the status of the languages.

A complete understanding is necessary of how the bilingual student functions in his home since instruction, according to Mackey, should be based on the degree of usage and knowledge of the language used in the home and in the community. This information must be measured to form a foundation for research and curriculum planning.

To develop an appropriate curriculum a project should gather data on the kind and degree of languages used in the school and the languages used by the children at play in the school and at home. Mackey added, "We need measures of the closeness and mutual intelligibility of the languages involved in the bilingual instruction and means of predicting the effects of these languages on the comprehension and expression of the bilingual learner."

Also necessary for understanding the needs of these students is the distribution and degree of usage of the languages in the nation, state, and community. To facilitate the gathering of such information, standardized screening tests must be devised, along with language proficiency tests. In addition, individual case studies must be collected and assessed.

Mackey established five indexes to determine language distribution. These are (1) the degree of standardization; (2) census data; (3) economic indexes, such as the gross

national product; (4) the numbers and geographic areas in which the language is used; and (5) an index to culture, such as the annual production of printed matter.

Concerning language status, Mackey indicated that the national role of the language is important and projects should know whether both or only one of the languages is rated as official or national.

Horacio Ulibarri (1970), in his Bilingual Education: A Handbook for Education, stated very succinctly the importance of assessing the need for such a program when he said:

> It must be remembered that bilingualism penetrates into the core of a society. Cultural difference, social class stratification, prejudices and discrimination, and power structure as well as social and personal disorganization are all parts of the package that one may call "bilingualism." Therefore, a viable bilingual education must be founded on a thorough analysis of these socio-cultural phenomena. To do otherwise is to build a program on shaky grounds. (p. 129)

The pertinent data to be collected should establish, according to Ulibarri, a socio-cultural/socio-psychological model to assess individual needs, the type of program needed, and the degree of flexibility to account for individual needs. Also, to be established are the kind and extent of material and instructional support required, the degree and number of bicultural components in the program, the social patterns of the community and their effect on the school, the degree and context of in-service training for teachers in the program, and the effect of such a program on the community, parents, and students.

To establish such information, Ulibarri gave a model for a community survey that consists of a sociological component and a cultural component. An analysis of such a survey would group itself around areas of high predictive values, such as social class, age groups, ethnic groups, and life styles.

The purpose of gathering information on the societal functions of the non-English tongue in a given community is to determine whether the individual members can meet their needs in their non-English tongue. That is to say, if religious, recreational, and economic needs can be met in a given community without knowledge of English, then the language is being maintained. If, however, the non-English tongue is primarily used in the home and not in the streets, stores, or churches, there is a language shift in progress. Obviously, there is a greater need to learn English in a community that fills religious, recreational, and economic needs only in English. Once it is determined whether the community is a language maintenance or language shift community, the bilingual educational objectives should be written to reflect the bilingual reality in the community. A curriculum which mirrors the maintenance or shift in a bilingual community, therefore, is not designed to change the bilingual reality. A decision to design the curriculum to change the societal functions of the languages in the community should be based on the expressed needs and desires of the parents of the children in the bilingual program. Often times, community

spokesmen are not parents of children in the program. School
officials should make certain that members of the Advisory
Council to plan and implement a bilingual program include
parents of the target population.

Such an Advisory Board could be instrumental in help-
ing curriculum designers develop a program that best fits
the needs of the target population. For example, a student
unable to meet his needs in his vernacular outside of his
home should receive instruction which emphasizes acquisition
of English speaking skills and delays the development of
literacy in the vernacular until later; whereas a student
who can meet his needs outside of his home in his vernacular
should receive instruction which emphasizes the development
of his vernacular and delays the development of literacy in
English until basic reading skills have been acquired in the
vernacular. It should be noted here that a program empha-
sizing the acquisition of English speaking skills and intro-
ducing the student to print in English must, nevertheless,
include conceptual development through the vernacular. Thus
one can see the tremendous importance needs assessment plays
in developing a curriculum for a bilingual program.

Curriculum Design

Horacio Ulibarri (1970) defined three general curric-
ulum patterns in his book, Bilingual Education: A Handbook
for Educators.

One curriculum design would initiate instruction in the native language, gradually phasing in English until the entire curriculum is in English. The second type would develop both languages simultaneously so that the student would be literate in both languages. The third type, which is the most comprehensive, would incorporate the second type and add a cultural component so that the student could function in either cultural context with ease. Such a program would be divided into three areas: (1) language arts (development of literacy in both languages), (2) content in both languages, and (3) a cultural component which would emphasize social studies and literature. In this type of program, the guidance and counseling activities are also carried out in whichever language it is easier to communicate.

A. Bruce Gaarder (1965) suggested that a curriculum should be centered around the number of other language speakers and their degree of competency in their native language. He proposed, as a minimal program in an area with few language speakers, a design that would include at least one course per day in language for other language speakers. This course would review the subject matter of the English curriculum. Double credit should be granted for such a course, as the student would be developing his skills in the language as well as gaining a competence in the subject matter.

In a community with large numbers of speakers of other languages, a curriculum should be developed that would include ESL in the first grade for students. The ESL would

gradually be increased so that in the second grade half a day would be in English and half in the X-language. Thus, these students would become bilingual and bicultural.

William Mackey (1969) made several distinctions in curriculum patterns to formulate a typology of bilingual programs. A key distinction in curriculum planning, according to Mackey, is the language of instruction. A curriculum may be bilingual if the language of the school is different from the language of the home, community, state, or nation. Curriculums incorporating two languages use the language of the home plus a second language and may vary in content (i.e., physical sciences in English, social sciences in Spanish). Such a program can be classified by measuring the amount of instruction given in each language. Mackey's second classification described two major time distribution patterns: (A) "transfer," in which the curriculum changes from one language of instruction to another, and (B) "maintenance," where both languages are developed. The cultural component of the curriculum may move the student toward incorporation with a larger culture or toward maintaining the culture of the home language. The content, dividing it in terms of language, yields three patterns: (A) distribution by subject, (B) alternating, or (C) overlapping material. Mackey also classified the distribution of the program in terms of change, the degree and amount of the languages used, and whether the shift will be abrupt or gradual. Mackey separated these components in terms of the medium (single or dual) of instruction

which yields 10 curriculum patterns. He expanded the typology to include the relationship of these components to the nation, community, school, and home, thus expanding the variables nine more times, evolving 90 different curriculum patterns for bilingual education. Mackey added, ". . . a number of these curriculum patterns may be in operation within the same school system, in the same area, or in the same country." (p. 19)

Atilano Valencia (1969) developed 19 bilingual models with six variables which are as follows: (1) content, (2) native language, (3) second language, (4) English as a Second Language, (5) Spanish as a Second Language, and (6) Spanish for Spanish-speakers.

Placing these variables on a grid, an example would be a curriculum in which instruction is given in the native language up to a designated grade level, and then continues in the second language. Another model would incorporate this pattern with the addition of Spanish for the Spanish-speaking. The ultimate goal of this pattern would be a bilingual/ bicultural student. Commenting on his patterns, Valencia stated:

> . . . ESL can be conceived as an integral part of the vernacular and cultural elements that a child from a cultural setting different than the middle-class Anglo-American brings to the school setting. In this respect, English can be envisioned as a second language to this child. Here, the approach is not to forcibly remove the vernacular from the child's repertoire, but to introduce and develop in him the capability of functioning in a language that, in the beginning, is basically new to him. Further, the introduction of language programs other

than English, for example, can develop the child's ability to function in two or more languages that are applicable in a larger society. In essence, a child might develop into a trilingual person with an ability to use standard English and Spanish, or some other language, while also maintaining a vernacular style appropriate to his immediate home environment. (p. 9)

Andersson and Boyer (1969) established four possible curriculum designs for bilingual education.

The first one is for bilingual children who may or may not be balanced bilinguals. The intended goal of this design is to educate bilingual children bilingually. In this pattern, instruction would start in the child's dominant language, but very early (kindergarten, grade one) instruction in the second language would begin. If the groups are mixed (dominant language English or dominant language Spanish) the language of instruction would alternate during the school day.

The second design would be for English-speaking children in an upper-middle class environment. The purpose of such a design would be to make these children bilingual in a language recognized internationally. From three years to six years of age the language would be spoken at school 90 per cent of the time. At this point, reading and writing are introduced in English and the development of literacy in the X-language is delayed.

The third program would be devoted to X-language speakers in a low socio-economic class in the United States, and would enable these students to be bilingual. From K to six years of age the child would begin learning in his own

language with an ESL program beginning at the same time and expanding into a 50/50 ratio. The child would learn to read and write in his native tongue. As they acquired more English the curriculum would shift learning only one time unit for the X-language.

The fourth program is designed basically for immigrants. The native tongue is used in pre-school and kindergarten, but by the first grade all instruction is given in English. Andersson and Boyer dismissed this program since it could only render useless the child's first language.

Professor Fishman (1970) based his typology on the community and the school objectives. He stressed the fact that bilingual instruction is different from an English as a Second Language program because ESL includes no instruction in the student's mother tongue. However, bilingual education includes an English as a Second Language component. Fishman identified four patterns of instruction, which are: (1) transitional bilingualism, (2) monoliterate bilingualism, (3) partial bilingualism, and (4) full bilingualism.

Transitional bilingualism uses the students' mother tongue as the medium of instruction until their English is developed to a level that facilitates a transfer into English as the language of instruction. No further support is provided for the mother tongue, which should correspond to a community language shift pattern.

Monoliterate bilingualism develops the oral-aural skills in both languages, but provides instruction in

literacy skills only in English. This pattern suggests, if the school is attentive to its students' needs, that the community is gradually shifting to the dominant language.

The third pattern, partial bilingualism, indicates that the community is in a maintenance pattern because both fluency and literacy are taught in both languages. However, the student's mother tongue is used only in content areas related to culture and ethnic studies.

The fourth pattern is full bilingualism, which develops fluency and literacy in both languages in all subject areas. Such a pattern reinforces and develops the minority language of the community and, in theory, will create a bilingual/bicultural society.

Community Involvement

Parents must have an active role in the planning, implementation, and evaluation of federally funded bilingual programs. Parental support will enhance their child's development and make the project staff more responsive to community aspirations. Budgetary provisions may be formulated to support parental and community involvement activities.

At the earliest stages of the project's development a "project advisory group," consisting of parents and representatives from community organizations, should be formed to provide "first-hand knowledge of their children's [and community's] problems in an English-speaking environment."

The USOE guidelines (1970) specified a number of functions

for this group, among them:

> . . . to establish a procedure by which grievances
> of parents and others can receive prompt consideration,
> and to participate in resolving grievances; to promote
> the project in the community; and to assist in mobiliz-
> ing community resources in support of the project.
> (p. 66)

In addition to the advisory board, parents should be

included in the project as paraprofessionals or volunteers.

Parental observation schedules should be formulated to

facilitate better understanding between project staff and

parents. The guidelines suggest that the staff visit com-

munity homes to strengthen lines of communication at all

levels.

The guidelines stress the concept that "local resi-

dents must be convinced of the program's value in order for

it to be successful," adding that "in some communities, local

interest will be contingent upon the support of powerful

community groups." (p. 68)

Ulibarri (1970), in his Bilingual Education: A

Handbook for Educators, also stressed the need for parental

and community support and involvement, concluding that:

> . . . it is a worthwhile experience for the parent
> to come into the school setting and to participate in
> the teaching act. Often parents learn more than the
> children whom they set out to instruct. (p. 71)

Saville and Troike (1970) stressed the fact that

parental involvement should be actively solicited at all

levels of planning and implementation. They suggested that

direct observation of the results of bilingual education will

convince most people it is sound policy, and the program can then be expanded. To facilitate this level of communication they suggested that a number of media, i.e. speakers, radio, pamphlets, be deployed in the community to keep the parents informed of the project's activities. They concluded their discussion of community involvement by saying that:

> . . . one of the most important factors in promoting parental involvement and better understanding between home and school is inherent in the nature of a bilingual program. The children are taught in the language of the home, and can express or apply what they have learned there. Furthermore, the parents are in a better posi- tion to understand what is going on at school, and to provide important support for the education of their children. (p. 72)

Program Management

Only the program manager can effect a congruency between the project's objectives so that there will be a direct relationship between components. It is critical that the components do not become distinct entities without articulation of purpose or coordination of functions between components. The program management process, as defined in USOE guidelines (1970), must perform the following functions: planning, organizing, staffing, staff development, evaluation, reporting, communication, coordination, and dissemination. An organizational chart must be formulated which indicates project positions and their relationship to local school administrative positions. A project time line should be developed to indicate the major events of the program named above, as well as USOE deadlines for the project's refunding.

"Time line dates should be linked directly to the plan for product outcomes and to the operational processes for each component." (p. 126)

Project planning must include staff meetings to evaluate the success of the various components to allow the administrative staff to make appropriate modifications. The Guidelines state that maximum staff participation in planning serves vital communication, coordination, staff development, and motivation purposes.

The organizational structure of the project should dovetail with the parent-school system; it should not operate independently from the local schools.

> In project design the major concern is to make clear in writing the responsibilities of each organization unit and the essential contribution each staff member will be expected to make including his key operating relationships with other staff members. (p. 82)

Thomas Carter (1970), discussing the school and its relationship with the community, believed that:

> It is not educators' altruism that is coming to the fore. Rather it is the controlling political groups who see that societal peace and balance are threatened and encourage or demand whatever school action is evident. (p. 206)

Thus a bilingual program director must be aware of the source of the program's development--did it come from political pressure, school pressure, or community pressure? Each one of these questions would require a different form of public relations by the director. He must be cognizant of who is committed to the program; he must know exactly how much support the program has in the school, the community, and the

state. With this knowledge, a director can establish lines
of communication between various groups and maintain interest
and support for his program.

Reporting should include classroom observation
reports, evaluation of in-service training, evaluator's
reports, curriculum and materials development, and financial
reports for USOE.

Communication, coordination, and dissemination of
information should include a project newsletter or the use
of an available publication to announce classroom schedules,
testing dates, development of new materials, recent research,
and in-service workshops. This information could also be
submitted to the State Departments of Education and other
relevant professional organizations. Local educators should
be invited to attend many of the project's planning and
evaluation activities to facilitate greater understanding
of the project's goals.

Program planning and budgeting system (PPBS), while
not a new concept in management science, is a relatively new
concept for educational institutions. There are five key
elements in PPBS: (1) program goals, (2) program descrip-
tion, (3) specific objectives, (4) evaluation, and (5) cost.
The USOE guidelines follow these same elements in designing
bilingual programs, but now, at least in California, all
school districts will be required to develop their instruc-
tional programs along these lines. The important function
of this system, in the opinion of this researcher, is that

such a program will systematically identify ineffective as well as effective instructional programs, administration of these programs, and serve as a basis for modifying curriculum, materials, and staff roles to meet stated educational objectives. Stegeman (1970) in an article discussing PPBS, stated that PPBS

> . . . will provide for an orderly collection of data and transmittal of information beginning at the classroom or unit level and extending through each level of the organization. The end product will be a summary of district budget which clearly reflects the educational programs of the district. (p. 87)

Teacher Preparation

The teacher should meet the district and state requirements of preparation in addition to work in the culturally disadvantaged, educational sociology, learning theory, and child psychology. A teacher's ability to understand the unique abilities of bilingual students will enable him to avoid socio-cultural conflicts and the failure syndrome often prevalent in such children.

Teachers in a bilingual program must be bilingual to such a degree that they can serve as good models for the students in both languages. Such a teacher must also be bicultural, which Ulibarri (1970) defined as ". . . one who knows the roles to be played in each culture and understands and appreciates the intended value of each role." (p. 20) Not only must the teacher be sensitive to the personalities of the students, each student's learning capacity must be considered so that the child can progress according to his own

needs and abilities, not a set of priorities necessary for an established promotion system.

Preparation of bilingual teachers is the responsibility of the colleges and universities, but, according to Andersson and Boyer (1969), local project directors can help by specifying the skills required for their program and help improve the preparation by reporting evaluations to the colleges.

Andersson and Boyer conceived of a long-range program in which potential bilingual instructors are identified as early as the first grade, but not in such a way as to discourage other forms of employment.

Staff, according to U.S.O.E. (1970), in a bilingual program must be aware of the socio-economic and cultural factors that affect their students. Because of the importance of developing good self-concepts in these students, the interpersonal and communication skills of the teacher are of great importance.

Two factors are important in assessing the language ability of the teacher: (A) Can he speak the regional dialect? and (B) Is he familiar and able to fulfill the language aspirations of the community? Qualified teachers native to the area should be given priority because this will help develop community support.

Teachers must be hired who can use the dominant language of the child as a medium of instruction in such areas as science, math, and social studies. Also, instructors

involved in teaching English as a Second Language should be trained in the methodology of ESL as well as instructors teaching the X-language as a second language. All bilingual teachers must be aware and/or able to use a variety of testing techniques to evaluate the program and the students.

In-service and pre-service training should be implemented if qualified personnel are not available.

Such training could consist of instruction in the areas mentioned above (i.e. ESL) plus practice teaching using the project's materials and orientation to the goals of the project. Trainers in these areas may be drawn from local colleges, district staff, or regional educational laboratories. These trainers should be chosen for their ability to reach a specific skill and not general instruction in bilingual education.

The pre-service and in-service programs should be designed around the staff qualifications. If staff members are highly proficient in the languages of instruction, course work and demonstrations should emphasize methodology, linguistics, and evaluation. However, if the bilingual staff is made up of native speakers of language X who have little, if any, formal education in that language, staff development should emphasize increasing language proficiency. Staff members who are required to use a language other than English as a medium of instruction often have an inadequate vocabulary in science, math, and social studies.

Saville and Troike (1970) said that:

> . . . not only must a teacher be fluent in both
> languages but a knowledge of the structure of both
> languages and a general knowledge of the nature of
> language, including the acceptability and inevita-
> bility of dialect variations in all living lan-
> guages. (p. 87)

They also emphasized the point that a teacher should not be allowed to teach in his weakest language.

Teacher preparation, according to Saville and Troike, must include study in the following areas: linguistics, second language instruction and methodology, curriculum, review and adaptation of existing materials, development of new material, child psychology, and socio-psychological studies of the cultures represented in the community.

In addition to these areas of study, Carter (1970) would also add encounter or sensitivity training. He stated that these sessions act as catalysts to "hasten the process of interaction, force a reconciliation, or at least a constructive encounter, between content taught by more formal methods and content learned through experience." Such an experience would force teachers to examine their own concepts about their role as a teacher, their function in their environment, and their concepts about race, achievement, status, and intelligence. Carter concluded his discussion of teacher preparation by saying that "drastic approaches are probably essential in order to achieve the institutional self-analysis and change so crucial to the school success of Mexican-American children."

Mother Tongue Development

Bilingual schooling can be defined as the use of two languages in the curriculum. Typically, the non-English language is the vernacular or the mother tongue of the largest minority group in the program.

Although non-English tongues have not historically been used in American schools as mediums of instruction and in many cases their use at home and at school has been repressed (Krear, 1969), the non-English tongue is the central focus in bilingual instruction. The amount of time given to the non-English tongue, the development of literacy in it, and the use of it as a medium of instruction are the variables which determine the curriculum patterns and the goals of bilingual programs. These areas will be discussed later in this review of the literature.

The rationale for the use of the vernacular in American schools has been discussed extensively in the literature. Most often quoted is the statement by a committee of international authorities convened by UNESCO (1953), in which they concluded, ". . . It is axiomatic that the best medium for teaching a child is his mother tongue." (p. 6)

The failure to include the vernacular as a medium of instruction in American education has been termed ineffective and cruel by leading authorities.

Andersson and Boyer (1969) reported:

> We know that our past methods of educating children with linguistic handicaps in English have been ineffective. The chief reasons for this seem to be

that (1) we have not taken advantage of the child's best instrument for learning--his mother tongue--and that (2) we have failed to create in him a sense of dignity and confidence. (p. 179)

Eleanor Thonis (1970) suggested:

Probably the cruelest expectation of the school is that which demands that the pupil leave his native language outside the classroom door when his first language is different from that of the school world. (p. 28)

Accepting these criticisms as justified raises the question of supportive evidence. Numerous studies have been conducted which lend support. For instance, Bell (1965, 1966), Richardson (1968), Robinett (1965), and Rojas (1965) described the Miami experiment at the Coral Way School and reported favorable results in achievement for both Cuban and Anglo students. In addition, Horn (1966a,b) and Ott (1969), in reporting the bilingual experiment in San Antonio, added support to the concept of bilingual schooling. In California, Thonis (1967) studied a group of 19 students with a mean chronological age of 7.4 and a mean score of 3.6 on the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test. The students in the study had a mean mental age nearly four years lower than their mean chronological age; after six months of instruction in Spanish they made a mean gain of 1.1 on the Peabody Test administered in English.

In the literature, descriptions of the various experimental programs are abundant. For instance, an early childhood bilingual experiment in New York was reported by Finocchiaro (1966); Stanfield (1970) gave an account of the Laredo experiment in Webb County, Texas.

Ignorance of supportive evidence has led to skepti-
cism on the part of educators, parents, and students with
respect to the merits of instruction in a non-English tongue.
The researcher has encountered criticism of bilingual pro-
grams by educators who question the use of public funds for
such an expensive endeavor, by conservatives who assume that
to be a responsible American citizen means first of all to
speak English, and by parents who want their children to
learn English, the power language in this country.

Andersson and Boyer (1969) discussed negative feel-
ings on the part of students:

> Some children react against being taught in their
> ancestral language, having absorbed from the dominant
> culture the idea that minority ways of being are in
> some way undesirable. (p. 66)

If students and parents are suspicious of the bilin-
gual program, educators should ascertain whether the basis
is a desire to learn English as quickly and efficiently as
possible or whether there is a fear that using the vernacular
for instruction is a way of keeping minority members in their
place. In any case, the child belongs to his parents; if
they do not want him in a bilingual program they should be
given a choice.

Andersson and Boyer cautioned educators from becom-
ing overly zealous by stating:

> But speakers of other languages should not only
> be free to acquire an education in their mother tongue;
> they should also be free to reject their mother tongue
> if they so prefer. . . . Some educators and some par-
> ents feel that an education in two languages places on
> a child an undue burden. (p. 178)

After assessing the merits of giving instruction in the vernacular and respecting the right of students and parents to choose or reject bilingual instruction, educators are faced with decisions with respect to establishing priorities. If the vernacular is to be used as a bridge to English, a comprehensive development of the mother tongue will probably not be included. However, authoritative sources have suggested that developing the mother tongue is essential to cognitive growth which, in turn, will facilitate second language acquisition. It is a basic assumption that the non-English speaker thinks in his mother tongue. It follows logically, then, that his cognitive processes are directly linked to the verbal symbols he uses. Enriching his experiential background and developing his mother tongue as a foundation for the learning of English seems to be a viable theory. Thonis (1970) concluded: "It may be wise to attempt to improve the mother tongue first so he will have verbal symbols to accompany his thought." (p. 262)

Although all bilingual programs funded under Title VII must include the vernacular as a medium of instruction, there is little evidence that the non-English tongue is being systematically developed in the native speakers. The United States Office of Education Guidelines specify that the non-English tongue be taken to the literacy level. However, when one considers the percentage of the school day in a monolingual English curriculum that is devoted to the refinement of English in native speakers of English, it becomes

evident that development of the mother tongue means much more than the teaching of reading. Unfortunately, in the American bilingual programs there is no course of study or commercially prepared materials available, to the knowledge of this investigator, which systematically develops the four language skills in a non-English tongue. As a matter of fact, there is no such integrated approach commerically available for the teaching of English to English speakers as evidenced by the splintered sequences in unrelated readers, spellers, and language books used in a given grade level.

If two languages are to be developed to full literacy, a prerequisite for successful accomplishment of the goals seems to be an integrated approach to the four language skills in each language.

In view of the lack of expertise and materials for efficient development of the mother tongue and considering Thonis' (1970) suggestion that the more extended and refined the native language, the more understanding and interest is brought to the learning of English, educational leaders in bilingual programs would be wise in giving high priority to the development of methods and materials in the development of the vernacular.

Second Language Teaching

Until recently, English had been acquired as a second language by generations of immigrants in a "sink or swim" process. During the last decade increased attention to

second language teaching for non-English speakers has brought about the development of specialized programs generally referred to as ESL. Current practices range from traditional grammar-translation approaches to audio-lingual to a combination of both. The age-old lag between theory and practice exists in second language teaching as in any other field. ESL programs developed overnight have resulted in both good and bad practices. Many untrained teachers oblivious of the arguments with respect to traditional and modern approaches have nevertheless arrived intuitively at methods of teaching a second language through a humanistic process, thereby achieving good results. Others trained in more modern pattern practice have imposed on children army-like drills with efficiency but with unfavorable results. Unfortunately, there are too few teachers cognitively and affectively prepared to develop a second language in students efficiently yet charismatically.

In a historical study of language teaching methods, Banathy and Sawyer (1969) found that for 300 years new methods were being presented based on a _new_ discovery that language is a spoken phenomenon. The primacy of speech theory underlies the practice of delaying the teaching of reading and writing in a second language until an undefined level of speaking mastery is reached. Lado (1964) presented the principle of speech before writing as the basis of the audio-lingual approach. However, he qualified all of the language teaching principles with the following statement:

". . . The principles are subject to change or elimination as new scientific facts are added to our knowledge." (p. 50) Although in the early 60's there was overwhelming support for delaying reading, the end of the decade brought about skepticism in some. Prator (1969) warned that prolonged postponement of all contact with the written form of the language in a low second class could be counterproductive. There is evidence in the literature that most authorities would not advocate presenting the written form before the spoken one. The most modern approach permits either the spoken form presented before the written form, or simultaneously. This is one of the new "combined" approaches, accepting the merit of visual learning from the traditional approach and auditory learning from the audio-lingual approach. The primacy of speech principles has been replaced by Belasco (1969) with the primacy of receptive skills placing emphasis on listening and reading over speaking and writing.

The audio-lingual approach established patterns as habits through pattern practice. The "habit theory" has been under severe attack by linguists who believe language is not an accumulated mass of memorized data. Wardhaugh (1969) reported a lack of consensus:

> . . . there may well still be disagreement about whether actual language use is a skill which is largely habitual or an ability which is largely creative. (p. 106)

Teachers who subscribe to the theory that language is

generated creatively will teach a second language very differently than those who cling to the "habit theory." Emphasis has been placed on using real-life situations for meaningful language learning activities. Wardhaugh (1969b) recommended a humanistic approach:

> . . . Language is a vehicle for dealing with reality. All linguistic activity must be associated with meaningful activity so any techniques designed to encourage meaningful activity are obviously important in language learning. Consequently, movement, involvement, and situation, and the concomitants of these--laughter, games, and stories--are important in teaching. (p. 114)

Cooper (1970) suggested a method emphasizing content in realistic situations in which students would learn while testing their hypothesis about the new language by producing sentences freely. He challenged teachers with the following proposal:

> . . . By placing the student in realistic situations that demand that the student use the target language, we would be attempting to simulate the conditions under which naturally occurring bilingualism takes place. . . . In such situations, people become bilingual by participating in situations which demand the use of the second language. (p. 314)

In support of a situational or realistic approach to language teaching, Belasco (1969) proposed the use of "live" telecasts, interviews, and film soundtracks. Cole (1970) developed a problem-solving approach using goal-oriented buzz groups; he suggested the use of language games for beginners. Richards (1969) theorized that specially written songs and songs adapted for second language learners would provide meaningful practice.

Another basic premise of audio-lingual teaching is that methods and materials based on a contrastive analysis of two languages is imperative. The posture of many leading authorities on this hypothesis has changed. Wardhaugh (1970) expressed disbelief in the value of interference predictions derived from a contrastive analysis; however, he did not discredit the value of a contrastive analysis derived from empirical evidence. Such a study was conducted by Voci (1971), which revealed a 66 per cent agreement between errors predicted from a contrastive analysis and error actually made by the target population. It is evident from this study that a contrastive analysis does not provide the classroom teacher with a reliable tool for predicting errors or writing lessons based on those predictions. This researcher has found through experience that allophones in the native language that approximate sounds being elicited from the student provide a helpful transition. It follows then that teachers aware of interference points derived from actual evidence are equipped with powerful information for taking students from the known to the unknown. A related area of controversy is the minimal pair drill for second language teaching. Wardhaugh (1969a) did not agree with the technique as a teaching tool because it is a technique for analyzing language rather than for teaching language. Nevertheless, many teachers who use the minimal pair technique creatively and have had success with it will be unwilling to relinquish it simply because it is a technique imported from another

discipline. In the same study of a contrastive analysis derived from a linguistic description of English and Cantonese compared to an analysis derived from actual errors, Voci tested the minimal pair teaching technique against a control group receiving instruction based on imitation. The experimental group achieved significantly (.05) better than the control group on the post-test. More impressive is the evidence he gathered on a follow-up test where the students taught with minimal pairs retained significantly (.01) more of their achievement gains than the control groups.

The traditional approach to second language teaching was based on learning by analysis using grammar rules; whereas the audio-lingual approach was based on learning by analoly. The modern approach, which combines analysis and analogy, was described by Belasco (1969):

> . . . Furthermore, students practicing pattern drills will "know" beforehand what structural principles (grammatical, phonological, semantic) the drills are designed to "internalize." Contrary to the classical audio-lingual approach students will not have to "infer" generalizations about the language. They will practice only after they understand the principle involved. In other words, short explanations will always precede pattern drills. (p. 198)

One of the hypotheses of the audio-lingual approach which has withstood attack is the insistence on good speech models. Although there is little research evidence to support the theory that authentic models are imperative, authorities (Lado 1964, Andersson and Boyer 1969) continue to advocate adherence to the theory. In discussing the third year results of the bilingual experiment at Nye School in

Texas, Carter (1970) reported that only the children who were bilinguals at school entrance retained any noticeable accent in English. Both groups who entered the program as monolinguals could speak unaccented standard Spanish and English at the end of the third year. This evidence supports a theory proposed by Krear (1969) that second language learners who are not exposed to poor English models in the home because the native tongue is used exclusively will develop a higher degree of bilingualism.

The literature is replete with discussions of compound and coordinate bilingualism as social phenomena and as possible goals of bilingual programs. If coordinate bilingualism is the ultimate objective of a bilingual program, attention must be given not only to language models but also to second language teaching method and separation of languages. Fishman (1966) discussed both aspects:

> . . . it remains true that more modern ("direct") instructional methods have adopted the coordinate model as their own and that many teachers who are strongly convinced of the merits of the direct method explicitly aim at students who can keep their two languages apart, who can think independently in each, and who can "speak like natives" in each. (p. 128)

Although the grammar-translation approach so strongly rejected by proponents of audio-lingual theories has had the grammar portion of its approach slowly reinstated as previously discussed, there is no evidence in the literature that attacks against translation as a teaching practice have been retracted. Since Fishman (1966) has equated the old approach to language teaching with the

compound type of bilingual functioning, and since there are
no modern proponents of translation as a teaching technique
it seems safe to assume that for the present, the practice
remains discredited.

A theory that has gained support in the last decade
is that attitude and motivation are critical factors in
learning a second language. There are numerous references
in the literature on the topic; only the most noted authori-
ties will be quoted. Fishman (1966) pointed out that although
the desire to be a member of the other culture is a powerful
force which accelerates the learning of the new language,
the minority group member learning English as a second lan-
guage benefits more from ethnic-group pride than from a desire
to acculturate to the dominant group. Anglo children in
bilingual programs learning language X as a second language
are predicted to perform better if their desire is derived
from a solidarity basis rather than a power basis. Fishman
(1966) opined that students propelled by integrative motives
would be more successful with a direct method; whereas stu-
dents having utilitarian or power motives would profit from
the older instructional methods.

In a study involving students from 80 different
countries, Spolsky (1969) reported his findings support the
theory that a solidarity purpose or integrative motivation
will lead to a higher degree of proficiency in the second
language. He summarized his report with the following:

. . . This study, then, has reaffirmed the impor-
tance of attitude as one of the factors explaining
degree of proficiency a student achieves in learning
a second language. His attitude to speakers of the
language will have a great effect on how well he
learns. A person learns a language better when he
wants to be a member of the group speaking that
language. (p. 281)

In assessing the state of the art in second language
teaching methods, it is necessary to recover the baby that
was confused with the bath water as a result of the emergence
of the audio-lingual approach. Many practices termed "tra-
ditional" and condemned by proponents of the audio-lingual
approach are now being reconsidered as not impractical nor
illogical. The modern approaches presented in the litera-
ture represent practices from the traditional, audio-lingual,
and direct methods.

A middle-of-the-road position drawing the best from
each approach is proposed by several authorities. Belasco
(1969) presented an audio-lingual method combined with a
grammar-translation approach; he asserted the cognitive,
verbal behavior approach would guarantee nothing unless it
incorporated a primacy of listening and reading hypotheses.
Valette (1969) and Wardhaugh (1969a) both referred to a modi-
fied version of the polarized approaches, while Valdman
(1970) reflected a tenacity for the audio-lingual approach,
claiming it is the most dynamic language teaching method.
He has attributed the failures encountered by teachers to
disregard for the basic principles of the approach and sug-
gested that if it were used with strict adherence to the

original methods used during World War II it would prove suc-
cessful; furthermore, he rejected the comparisons made with
approaches having different goals and made a plea for research
comparing the audio-lingual and direct method, as they have
similar goals.

Bilingual schooling, as envisioned in Title VII
Guidelines, has as its ultimate goal that children, whether
monolingual in English or another language, will emerge edu-
cated, bilingual, biliterate, and bicultural. The corner-
stone of the total effort is second language teaching, yet
the methods being brought to bear in language programs are
not yet sufficiently developed to guarantee language learning
for its own sake. Bilingual schooling demands a higher level
of sophistication in language teaching where students will
use the new language as a medium of instruction. Many edu-
cators throughout the country have high hopes for the effects
of bilingual schooling on many of our pressing educational
problems. It behooves all persons involved to become conver-
sant with the literature on second language teaching methods
to prevent duplication of effort or rediscovery of discred-
ited approaches.

While searching for more humanistic processes and
defining more realistic objectives, educators should be aware
of a statement by Lado (1964):

> The urge to communicate, since man is social, is a
> force that increases language learning. The urge for
> fulfillment is a powerful force if language learning
> is shown to be a means. (p. 42)

Biliteracy

Respected authorities (Thonis 1970) have explained when literacy is developed in one language, decoding in a second language does not mean learning to read anew. The critical question in bilingual programs centers around the decision to introduce the child to reading in his native language. Such a decision implies knowledge of supportive evidence, awareness of a need to retrain teachers, a willingness to adapt and develop materials, and a commitment to a carefully articulated long-range program.

Knowledge of supportive evidence is given highest priority because unless the educators in bilingual programs are conversant with the literature and can interpret research findings to the parents, the decision to teach reading in the native language may be judged as "bandwagonism." To enlist the support of parents in these experimental programs, it is essential that bilingual staff be familiar with supportive research to develop a viable theory to support the experiment. In the minds of many uninformed sources, the sole reason for introducing reading in the native language comes from minority leaders' pressure on school authorities to effect change. Although this may well have been the incentive, coupled with the funding from Washington, educators must provide the community with sound theories as a basis for such a critical decision.

Ample evidence indicates that American schools are unsuccessful in teaching reading in English to non-English

speakers; current alternatives are to postpone reading in English until English speaking skills are developed or introduce reading in the native language. Nancy Modiano's study (1966) in Mexico provides concrete evidence that learning to read in the native language establishes a firm foundation for success in second language reading.

Experimental educators have noted achievement differences between children who enter American schools already literate in their tongue and those non-English speakers who are illiterate. A consensus has been found by this researcher in discussing this issue with experienced educators. The literate non-English speaker seems to have much less of a problem than the illiterate one. It seems logical, then, to many authorities to introduce the child to reading in his native tongue.

Andersson and Boyer (1969) summarized:

Teachers of non-English-speaking children are urged to lose no time in teaching the children to read and write in their mother tongue, and are urged to take all the time needed in an English reading-readiness program. (p. 39)

Most people who believe these things also believe that it follows that a child's mother tongue is the one in which he should first learn to read. The agreement is not universal, however, and among informed teachers three other factors are thought to require consideration: (1) the relative ease with which the mother tongue and the second-language writing systems can be acquired; (2) the cultural pattern of reading acquisition related to each of the two languages; and (3) the potential transfer--whether good or bad--to be expected from acquisition of one before the other. (pp. 104-105)

When the mother tongue under consideration is Spanish, there seems to be little question with respect to the validity

of introducing reading in the native tongue. It is reason-
able to assume that if teachers of reading in English have
found linguistic readers (those controlling phoneme-grapheme
correspondence) helpful in teaching the decoding process,
then the teaching of reading in Spanish must prove less
troublesome since the "fit" between sound and symbol is so
much better in Spanish than in English. This significant
difference between English and Spanish spelling systems is
the basis for the need to retrain teachers for Spanish bilin-
gual programs. The approaches in teaching reading in English
are based on the idiosyncrasies of the English language and
therefore should not be applied in total to the teaching of
reading in another language.

There are several reasons why the decision to teach
reading in the native language may not be considered wise,
namely, lack of qualified bilingual teachers, lack of exper-
tise, lack of community support, lack of appropriate mater-
ials. In the event that the decision is made to introduce
reading in English first, there are several considerations
which should be made. A young preliterate non-English speak-
ing student should be given systematic instruction in
developing audio-lingual skills in English. Thonis (1970)
has indicated that a well-planned program of listening com-
prehension and speaking fluency must precede the introduc-
tion to reading and writing English. Although there is a
consensus that the student not be asked to read anything
which he has not already learned to understand and speak,

there is disagreement with respect to the amount of time lag required between speaking and reading. One second language reading series, <u>Miami Linguistic Readers</u>, introduces the student immediately to the printed version of the speaking lesson.

Mackey (1965) has summarized the continuum in his statement:

> . . . Some courses are arranged so that the written form of a word or sentence is shown immediately after the spoken form is heard; other courses will want the learner to hear and speak the language for a couple of years before presenting it to him in print. (p. 233)

Introducing reading in English in a bilingual program does not imply, however, that the vernacular will not be taken to literacy. It simply reverses the order of presentation. In a bilingual program in which bilinguals literate in English will read in their native tongue as a second priority, there is no great investment of time necessary with respect to retraining teachers in new readiness approaches. However, teachers should be trained to introduce the literate non-English speaker to English print skillfully. Silent reading in English is a particularly dangerous exercise for literate non-English speakers who know the Roman alphabet. Such a student can decode the English print silently and keep himself occupied; however, if he were to read the lesson orally it would not be understood by the speaker of English because he is decoding English with a set of rules from another language.

The discussion thus far has treated the teaching of reading in the native language or the second language, assuming that the speech of the children was more or less the standard variety found in reading texts. If, however, the child's speech is a nonstandard dialect of the language in which he will learn to read, further considerations are necessary before designing the language arts program. Assuming that the languages in the bilingual program are Spanish and English, the following questions must be answered with respect to speakers of nonstandard Spanish:

1. Will audio-lingual instruction in SSD (Spanish as a Second Dialect) precede the introduction of reading if it is in standard Spanish?

2. Will audio-lingual instruction in SSC and ESL (English as a Second Language) precede the introduction of reading if it is in standard English?

3. Will materials be rewritten in the local dialect if reading is introduced in the native dialect with a transition to the standard language?

4. Will original materials be developed in the local dialect?

5. Will original dialect materials or language experience stories dictated by the students in dialect be spelled as in the standard dialect?

The questions listed were to be asked about a nonstandard dialect of Spanish; they apply equally when

asked about speakers of nonstandard English in bilingual programs.

Although there are authoritative statements to be found in the literature with respect to the teaching of reading in the local dialect in bilingual programs, the greatest source of experimentation is in the literature on nonstandard English dialects, most specifically Black English. It seems reasonable to this researcher to consider the body of information available on dialect teaching to investigate possible similarities of problems encountered in bilingual programs.

The theory proposed by many experts that learning to read in the native language while learning to speak English will more adequately insure success in learning to read English can easily be translated into a theory for a bidialectal approach. Simply stated, while students learn to read in their dialect they can learn to speak the standard version of their language as well as English as a Second Language. Since there is evidence of increased achievement in transferring from one language to another, as well as from a dialect to the standard, it seems possible that starting with the local non-English dialect with a gradual transfer to the standard language before reading in English might prove effective. The researcher has found no evidence of such experimentation.

Materials

Ulibarri (1970) stressed the need for materials that are relevant to bilingual objectives, curriculum, and learning activities. He pointed out that very few materials originate in Spanish, most materials coming from either translations or Spanish-speaking countries. Thus they are not usually close reflections of the child's socio-cultural milieu.

Bilingual materials must consider the different interests and attention spans which vary widely among these students and shold make such materials as flexible and diversified as possible. This diversification will allow teachers to offer a variety of instructional strategies.

These materials, in addition to reflecting the child's socio-cultural environment, should provide positive support for the child's concept of himself, instilling a sense of pride and respect for his cultural heritage.

Andersson and Boyer (1969) stated that student interest should be a primary concern in the selection of materials. In addition, recent advances in learning techniques should be incorporated into materials along with any improvements discovered through the incorporation of materials from other countries. Prereading materials should include a variety of toys, art supplies, and musical instruments. They added that parents should be included in the program and instructed in the program's activities to help their children at home.

The U.S.O.E., March, 1970, guidelines suggested six categories in the development of materials, which are:

1. Identification and review of existing materials

2. Materials useful in present format

3. Selection of adaptable materials

4. Assessment of need of materials not existing

5. Development of adaptable materials

6. Development of new materials

Each of these categories must be considered for each of the five components that U.S.O.E. identified:

1. Dominant language - language arts

2. Second language

3. Culture and heritage

4. Content

5. Other

Existing materials for bilingual programs can be grouped into the following categories:

1. Imported materials published outside the United States

2. Materials published in the United States in languages other than English

3. Materials developed in bilingual programs in languages other than English

A key issue concerning bilingual materials revolves around the issue of dialects. If an educator subscribes to the idea that the regional variety of a language he is dealing with in his school is probably different from that

language found in imported books, then he has two alternatives available to him. Either he does not accept foreign books as appropriate for his students because they do not represent the local dialect, or he decides to have curriculum writers adapt the materials for local use. Those educators who believe students should be schooled in a standard language regardless of the regional or social dialect they speak will feel very comfortable selecting books written in other countries. A strong argument favoring imported texts is that foreign books more accurately represent the culture. In other words, foreign books are necessary in a bilingual/ bicultural program; whereas American publications might be better suited for bilingual/monocultural projects.

The yet unresolved questions which are seriously debated among bilingual specialists regarding teaching in the local dialect can be outlined as follows and should be investigated:

1. Should materials for teaching reading in the foreign language be written in the local dialect?

2. Should content areas be taught using the local dialect as a medium of instruction?

3. Should curriculum materials in content areas be written in the local dialect?

4. Should materials written in the local dialect be used with English-speaking students in bilingual programs?

5. Should transitional materials be developed that

efficiently move the student from the local

dialect to the standard language?

6. Should there be a compromise using the local

dialect in the spoken language but the standard

language in written materials?

Importing materials not representative of the local

dialect conflicts with a recognized bilingual premise which

is that students learn more efficiently in their mother

tongue. But because of the shortage of biliterate curriculum

writers who are also dialectologists, this is not feasible

for most school districts.

Saville and Troike (1970) also noted that:

. . . if bilingual instruction is to be effective,
the preparation of materials and the organization of
the curriculum itself must rely heavily on information
about potential points of interference between the two
languages. (p. 12)

Thus it is necessary to base materials development on a con-

trastive analysis of the two languages used in the project.

They stated that:

. . . the whole point of contrastive analysis is
to determine what to teach and how much time to devote
to the various linguistic features so identified.
(p. 12)

Evaluation

Any goals set in a bilingual program must, because

of education's dynamic, constantly changing activity, be

reevaluated to reflect changes in the community and students.

Therefore, any evaluative process must include the community as well as the school.

Evaluation must be defined in behavioral terms both in short-range and long-range objectives.

Ulibarri (1970) divided these into three areas: the cognitive, the psycho-motor, and the affective domains. These goals, in relationship with the curriculum and teaching methods, reveal the importance of evaluation in a bilingual program.

Through needs assessment one might discover a language shift pattern in a community. Such a pattern would tell a director that proficiency in English would be one of the cognitive goals of the program.

A program could then be formulated in which specific goals are established for each grade level and these may be evaluated through standardized tests, interviews, observations, etc. The data collected can then be used to identify and improve various components in the project.

Specific psycho-motor goals should be established. For example, writing would fall in this area and levels of achievement could be established and measured. Again, these data could be used by the school and community to improve the program.

According to the U.S.O.E. guidelines (March 20, 1970) for Title VII projects, every program will include an evaluation component to facilitate revision of goals and changes in the projects' curriculum and teaching strategies. Such

information will also be used by the U.S.O.E. to ". . . iden-
tify which projects warrant continuation as models that can
be replicated." (p. 48)

Such data should assess all components in the proj-
ect, indicating both the level of achievement and the pro-
cesses used by both the teachers and administrators to
achieve these levels.

To facilitate such a process the guidelines indicate
five areas of evaluation.

The first one involves the assessment of performance
objectives that indicate a behavioral goal. Such data should
include the levels of performance, the means of measurement,
and conditions of measurement.

The second component should evaluate the instruments
of measurement, the tests, interviews, observations, and
interest inventories. If such instruments are developed by
the project, ". . . the performance objective must specify
the testing criteria which will be incorporated in the new
instrument." (p. 50)

The U.S.O.E. requires that baseline data for the
development of test instruments be included. This should
detail:

> . . . the complete evaluation schedule, the target
> populations to be examined, those responsible for arrang-
> ing and administering the measurements, and any condi-
> tions of measurement not specified within the objec-
> tives. (p. 51)

The fourth area of evaluation involves the techniques
used in analyzing the data. For example, the correlations

discovered from an analysis of data should be indicated, along with tests for the reliability of such analysis.

The reporting of the evaluation is the fifth area of consideration. The format, time, and recipients of information should be indicated, along with an evaluation of the effectiveness of providing such information in terms of enabling the people involved in the project to respond to the data.

The evaluation may be performed by the director and/ or other project personnel, or it may be contracted to a consulting firm or university.

The USOE expects an evaluation of the four functional components of a bilingual program: (1) community involvement, (2) the instructional component, (3) materials development, and (4) staff development.

On August 29, 1970, directors, evaluators, and auditors were invited to a conference in San Diego to increase the efficiency of the evaluation, to clarify the roles of evaluators and auditors, and to share information regarding test instruction appropriate for a bilingual program. During the three-day conference, evaluation models were presented and discussed. Time was allocated to persons with serious concerns regarding accountability to bring before the group problems which might be common to all. Because of the lack of sophistication on the part of the participants, during the conference complaints were frequently registered regarding the esoteric nature of the presentations. There

was considerable argument that the concerns of USOE pertain-
ing to evaluation and auditing were not the immediate con-
cerns of the participants. It was evident that directors,
evaluators, and auditors, as well as committee representatives,
were far more concerned about the instructional program, per-
sonnel training, and materials acquisition and development
than they were with evaluation and auditing. It is the
impression of this reviewer that these concerns are vital
and realistic and should be attended to by the USOE before
superimposing an unmanageable structure of research design
on bilingual programs which are, as yet, struggling to define
bilingual schooling as an educational concept.

Andersson and Boyer (1969) expressed the need for
evaluation, stating:

> . . . the great need is for the most advanced think-
> ing about evaluation to be communicated to the bilingual
> staff so that the statement of aims, the teaching and
> the testing may all be correlated. . . . Just how this
> is done should be carefully recorded and made available
> to others as needed. (p. 155)

Saville and Troike (1970) believed that such tests
must include a linguistic analysis of the student's language,
the cultural conditions affecting his achievement, and his
learning rate. These tests should be available to teachers
to make on-going evaluations of the student's progress. This
information will allow the teacher to make immediate adjust-
ments in grouping and rate of instruction.

Thomas Carter (1970) would add to a detailed linguis-
tic analysis a longitudinal study of the student's school

behavior and behavior after leaving school. He stated that without these or similar measures there will doubtless be a continuation of inadequate decisions based solely on subjective rather than objective analysis. To facilitate the transmission of this information, Carter asked that standardized master proposal forms and data-collection and evaluation procedures be developed by USOE.

Dr. Carter recommended that outside funds be withheld from districts that fail to comply with standardized evaluation procedures or fail to modify conditions assumed or found to be detrimental to Mexican-Americans. He went on to say that this should only be used as a last resort since, generally, such an action would be detrimental to Mexican-Americans and not to Anglos. As an alternative, Carter suggested that schools willing to develop innovative and experimental programs should be monetarily rewarded.

Dr. Stegeman (1969), the Assistant Superintendent in the San Diego City Schools, in his article "Evaluation in the Current Socio-Political Setting," believed that evaluation must be a constant process and must be able to change, procedurally, along with the program. Failure to accommodate program changes in the evaluation component will result, in his opinion, in invalid analysis. He stated that the primary evaluation designs are set up to reveal only secondary products (i.e. attitude of staff, smoothness of operation). Stegeman also emphasized the development of very precise behavioral objectives to facilitate the process of

determining the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of programs. To accommodate such an evaluation, he believed that more funds must be allocated to hire skilled staff or to train present staff. He stressed the need for long-term evaluation, which should carefully study the effects of the program on individuals rather than groups. All of this evidence should be presented in a readable and understandable manner, which the public can use in legislative and community forums. Such interpretive reports should be backed up by detailed data which can be made available when needed.

In conjunction with the ongoing evaluation, the Office of Education requires a pre- and post-audit of the evaluation report and project activities. To facilitate this, the auditor should have previous experience in this type of work, independence from the program, proximity to the project, and attendance at an Office of Education training institute. With this background, the auditor should, after reading the evaluator's report, visit the site, observing test procedures, classroom activities and sampling tests, observation schedules, materials, and curriculum to discover any discrepancies in specific evaluation instruments and to assess the evaluation procedures.

Furthermore, these on-site visitations should occur twice a year. Any inconsistencies should be reported to the project director and the evaluator so that they may supply the necessary materials. Five copies of the final report will be submitted to the USOE within 30 days of its receipt

by the project director, school board, superintendent, and project evaluator.

PART II

Self-Concept and School Achievement

In recent years many studies have been conducted to determine the relationship between self-concept and school achievement, particularly when the school achievement is not that which would be predictable for the student on the basis of his intellectual ability. In 1952, Barber (1952) compiled a detailed case history for each of 23 retarded readers to determine whether a common personality pattern could be established. She found that each child had immature age development, accompanied by anxiety about himself which predated his entering school. There was insecurity about his perception of himself in relation to other people.

Again, in 1955, a study (Reeder, 1955) was made in Texas which showed that children with low self-concepts achieved lower in comparison to their potential than the children with high self-concepts.

Two years later, Bodwin (1957) conducted a study with 300 subjects (100 with reading disability, 100 with arithmetic disability, and 100 with no educational disability) from the third and sixth grades. The subjects were given the Draw-A-Person Test. Achievement test scores were obtained for correlation. He found a positive and very

significant relationship existed between self-concept and
reading ability, and also arithmetic ability.

In the same year, Bruck (1957) also did a study in
Michigan to investigate the age and sex differences in the
relationship between self-concept and grade-point average.
He administered the Machover Draw-A-Person Test to 150 boys
and 150 girls from the third, sixth, and eleventh grades.
Grade-point averages were calculated and correlations were
established. He found that a positive and significant rela-
tionship existed between self-concept and grade-point average
on all grade levels. Sex differences were not consistent
for different ages.

Two years later, Robert Roth (1959) conducted a
study of college students enrolled in reading improvement
classes. He compared the progress made in these classes
with the self-concept of the students and found:

> The data in this study clearly indicated that not
> only as self-concept related to achievement, but that,
> in terms of their conceptions of self, individuals have
> a definite investment to perform as they do. With all
> things being equal, those who do not achieve, choose
> not to do so, while those who do achieve choose to do
> so. (p. 281)

Lumpkin attempted to find the relationship between
self-concept and achievement in reading. He matched 24
overachievers in reading with 25 underachievers in reading.
The matching was done on the basis of chronological age,
mental age, sex, and home background. He found that the
overachievers were viewed positively by themselves, their
teachers, and their peers. "The concept of self which the

individual accepts influences his behavior qualitatively and may determine the direction and degree of his expression in academic work as well as in his social relationships."

A study of the self-concept of bright underachieving high school students was conducted by Shaw (1960) using an adjective checklist. He found that the male high school underachievers, in describing themselves, more often marked the adjectives: immodest, reckless, relaxed, mischievous, argumentative, and restless. But the overachieving male high school students more often marked the adjectives: stable, realistic, optimistic, enthusiastic, reliable, clear think-ing, and intelligent.

Bruck and Brown (1962), in using the self-concept scale of the Machover Draw-A-Person Test, found positive and significant correlation between educational disability and immature self-concept.

Fifty-two first grade students from the University of Florida Laboratory School were studied by Combs (1962) through the use of interviews, observations, and a series of specially devised projective tests. He said, "Evidence sug-gests that a child's self-concept, and the perceptions he holds of himself in relationship to various aspects of his world are not only related to, but may be causal factors in his subsequent reading achievement."

The idea that self-concept might be causal was explored by Wattenberg (1964). He devised a self-concept test for the young child and administered it to beginning

kindergarten students. He retested the same children two and one-half years later when they were in the middle of the second grade. Reading tests were also given in the middle of the second garde. He found that "in general, the measure of self-concept and of ego strength taken at kindergarten were predictive of reading achievement two and one-half years later."

On the other hand, Schwarz (1967) conducted a study of elementary students in 1967, in which the intensive case studies of the seven subjects revealed no observable relationship between the child's self-concept and his achievement assessed by standardized tests. Schwarz conducted this study in Nebraska for the purpose of finding the effect of teacher approval on self-concept and achievement. It is difficult to attach a large amount of significance to a study in which only seven subjects were examined.

This is in contrast to a study done the same year in Pittsburgh with a much larger sample, which showed "high achieving boys and girls report significantly higher self-concepts than do low achieving boys and girls." (Farls, 1967)

Mohindra Gill (1969), working under the sponsorship of the American Educational Research Association, selected subjects from 1424 ninth grade students in five high schools in Toronto and grouped them according to discrepancies between predicted and actual levels of achievement. The Perceived-Self Scale was administered and correlations were

calculated. This study found that the pattern of achievement, defined in terms of discrepancies between predicted and actual levels of achievement, is significantly related to perceived self as inferred by the Perceived-Self Scale.

Brookover (1962) also found that "high-achieving groups have a significantly higher mean concept of ability than do low-achieving groups with comparable measured intelligence scores." (p. 73)

Factors Affecting the Self-Concept

Many studies have been done to determine the relationship between self-concept and various other factors. Sparling (1968) studied 135 children from third to eleventh grades in the University School in Ann Arbor, Michigan. He administered the Coopersmith self-esteem test and academic achievement tests. The results of these tests were statistically correlated with 26 personal, social, growth, and intellectual variables. He found significant correlations between self-esteem and flexibility of social climate, acceptance received, social climate index, absence of school anxiety, and mental health index.

Many researchers feel that the influence of home and parents is by far the most important factor relating to the self-concept. Ruth Wylie (1961), in her book The Self Concept, said:

All personality theorists who are concerned with constructs involving the self accord great importance to parent-child interaction in the development of the self-concept. This notion follows from such general

ideas as these: (a) The self-concept is a learned constellation of perceptions, cognitions, and values. (b) An important part of this learning comes from observing the reactions one gets from other persons. (c) The parents are the persons who are present earliest and most consistently. (p. 121)

Coopersmith (1967) conducted an intensive study of 85 children, in which he utilized results from previous clinical and laboratory studies of these children, along with questionnaires given to the children, questionnaires given to the mothers of the children, and an intensive interview with each mother. The results were carefully cross checked; then the subjects were grouped by categories: high self-esteem, medium self-esteem, and low self-esteem. Responses to each item on the questionnaire and in the interview were tabulated for each category. He found that there is a very high correlation (p<.001) between the self-esteem of the child and the degree of mother-child rapport. Also at this level was the correlation between the self-esteem of the child and the extent to which he tends to agree with the other members of the family. Coopersmith stated:

> The findings are all consistent, regardless of the instrument or source of information. They reveal that the mothers of children with high self-esteem are more loving and have closer relationships with their children than do the mothers of children with less self-esteem. The mothers of children with medium self-esteem tend to respond in a fashion that is generally similar to those of children with high self-esteem, with both groups markedly different from the mothers of those low in self-esteem. The greater acceptance of the child with high and medium self-esteem is manifested by interest, concern about companions, availability, and congenial joint activities. The child perceives and appreciates the attention and approval expressed by his mother and tends to view her as favoring and supportive. He also appears to interpret her interest and concern as an indication of his significance; basking in these

signs of his personal importance, he comes to regard himself favorably. (pp. 178-179)

The Coopersmith findings would be compatible with the Wattenberg (1964) study cited above, which indicated that the self-concept of beginning kindergarten students is predictive of later achievement.

The long-lasting effect of the parental influence is indicated by the results of a study done by Luck (1969) in Connecticut in 1969 with 152 white male subjects aged 27 to 64. He found that the self-esteem was associated with variables affecting the person since early childhood, such as the quality of relationship with the parents, the position occupied in the family structure, and the amount of consensus or dissensus to which they were exposed in relation to their parents.

In addition to parental influences, there are other factors which do appear to have an effect on the self-concept. Social class, as it relates to the disdavantaged child, has been examined in several pieces of research. The findings do not seem to be consistent or conclusive. Soares (1969) conducted a study using 500 subjects in grades four through eight. Two hundred twenty-nine of the subjects were disadvantaged (from families with less than $4000 per year income) and 295 were advantaged (from families with income over $7000 per year). An inventory using bipolar scales with four choices was given to both groups. This study found a higher percentage of positive personality traits

among the disadvantaged than among the advantaged students.
The advantaged seem to have more pressure and higher levels
of aspiration; therefore, they have a lower self-esteem if
they don't measure up.

This finding is related to the conclusion drawn by
Eisenberg (1967). He said, "Most of them [lower class chil-
dren] don't care whether they succeed, which is one defense
against the expectation that they will fail." (p. 9)

On the other hand, the Gillman (1969) study of 428
elementary students in five schools in the Lower Rio Grande
Valley found that the self-concept appears to be affected by
poverty, minority group status, language deficiencies, and
migration problems. Ziller (1967) also found that geo-
graphic mobility was associated with a general anxiety con-
cerning self-other relationships.

Gezi (1969) took a sample of 40 fifth and sixth grade
students from middle class background and 27 fifth and sixth
grade students from lower class background and gave each sub-
ject the Torrance Test for Creative Thinking, Figural Form A,
and a self-referent questionnaire regarding self-concept.
He found that the middle class group scored higher on self-
concept than the lower class group. However, the lower class
group scored significantly higher on all aspects of creativ-
ity than the middle class group.

Social acceptability within the peer group seems to
be closely related to the self-concept. Ziller (1962) inves-
tigated the relationship between the self-concept and the

social desirability of 50 sixth grade white children. Each student was given an adjective checklist to determine self-concept and each was asked to select the child in the class that he "would most like to take home with him," the one he would "like to have help him with his homework," the one he would "like to see chosen class president," and so forth. There was a very strong correlation between the number of adjectives a subject checked about himself and the number of times he was chosen by other members of his class. In fact, using a cutoff of 31 adjectives, 49 out of the 50 subjects would have been correctly categorized as highly chosen or unchosen.

The influence that reaction of others has on the self-concept was demonstrated by Videback (1960), when he set up an experiment with 30 students in college speech classes. All 30 of the subjects chosen had been rated by their professors as being above average and about equally qualified. The subjects were told that they were a part of a study "to see if men or women were better in certain forms of oral communication." Each subject read six poems. After each poem was read, an "evaluator" read comments about the subject's performance. Regardless of the objective quality of their performance, half the subjects received approving reactions from the "evaluator" and half received disapproving reactions. These reactions were standardized, prepared statements which the "evaluator" read as though reading his own comments. Before and after each subject read his poems,

he was given a 24-item self-rating scale. Eight items were regarding aspects criticized by the evaluator; eight were regarding aspects related to aspects covered by the evaluator but not covered by him. The other eight items related to communication in general. Thirteen of the 15 approval subjects and 14 out of the 15 disapproval subjects changed their ratings in the predicted direction.

In general, it would appear that the self-esteem is influenced to a much greater degree by parents, family, and the immediate environment than by social class or prestige in the community at large.

The Teacher's Relationship to the Student's Self-Concept

A large proportion of the young people now entering adulthood are burdened with anxiety, hostility, defensive attitudes toward themselves and others, feelings of guilt, inferiority, or other forms of self-disparagement and self-distrust. They struggle not only with the real dangers and thwartings in our troubled world but with unresolved childhood problems. (Jersild, 1952, p. 5)

The self is acquired. It is not ready-made. It develops as a person, with his inborn abilities and tendencies and all that is inherent in his make-up, meets up with the experiences of life. (Jersild, 1952, p. 16)

Staines (1958) conducted an experiment to determine whether a teacher who consciously attempts to improve the self-concept of her students can actually raise the self-concept of her students more than a teacher who is unaware of the self-concept, even though the two are equally successful academically. He found that with the teacher who attempted to improve self-concepts, students made significant

changes in two dimensions of the self, certainty and differentiation. Standardized tests showed that the two classes made about the same gains academically. Staines said, "Amongst the people likely to be most influential in determining the self-picture are teachers." (p. 97)

Davidson (1960) carried out an investigation to determine the relationship between the children's perceptions of their teachers' feelings toward them and their self-perception, school achievement, and behavior. The sample of 89 boys and 114 girls indicated that children's perceptions of their teachers' feelings toward them correlated positively and significantly with self-perception. The more positive the children's perception of their teachers' feelings, the better was their academic achievement and the more desirable their classroom behavior as rated by teachers. The girls generally perceived their teachers' feelings toward them as more positive than the boys did.

The Schwarz study (1967) referred to in the above section on self-concept and school achievement stated that:

> Teacher education programs that stress the importance of teacher-pupil interactions, both verbal and nonverbal, and their effect on pupils, will produce teachers who are more effective in terms of pupils' self-concepts than will traditional teacher education programs which emphasize "methods." (p. 108)

An experiment was conducted by Nichols (1968) in Indiana to determine changes that might occur in groups of children from culturally disadvantaged areas as a result of receiving tutoring by university students. There were no

significant differences found between gains made in self-concept by the experimental group (55 intermediate grade students) and the control group.

In a study in Texas in 1968, Coleman (1968) attempted to identify and reduce negative self-concepts prevalent in fourth, fifth, and sixth grade classes. He found that these negative self-concepts are identifiable and that proper teacher-pupil relationships could improve them.

Brookover (1966) found that positive communication from parents relative to the child's ability led to improvement in the child's self-perception, but such communication from school counselors did not have a significant effect.

Another study with counseling, conducted by Hugo (1969), utilizing six students in an experimental group in each of 15 different elementary schools, found no significant differences in self-concept as the result of group counseling experience.

After conducting a study in self-concept and school adjustment, Williams (1968) concluded:

> It should be the business of the school to identify children with derogatory self-apprisal and to embark on a judicious program of amelioration. Few factors are more fundamental to a child's success and happiness than his evaluation and acceptance of himself. (p. 480)

Gillman (1969), in the study cited earlier, recommended: "The development of positive self-concept should be a major objective of every educational program concerned with development of productive citizens."

People develop feelings that they are liked, wanted,
acceptable and able from having been liked, wanted,
accepted and from having been successful. One learns
that he is these things, not from being told so but only
through the experience of being treated as though he
were so. . . . People become adequate; they are not born
that way. . . . The self is learned. What is learned
can be taught. We could not avoid affecting the self if
we wanted to. We may ignore the self in our teaching.
We cannot, however, escape the fact of our influence
upon the self or our ultimate responsibility with
respect to whether the effects of schooling are posi-
tive or negative. (Combs and others, 1962, pp. 84,
97, 101)

Summary

This survey of research related to the self-concept

shows that studies tend to indicate the following: 1) The

self-concept is measurable. 2) The self-concept if fairly

constant. 3) The self-concept is related to academic

achievement. 4) The self-concept is related to the degree

of love, acceptance, respect, and trust received from the

parents. 5) The self-concept may be affected by the condi-

tions of poverty, language difficulties, and migration.

6) The self-concept is affected by the reactions of signifi-

cant others. 7) Teachers may have an influence on the self-

concept.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Setting

This study was conducted in a Midwestern city with a population of 150,000 inhabitants. In the fall of 1970 there were approximately 32,500 pupils enrolled in the schools of the city. Of this number 2,853 were pupils whose dominant language was not English. The district Ethnic Count Report for 1970 indicates that Blacks were the largest minority, 12.5 per cent, followed by the Spanish-surnamed population, 6 per cent of the total school population. Racial and ethnic count by school shows that Spanish-surnamed population, though somewhat concentrated in one geographic area of the city, were represented in all of the city's secondary schools. Reports for the years 1967, 1968, 1969, and 1970 show that the Spanish-surnamed population was the fastest growing minority in the district and that the white population was decreasing slightly each year.[1]

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[1]Ethnic Count Report, 1969-70 School Year; September 26, 1969 -- June 12, 1970.

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Definition of the Population Sample

The universe for this study was the seventh grade Spanish-surnamed student population in all five junior high schools of the district in 1969-70. Students selected for the study were those who were known to be of Mexican descent. Eliminated were Spanish-surnamed students of other Latin-American origin, such as Puerto Rico or Cuba. Inadequate school records and absences during testing were factors in eliminating students for whom other data were available. In the two treatment schools, 45 students were selected from the 86 originally enrolled in the bilingual/bicultural program. In the three schools that made up the comparison sample, all Mexican-American seventh grade students for whom complete data were available were included in the study, a sample of 49 students.

TABLE 3.1.--Sample of students in the study by group and sex.

Sex	Treatment Group	Nontreatment Group
Male	27	27
Female	18	22
Total	45	49

The racial and ethnic count conducted by the school district shows a higher concentration of Spanish-surnamed students in the two treatment schools than in the comparison

schools. However, Spanish-surnamed students are represented in all of the district's junior high schools.

TABLE 3.2.--Racial and ethnic composition of schools in the sample by percentage.

Junior High School	% Caucasian	% Negro	% Spanish- Surnamed	% American Indian	% Other
A*	83	8.0	9.0	0	0
B*	80	9.0	10.0	0	1
C	84	12.0	3.0	0	1
D	83	14.5	2.5	0	0
E	81	14.0	4.0	0	1

*Schools A and B were treatment schools.

The Junior High School Bilingual/Bicultural Program

In the spring of 1969 the district made application for funds under ESEA Title VII P.L. 89-10, the Bilingual Education Act for the junior high school bilingual program. The proposal was accepted by the United States Office of Education[1] and funds were granted for a five-year pilot program. The program included four major components: instruction, material development, staff development, and community involvement. Of concern to the study are the Spanish social

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[1] United States Office of Education, Division of Plans and Supplementary Centers, 400 Maryland Avenue, Washington, D. C. 20202. Project Number 32-0271.

studies classes, the English as a Second Language classes, and the material development component.

Spanish Social Studies

The bilingual social studies program taught in Spanish at the secondary school level had two cardinal objectives. The first was to give students the opportunity to maintain and develop the necessary skills for a command of general, standard Spanish. Acquisition of these skills was considered to be indispensable to anyone working toward a bilingualism with economic and personal value. In view of this objective, it was of primary importance that the student become aware of the differences between a general and a regional dialect, as well as between the various levels or styles of the language. With practice, students would learn to use the dialect and the style appropriate to the circumstances. The study of social studies in the student's native language would also strengthen his knowledge of concepts and generalizations related to the subject, as well as improvement of his study skills.

The second objective of major importance was that the program strive to offer the Mexican-American student the opportunity to know as much as possible about his world, and also about pertinent present and past relations that he has with the cultural, social, and historical legacy of the extensive Hispanic world.

With this, the student would have a valid sense of
what it means to be a Mexican-American. He would know and
understand himself better; he would understand his experi-
ences and contributions within the American society more
clearly and objectively. If he came to feel proud of being
a Mexican-American, it would not be unfounded, but solidly
based.

Nevertheless, it was not the intention of the program
to impose upon the student certain attitudes and values, but
to make him conscious of different perspectives of life and
ways of being. He, personally, would be at liberty to accept
or reject intelligently certain attitudes, values, and cus-
toms.

Materials Development

The objective of the material development component
of the program was to prepare a text specifically directed
to the Mexican-American student of the Midwest. The teacher-
writer team composed of three Mexican-American teachers did
not attempt to abridge or review material in existence for
students of Spanish as a foreign language. It was felt that
level of difficulty and the orientation of these texts made
them inadequate for bilingual Mexican-American students.
Effort was directed to the selection of topics and develop-
ment of lessons that would be explicitly related to the pres-
ent and future of the students in the bilingual program.
The teachers' knowledge of the students as a result of their

interaction and experience with them in the classroom was considered a valuable asset in the production of educational material relevant to the students. The criteria for material development and a sample lesson are presented in Appendix A.

Included in the proposal as general overall goals of the program are the improvement of academic achievement and the change toward a more positive self-concept on the part of participating students.

English as a Second Language

Students enrolled in the bilingual/bicultural program received one class period of instruction daily in the Spanish social studies program. These students were also enrolled in a special English as a Second Language class for one period a day.

This program differed from the regular English curciculum operational for all other seventh grade students in the district in the following ways:

1. Emphasis was given to the development and strengthening of oral language skills, before students engaged in reading and writing activities.

2. Instruction was individualized, in that each student's linguistic strengths and weaknesses were assessed through the use of diagnostic tests and appropriate instructional experiences were provided.

3. Instruction for correcting language interference problems of students whose dominant language was Spanish was provided.

4. Materials were selected for their relevance to the linguistic and cultural orientation of the students.

5. Non-English-speaking students were provided systematic, sequential instruction in the English language structure and phonetic system. ESL methodology emphasizing linguistically structured materials and transformations was used.

6. The teachers in this part of the bilingual program were monolingual English speakers, especially trained in English as a Second Language methodology.

The Comparison Junior High School Program

Students selected for the comparison sample were drawn from three nontreatment schools. As stated earlier in this chapter, they were Mexican-American seventh grade students enrolled in regular social studies and English classes. Socio-economic data and test scores on mental ability available from school records were used as a basis for comparability with the treatment group.

The social studies curriculum in the comparison schools differed from the treatment classes in the language of instruction used and in content. However, both groups were taught similar study skills.

The traditional English program differed from the English as a Second Language classes primarily in methods of instruction and materials used. Teachers in the comparison schools were not trained in ESL methodology nor in contrastive phonology.

Source of the Data

The criteria used for the selection of variables in this study were limited by two rather pragmatic considerations: relation of the variable to the treatment, and possibility of collecting data relative to a specific variable.

While many other variables could have been added to this study, available data collection procedures limited the variables considered. The variables used were: academic achievement in Paragraph Meaning, Social Studies, and Language; general self-concept of ability; level of education of the parents; occupation of the parents; intelligence; and sex.

Academic Achievement

The Stanford Achievement Test (advanced) is accepted as a valid criterion for the stated objectives of the district's curricular program and was administered to all seventh grade students. Scores from the sections Paragraph Meaning, Social Studies, and Language were used as the measure of academic achievement in this study.

Intelligence

The district's standardized testing program uses the Otis-Lennon Mental Ability Test, Intermediate Form J. This test was selected because of its correlation with the Stanford Achievement Test.

The reliability of the instruments is discussed fully in the Manual for Administration of the Otis-Lennon Mental Ability Test (1967) and the Stanford Achievement Test, Technical Supplement (1966).

There is considerable controversy as to validity of standardized tests when used with minority group populations. However, for the purposes of this study the tests used were deemed valid, inasmuch as the samples compared were both from the same ethnic background.

Socio-Economic Status

The SES index used in this study was based on school record data. At the time the parents enrolled a child in the system, the educational level and current occupation of the parents were obtained. In cases where this information was missing or not current, parents were contacted to update the information. Where the place of employment was recorded in place of type of occupation, parents were contacted for the correct data. The categories for the variables "level of education" and "occupation of the parents" are shown in Appendix B. No attempt was made to classify the families into social class levels.

General Self-Concept of Ability

A part of this study concerns the possible relation of the bilingual/bicultural program to academic self-concept. The instrument deemed most appropriate for this measure was the General Self-Concept of Ability Scale developed by Brookover (1962). A copy of this scale is found in Appendix C.

Sex

Provisions were made in the data collection to analyze the data alone on the basis of sex differences. While not a formal hypothesis of this study, the possibility of different reactions to the bilingual/bicultural program by boys and girls was considered.

Design of the Study

The design of this study is pre-experimental or exploratory, described by Campbell and Stanley (1966) as the Static Group Comparison design. This is a design in which one group (0_1) which has experienced a special treatment (X) is compared to another group (0_2) which has not, for the purpose of establishing the effect of the treatment.

$$X \underline{\quad} \underline{\quad} \frac{0_1}{0_2}$$

The fact that there is no formal means of certifying that the groups would have been equivalent had it not been for the X

is indicated in the diagram by the dashed lines separating the two groups.

The intent of this correlational design is to provide a preliminary survey of the hypotheses. If a high correlation is found between the bilingual/bicultural treatment and higher mean differences in academic achievement and self-concept of ability, the hypotheses can then be judged as valid for true experimental manipulation.

The Hypotheses

Major Hypothesis: There will be no difference in the mean group scores on the Stanford Achievement Subtests, Social Studies, Paragraph Meaning, and Language; and the General Self-Concept of Ability Scales between Mexican-American seventh grade students in a bilingual/bicultural program and Mexican-American seventh grade students in a traditional school program.

Subhypothesis A: There is no difference in the group mean score in reading comprehension achievement as measured by the Stanford Achievement Subtest, Paragraph Meaning between the treatment group and the comparison group.

Subhypothesis B: There is no difference in the group mean score in language as measured by the Stanford Achievement Subtest, Language between the treatment group and the comparison group.

Subhypothesis C: There is no difference in the group mean score in social studies as measured by the Stanford Achievement Subtest, Social Studies between the treatment group and the comparison group.

Subhypothesis D: There is no difference in the group mean score in academic self-concept as measured by the General Self-Concept of Ability Scale between the treatment group and the comparison group.

The level of confidence for the rejection of all hypotheses was .05.

Statistical Model

As a method for controlling possible differences between the treatment group and the comparison group in achievement and self-concept of ability where there was not random assignment of the subjects, the multivariate analysis of covariance model was chosen. This type of analysis allows for statistical control of differences which might exist in the two groups of the sample before experimental condition or treatment is begun. Because the two groups in the sample were in preassembled classes, no random assignment of students to treatment and nontreatment groups was possible.

Summary

The study of the effects of a bilingual/bicultural instructional program on the achievement and academic self-concept of Mexican-American junior high school students

necessitated the selection of a comparison sample. Mexican-American students enrolled in three nontreatment schools were selected and data related to their academic ability and socio-economic status were collected for use as covariates in the study.

The experimental variable was instruction in social studies taught in Spanish, instruction in English as a Second Language, and the use of specially prepared material developed to enhance the student's self-concept and knowledge of his cultural and historical heritage. Teachers in the bilingual program were Mexican-American. The comparison group was enrolled in regular classes, and was taught the standard curriculum in language and social studies by teachers who were not bilingual and not specifically trained in ESL methodology.

Data were collected from school records and personal interviews to determine level of education and current occupation of the parents, as well as the language spoken at home.

The instruments selected for the study were the Stanford Achievement Test (advanced); the Otis-Lennon Mental Ability Test, Intermediate Form J; and the General Self-Concept of Ability Scale.

One major null hypothesis was made concerning the relationship of the treatment to the four dependent variables combined. Four null subhypotheses concerning the

achievement outcomes of each of the dependent variables were also tested.

A design described by Campbell and Stanley (1966) as the Static Group Comparison was used, inasmuch as the pre-assembled groups used in the study did not permit random assignment of the population to treatment and nontreatment groups.

To control statistically for prior differences in the two groups, the multivariate analysis of covariance was selected as the statistical model. The group mean scores on I.Q. and SES were held as covariates. The dependent variables were the group mean scores on Paragraph Meaning, Social Studies, and Language from the Stanford Achievement Test (advanced). The General Self-Concept of Ability Scale was administered to measure academic self-concept, the fourth dependent variable.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

In the analysis of the data collected for this study, school achievement and academic self-concept were treated as dependent variables. This was based on the assumption that the bilingual/bicultural instructional program would affect these two areas of the student's school experience. Information regarding socio-economic status and the mental ability of the students was treated as associated variables. School achievement data were collected from scores on the Stanford Achievement Subtests, Social Studies, Paragraph Meaning, and Language. Data concerning self-concept were taken from scores on the General Self-Concept of Ability Scale. In the multivariate analysis of covariance the group mean scores on the above tests were treated as the dependent variables, with socio-economic status and I.Q. held as covariates.

Findings of the Study

The major hypothesis tested was: There will be no difference in the mean group scores on the Stanford Achievement Subtests, Social Studies, Paragraph Meaning, and Language; and the General Self-Concept of Ability Scale

between Mexican-American seventh graders enrolled in a
bilingual/bicultural program and Mexican-American seventh
graders in a traditional program.

The mean scores on the above tests by group for
males, females, and combined are presented in Table 4.1.
The result of the multivariate analysis of variance is shown
in Table 4.2.

TABLE 4.1.--Mean scores on <u>Stanford Achievement Subtests,
Paragraph Meaning, Social Studies, and Language</u>; and <u>General Self-Concept of Ability Scale</u> by treatment and sex.

Group	Sex	Paragraph Meaning	Social Studies	Language	Self-Concept
Treatment	Male	20.08	34.54	73.00	42.12
	Female	23.32	35.47	77.95	24.95
	Combined*	21.47	34.93	75.09	24.47
Non-treatment	Male	20.26	28.74	64.22	21.37
	Female	22.27	32.27	73.14	22.23
	Combined*	21.16	30.32	68.22	21.76

*Combined mean score for males and females.

TABLE 4.2.--Multivariate analysis of variance.

Source	df	F	P<	
Sex	1	1.40	.24	NS
Treatment	1	6.30	.01*	
S x T	1	.47	.76	NS

*Significant at P<.01.

There were no differences in the analysis between the sexes nor was there significant interaction between sex and treatment. The F-test for significance of the treatment with 1 degree of freedom was 6.30, significant at P less than .01, below the .05 level selected for all F-ratios in the study. This indicates that statistically significant differences exist between the treatment and nontreatment groups in achievement and self-concept as measured by the Stanford Achievement Subtests, Social Studies, Paragraph Meaning, and Language; and the General Self-Concept of Ability Scale. The mean scores in Table 4.1 indicate that these differences favored the treatment group.

The null hypothesis was therefore rejected on the basis of the findings.

Subhypotheses

A. The first subhypothesis tested was: There will be no difference in the group mean scores on the Stanford Achievement Subtest, Social Studies between the treatment and the nontreatment groups.

The mean scores on social studies for males, females, and combined are shown in Table 4.1. The results of the univariate analysis of variance are listed in Table 4.3.

There was no significant difference in the analysis between the sexes nor was there significant interaction between sex and treatment. The F-test for significance of the treatment with 1 degree of freedom was 9.34, significant

at P less than .01. This was below the .05 level selected for all F-ratios in this study. This indicates statistically significant differences between the treatment and nontreatment groups on achievement in social studies as measured by the Stanford Achievement Subtest, Social Studies. The difference favored the treatment group. Students in the program had a mean score 4.61 points higher than the comparison group. The null hypothesis was rejected on the basis of the findings.

TABLE 4.3.--Univariate analysis of variance for social studies.

Source	df	F	P <	
Sex	1	.39	.53	NS
Treatment	1	9.34	.01*	
S x T	1	.29	.59	NS

*Significant at P<.01.

B. The second subhypothesis tested was: There will be no difference in the group mean scores on the Stanford Achievement Subtest, Paragraph Meaning between the treatment and nontreatment groups.

The mean scores on paragraph meaning for males, females, and combined are shown in Table 4.1. The results of the univariate analysis of variance are shown in Table 4.4.

TABLE 4.4.--Univariate analysis of variance for paragraph meaning.

Source	df	F	P <	
Sex	1	1.20	.28	NS
Treatment	1	.20	.65	NS
S x T	1	.74	.39	NS

No significant differences were found in the analysis between the treatment and nontreatment groups on achievement in paragraph meaning as measured by the Stanford Achievement Subtest, Paragraph Meaning. The F-test for significance of the treatment with 1 degree of freedom was .20, not significant at P less than .05, the level chosen for all F-ratios in this study. No differences were found between the sexes, nor was there significant interaction between sex and treatment.

The null hypothesis was retained on the basis of the findings as measured by the Stanford Achievement Subtest, Paragraph Meaning.

C. The third subhypothesis stated: There will be no difference in the group mean scores on the Stanford Achievement Subtest, Language between the treatment and the nontreatment groups.

Mean scores on language for males, females, and combined are presented in Table 4.1. The results of the univariate analysis of variance are listed in Table 4.5.

TABLE 4.5.--Univariate analysis of variance for language.

Source	df	F	P <	
Sex	1	4.31	.04*	
Treatment	1	9.57	.01**	
S x T	1	.30	.59	NS

*Significant at P .04.

**Significant at P .01.

The analysis of variance for language indicated no significant interaction between sex and treatment. There was, in this case, a slight difference between the scores on language for boys and girls in the study. Girls had a mean score on language 13.87 points higher than the boys in the population sample.

The F-test for significance of the treatment with 1 degree of freedom was 9.57, significant at P less than .01. This is below the .05 level chosen for all F-ratios in the study. This indicates statistically significant differences between the treatment and nontreatment groups on achievement in language, as measured by the Stanford Achievement Subtest, Language. The difference favored the students in the bilingual/bicultural program. Students in the program had a mean score of 6.87 points higher than students in the traditional program. The null hypothesis was therefore rejected on the basis of the findings.

D. The fourth subhypothesis stated that: No differences will exist between the group mean scores on academic self-concept as measured by the General Self-Concept of Ability Scale between the treatment and the nontreatment groups.

The mean scores on self-concept for males, females, and combined are presented in Table 4.1. The results of the univariate analysis of variance are listed in Table 4.6.

TABLE 4.6.--Univariate analysis of variance for self-concept.

Source	df	F	P <	
Sex	1	1.24	.27	NS
Treatment	1	9.83	.01*	
S x T	1	.01	.92	NS

*Significant at P<.01.

There was no difference in the analysis between the sexes, nor was there significant interaction between sex and treatment. The F-test for significance of the treatment with 1 degree of freedom was 9.83, significant at P less than .01. This was well below the .05 level chosen for all F-ratios in this study. Statistically significant differences were found between the students in the bilingual/bicultural program and the comparison group on academic self-concept as measured by the General Self-Concept of Ability Scale. The differences favored the students in the

program. Students in the program had a mean score of 2.71 points higher than the students in the regular school program. The null hypothesis was rejected on the basis of the findings as measured by the General Self-Concept of Ability Scale.

Summary

Within the basic framework of this study and the population sample selected, the hypotheses tested provided certain insight as to the relationship of the bilingual/bicultural instructional program and school achievement and academic self-concept of Mexican-American seventh grade students.

In the multivariate analysis of covariance it was found that when the Stanford Achievement Subtests, Social Studies, Paragraph Meaning, and Language; and the General Self-Concept of Ability Scale were used as the dependent variables to measure school achievement and academic self-concept, there were differences in the group mean scores between the students in the program and students in the comparison group. These differences favored the students in the bilingual/bicultural program.

The univariate analysis of variance indicated that differences occurred between the group mean scores in social studies, language, and academic self-concept, but no difference was found in the test for paragraph meaning.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS,

AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

Educators, parents, and community groups are seeking new and innovative ways to provide more equitable educational opportunities for America's Spanish-speaking population. Since it is generally accepted that a major obstacle to educational achievement among students from this population is the differences in language and cultural background between themselves and the schools, emphasis is being given to bilingual/bicultural school programs.

Although much has been written in fields directly related to bilingual education, a review of the literature has found few studies on the effect of bilingual/bicultural programs on school achievement and academic self-concept of Spanish-speaking students. However, the literature does reveal several basic constructs related to the school achievement and self-concept of bilingual students. It is evident that students from bilingual backgrounds lack essential communication skills and this has an adverse effect upon their achievement, as measured by standardized tests.

Bilingual students are culturally different from other, mono-
lingual students and demonstrate that the values held in the
homes are different from those held in the community as a
whole. These students may have somewhat higher potentiali-
ties than monolingual students from a similar environment,
but may not be encouraged by their cultural background to
value certain personality characteristics which contribute
to school achievement in traditional schools. It is also
evident from the literature that the student's self-concept
may be affected by the conditions of poverty, language dif-
ficulties, and migration; and that teachers may have an
influence on the self-concept.

The purpose of this study was to probe the relation-
ship of a bilingual/bicultural school program and a tradi-
tional program to the school achievement and academic self-
concept of Mexican-American students. The premise held was
that Mexican-American students who were taught subject mat-
ter in their native language for a portion of the school day
and received systematic, sequential instruction in English
as a Second Language would achieve greater and have more
positive self-concepts of their ability to achieve in school
than a similar group of Mexican-American students in a reg-
ular school program.

The design of this study was descriptive. Pre-
existing groups were compared on their mean post-test scores
on achievement in social studies, reading, language, and
academic self-concept. Socio-economic status and scores on

a test of mental ability were used as covariates in the statistical treatment of the data. As stated in the limitations of the study in Chapter I and the design of the study in Chapter III, the results of this study cannot be generalized beyond the population used in the study.

The results of the testing have been presented fully in Chapter IV, and a brief summary of these findings will serve here. Mexican-American seventh grade students in the bilingual/bicultural program did, in fact, score significantly higher on the Stanford Achievement Test of social studies and language than did the comparison sample. There were no significant differences found between the two groups on the test of paragraph meaning. On the measure of academic self-concept, significant differences were found between the treatment group and the nontreatment group. The differences were in favor of the students in the bilingual/bicultural program.

Conclusions

The following conclusions are set forth within the limitations of this study and within the framework of the bilingual/bicultural program, and cannot be generalized beyond the population sample of the study. Several valid conclusions are suggested as a result of this study. Although it cannot be stated that the cause for the differences found was the direct effect of the treatment, it can be said that Mexican-American seventh grade students enrolled

in the bilingual/bicultural program did significantly better in school achievement than did Mexican-American seventh grade students in the traditional program.

The fact that no significant differences were found between the two groups on the <u>Stanford Achievement Test,</u> <u>Paragraph Meaning</u> may be attributable to the emphasis placed on oral language development in the English as a Second Language component of the bilingual program.

It can be concluded that students in the treatment group had significantly more positive self-concepts of their ability to succeed in school than did students in the comparison sample, when measured by the <u>General Self-Concept of Ability Scale.</u>

The results also indicate that differences in all areas of the study remain the same for both boys and girls. It can be concluded that there were no differences in reaction to the bilingual/bicultural program by boys and girls.

Implications

The relationship between the schools and the Spanish-speaking community is ambiguous. Education is important to the parents, who generally wish to support the school out of a traditional respect for the authority which it represents. However, parents, particularly those of minimal acculturation, find it difficult to do so for the school is a foreign world--an Anglo world--with which they often are unable to communicate; the school, in turn, has made little effort to encourage

them. Their confusion and frustrations are often transmitted
to their children, who, caught up in a cultural conflict, are
ambivalent in their feelings about school and home. While
Spanish-speaking parents and children submit to the school
as an institution of authority, they see the curriculum and
instruction as largely irrelevant to the worlds of both
their personal and cultural experiences and thus conclude
that, in its present form, the traditional educational sys-
tem cannot provide a meaningful education for them. Some
schools, however, are attempting to bridge the gap of under-
standing with the parents and the gap in comparative
achievement of Spanish-speaking children by establishing
bilingual/bicultural school programs.

Yet the problems of bilingual/bicultural education
are of such magnitude and complexity that educators cannot
expect them to be resolved through quick, simple measures.
The U. S. Congress has provided the framework and the funds
for new and innovative programs to meet the educational
needs of the nation's cultural and linguistic minorities.
There are those who claim that this is too little, too late;
that the schools are incapable of meaningful change.

The results of this study seem to indicate, however,
that when Mexican-American students are taught culturally
relevant material in their native language for a portion of
the school day, by teachers from their own ethnic group, and
are given special instruction in learning English, they tend

to have greater achievement and more positive self-concepts
of their ability to achieve.

The implications for change are great. If schools
can improve the achievement of Mexican-American students and
maintain and enhance their knowledge of their native lan-
guage, then perhaps the concept of a multi-ethnic education
model can be developed that would embrace the idea of a cul-
turally democratic school system.

Recommendations

The findings and conclusions of this study point to
the need for experimental manipulation of the hypotheses
tested in this descriptive study. Such an experimental study
should control the conditions so as to determine if the dif-
ferences observed in the present study were, in fact, the
results of the bilingual/bicultural program. There is a
need also to determine which of the many variables account
for the differences. Would the English as a Second Language
program alone account for gains in English and social
studies? What effect does the reinforcement of learning in
their native language have on achievement of Spanish-speaking
students? What is the effect, if any, on the self-concept
of Mexican-American students as a result of culturally rele-
vant materials taught by Mexican-American teachers?

Finally, it is recommended that the bilingual/bicul-
tural program be expanded to develop a model of multi-ethnic
education that would prepare all students to function in a

pluralistic society. There is no doubt that the issues being raised today by many ethnic parents, students, and teachers differ substantially from the traditional concerns of educators. Minority parents, students, and teachers are now questioning the legitimacy of the educational system. Their concerns are not to integrate into a basically dysfunctional educational system, but rather to work toward the destruction of its oppressive qualities and toward the creation of a system which is directed toward preparation for living in harmony with man and nature. Such a goal can be achieved only through entirely new, comprehensive forms of education based upon radically different values. It is in the best interests and also the responsibility of a developing pluralistic society to encourage and support efforts that will produce capable, confident, fully participating members knowledgeable of their ethnic heritage, who are ready to meet the challenge of a changing society.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

CRITERIA FOR MATERIAL DEVELOPMENT

AND SAMPLE LESSON

APPENDIX A

CRITERIA FOR MATERIAL DEVELOPMENT

1. <u>Positive Student Self-Concept</u>. When writing lessons, we should always refer positively to the Hispano-American. By emphasizing the contributions and achievements of Hispano-Americans both individually and collectively, the student will become freed from the many stereotypes that influence the way he thinks of himself. In other words, we should ultimately gear the lessons to improve the students' self-concepts.

2. <u>Reasoning Process</u>. We should concentrate on beginning within the student the intellectual process of reasoning; weighing both sides of an issue before arriving at decisions or judgements. In view of the social, economic, and political pressures already at work on the Hispano-American student, it becomes even more important than with the average student at the junior high level to encourage him to think and reflect rather than to repeat lesson material verbatim. We can do this by presenting thought questions so that the student does not give a right or wrong answer, but rather a thoughtful answer showing he is thinking and not memorizing. Hopefully, once this intellectual process has begun, it will transcend the classroom and become an automatic reaction of the students in practice.

In employing new ideas, students should also be able to retain what they have learned. The concept of thought questions should continue consistently throughout the lessons; however, it also seems valid to include a question or series of questions to measure if the material was easily understandable or too difficult. This process of reiteration can be translated as an exercies of "summarize in your own words, the meaning of . . ." or a paraphrase exercise. This technique would hopefully increase student reading comprehension as well as apply the material.

3. <u>Student Learning Level</u>. We should write the material so that it is on the student's level and in language that he can understand. Basing this criterion on the theory that a child can be taught any concept at any stage of development providing it is readily comprehensible either concretely or verbally, we should develop material that is clear, interesting, and within the student's capacity. In translating this into practice, we should bear the following points in mind:

    1. In general, Hispano-American students have probably had a limited background of knowledge in grade school; therefore:

        a. Are all the major terms and ideas defined and explained either by footnotes, in context, or in a vocabulary-idea study?

      b.   Are the ideas presented in the lesson rein-
forced by concrete models, examples, illus-
trations, etc.?

   2. These students do not always share our interests
or views on what is important to learn; there-
fore:

      a.   Is the lesson material relevant to today?

      b.   Is the material written in a lively, inter-
esting style?

4. **Teacher Sensitivity.** We should sensitize ourselves to
the students' responses to the lesson material. Only
by becoming sensitive to the positive and negative feed-
back of the students can we hope to improve upon future
lessons. Perhaps at some point we should ask for a stu-
dent evaluation of the lessons. What did he enjoy?
What interested him? What method of presentation helped
him to learn the material more easily? When we have
done this, we can revise our criteria to the benefit of
the student and improve our approach to lesson selection,
writing style, etc.

LOS AZTECAS

Propósitos

1. El alumno hará un reporte oral o escrito en español o en inglés sobre los aztecas como actividad culminante después de la lectura.

2. El alumno identificará cierta relación entre sus padres y los aztecas si ellos son de descendencia mexicana.

3. Los alumnos identificarán y reconocerán a Cuauhtémoc como un líder azteca, defensor de su cultura.

4. Después de las lecturas, el alumno podrá explicar oralmente el choque cultural entre los aztecas y los españoles.

5. El alumno nombrará cinco objetos que puede encontrar en los mercados pero que son de los tiempos de los aztecas.

6. El alumno podrá decir en qué parte de México y en qué siglo vivieron los aztecas.

7. Acerca de los aztecas, él podrá describir su orden social, su mercado, su migración y el efecto que tuvo un mito en ellos.

¿QUE TANTO SABES?

Llena los espacios con las palabras que completen las

oraciones correctamente:

1. Los indios que dominaban casi todo el centro de México

    antes de la conquista eran los _____.

    a. los mayas   c. los toltecas

    b. los chichimecas   d. los aztecas

2. El emperador de estos indios se llamaba _____.

    a. Quetzalcoatl   c. Cuauhtémoc

    b. Huitzilopochtli   d. Moctezuma

3. El conquistador español que puso fin a ese gran

    imperio fue _____.

    a. Francisco Pizarro   c. Cabeza de Vaca

    b. Hernán Cortés   d. Cristóbal Colón

4. Nos referimos a la religión, la lengua, las costumbres

    y la manera de ser de los miembros de una sociedad

    cuando hablamos de su _____.

    a. organización   c. cultura

    b. política   d. economía

5. Los indios adoraban a muchos _____.

    a. dioses   c. guerreros

    b. templos   d. sacerdotes

6. En los tiempos de los conquistadores, España era, de

    todos los países del mundo, el más _____.

    a. pobre   c. poderoso

    b. débil   d. atrasado

7. Otra cultura avanzada de México fue la de los _____.

    a. apaches   c. incas

    b. chichimecas   d. mayas

8. Un cuento basado en eventos reales pero transformado

    por la tradición es una _____.

    a. novela   c., leyenda

    b. poesía   d. historia

9. Al principio, los indios le dieron a la ciudad de

    México el nombre de _____.

    a. Aztlán   c. Popocatépetl

    b. Tenochtitlán   d. Xochimilco

10. De los aztecas, Cuauhtémoc fue el último _____.

    a. emperador   c. dios

    b. juez   d. presidente

Introducción

En esta lección estudiaremos los aztecas, ante-
pasados de muchos mexicanoamericanos. Hablaremos
y leeremos sobre el gran líder azteca, Cuauhtémoc,
que sobresale en la historia de México, e identi-
ficaremos ciertas influencias aztecas que todavía
existen.

Los Aztecas-6

"Los mexicas o aztecas fundaron
Tenochtitlán en un islote del
lago de Texcoco donde encontraron
un águila sobre un nopal comiéndose
una serpiente."

LOS AZTECAS

El dominio del
Imperio Azteca

Los Aztecas: Antepasados de algunos mexicanoamericanos

¿Sabías tú que algunos mexicanoamericanos llevan sangre azteca en sus venas? Tú probablemente preguntas, ¿quiénes eran los aztecas?

Los aztecas fueron un pueblo muy civilizado[1] que dominó el centro y sur de México de 1424 d.C. a 1521 d.C. Era un pueblo de guerreros, sacerdotes[2], arquitectos, escultores[3], mercaderes[4], agricultores y pescadores. Los guerreros y sacerdotes dominaban a los demás.

Los antepasados de otros mexicanoamericanos fueron quizá: los olmecas, que se establecieron cerca del Golfo de México; los chichimecas, que ocuparon el norte y el centro de México; los mayas, que dominaron la península de Yucatán; o los toltecas, que vivieron en el centro y sur de México.

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1. civilizado: avanzado en su organización política, sus artes y sus ciencias
2. sacerdotes: padres, ministros o pastores; hombres dedicados a una religión
3. escultores: artistas que trabajan con piedra, metal, madera, etc.
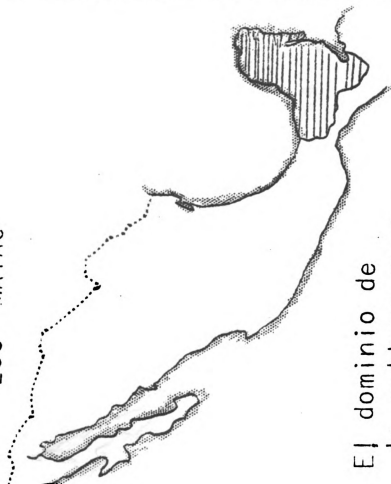4. mercaderes: personas que se dedican a comprar y vender

LOS TOLTECAS

La figura de

Atlante de Tula

Este es uno de los cuatro Atlantes de Tula que se encuentran en lo alto de una pirámide tolteca. Mide 15 pies de altura, y representa a un guerrero que lleva en el pecho una mariposa, símbolo de los toltecas.
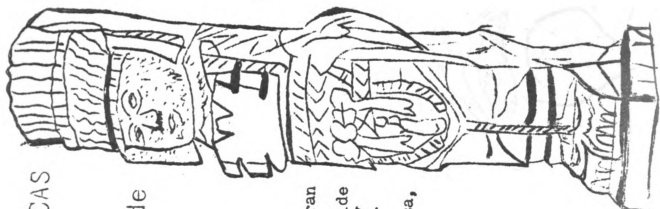
LOS MAYAS

El dominio de la cultura maya

LOS OLMECAS

La Cabeza Colosal

Esta cabeza colosal, que representa a un jefe o a un jugador con casco, mide nueve pies de altura y seis pies de ancho. Los olmecas la hicieron de una piedra gigante que tuvieron que mover a través de la selva por más de cincuenta millas.
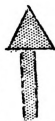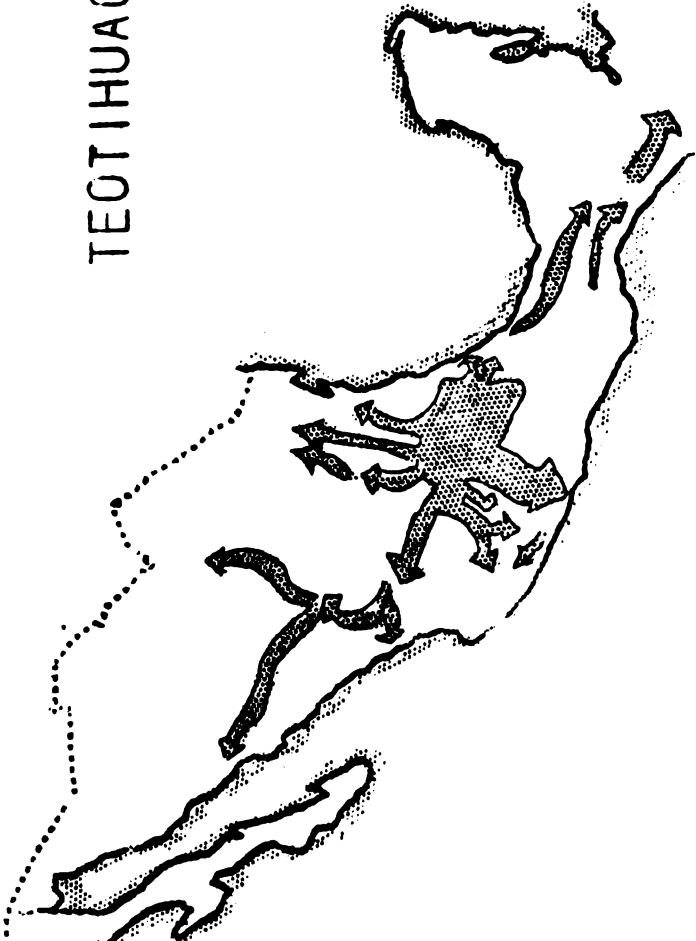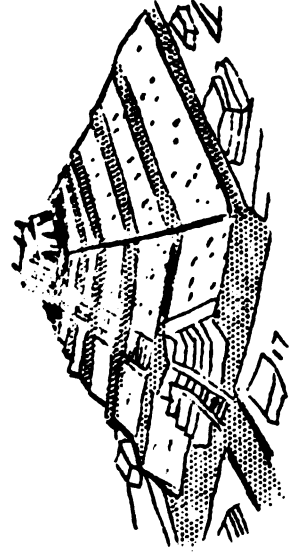
La Pirámide Del Sol
en Teotihuacán

Se ha calculado que diez mil hombres trabajaron durante veinte años para construir esta pirámide.

TEOTIHUACÁN

El dominio de la cultura
teotihuacana.

La Promesa de Quetzalcoatl

La promesa de Quetzalcoatl es muy importante en la historia de México por la manera en que influyó en el destino del Imperio Azteca. Quetzalcoatl quiere decir "serpiente emplumada".. Este fue el nombre de un gran rey de la civilización tolteca. Los indios creían que él había sido mandado por los dioses. Según la leyenda, él se presentó ante su reino[1] y prometió que hombres blancos con barbas[2] vendrían algún día del este a conquistar las tierras indias. Después, Quetzalcoatl desapareció misteriosamente.

Muchos siglos más tarde, cuando Hernán Cortés llegó a las tierras mexicanas, la leyenda todavía se recordaba. Moctezuma, el emperador azteca, respetaba mucho las tradiciones toltecas. El creyó firmemente que la promesa se había cumplido[3] y que Cortés era el dios Quetzalcoatl. Además, como los indios nunca habían visto ni caballos ni armas de fuego[4], pensaron que los españoles eran dioses invencibles[5]. Si no hubiera sido por la fuerza de la leyenda tolteca y las creencias religiosas

---

1. reino: dominio, toda la gente y las tierras sobre las cuales tiene poder
2. barbas: beards
3. cumplido: (del verbo cumplir) había llevado a cabo
4. armas de fuego: rifles, pistolas
5. invencibles: que no se puede dominarlos, indomables

de Moctezuma, quizá Cortés no habría podido conquistar
a los aztecas.

En fin, casi se podría pensar que la promesa de
Quetzalcoatl se cumplió. Un hombre blanco y barbudo
llegó del Oriente a conquistar las tierras mexicanas
y poner fin al gran Imperio Azteca.

> La cultura de una sociedad
> se refiere a la religión,
> los escritos, las artes,
> los valores, los pensamientos,
> las costumbres y la manera
> de vivir de sus miembros.

El Choque entre la Cultura Azteca y la Cultura Española.

El encuentro entre el conquistador español Hernán Cortés y Moctezuma, el emperador azteca, en 1520, llegó a ser un gran choque entre la cultura española y la cultura azteca.

En esos tiempos, España era el país más poderoso e importante del mundo. Los españoles querían agrandar[1] su imperio, conquistando más tierras y adquiriendo más riquezas. Esta era la misión de los españoles al llegar a las tierras de México.

Después de conquistar a los indios, los españoles quisieron ponerle fin a su religión primitiva y convertirlos al catolicismo. Mientras que los españoles creían en un solo dios, los aztecas adoraban a varios dioses, como a Huitzilopochtli, su dios principal del sol y de la guerra; Quetzalcoatl, dios de la creación y de la sabiduría[2]; y Tlaloc, dios de la lluvia. Para evitar que

---

1. agrandar: hacer más grande, hacer más extenso
2. sabiduría: conocimiento, el saber

los aztecas siguieran venerando[1] a estos dioses suyos,
los españoles destruyeron sus ídolos y sus templos, y,
como casi todos los monumentos eran religiosos, también
los destrozaron.[2]

Los indios no sólo perdieron la religión de su
cultura, sino también su propia lengua nahuatl. Los
españoles los hicieron aprender español para poder
así entender las doctrinas cristianas.

Poco a poco, la cultura española llegó a imponerse
sobre muchos aspectos de la gran cultura y civilización
avanzada de los aztecas.

---

1. venerando: adorando

2. destrozaron: destruyeron

EL ENCUENTRO DE CORTÉS
Y LOS AZTECAS

El Mercado Azteca

Cuando Cortés vió el mercado de Tenochtitlán, se asombró[1] mucho. Lo comparó con los mercados más grandes de Europa, que eran los mercados de Roma y Constantinopla[2]. Cerca de 60,000 personas iban a ese mercado azteca a comprar y a vender sus productos. Algunas cosas que se vendían allí eran desconocidas para los españoles. Ellos nunca habían visto el chocolate, el aguacate, el garbanzo, el frijol, el maíz, la calabaza, el ajo, los chiles, la piña y el guajolote. Hoy, muchos de estos productos, que los conquistadores vieron por primera vez en ese mercado, son muy conocidos aquí y en casi todo el mundo.

---

1. se asombró: (del verbo asombrarse), se maravilló, le causó admiración, sorpresa.
2. Constantinopla: Fué capital del Imperio Romano. Ahora se llama Estambul, la capital de Turquía.

Moctezuma y Cuauhtémoc

La Defensa del Imperio Azteca

Durante su primer viaje hacia el teatro del Imperio
Azteca, los conquistadores españoles se hicieron aliados[1]
de unos guerreros de Tlaxcala. Estos tlaxcaltecas,
enemigos de los aztecas, acompañaron a los españoles
hasta México-Tenochtitlán.

Al llegar a esa gran ciudad, Moctezuma los recibió
con muchos honores y los invitó a alojarse[2] en uno de
los palacios. Sin respetar la hospitalidad azteca,
Cortés y sus soldados hicieron prisionero a Moctezuma.
Esta traición[3] fue un gran insulto para los mexicas[4],
quienes con gran enojo[5] sitiaron[6] el palacio donde estaban
los españoles. Moctezuma, que estaba allí, salió a uno de
los balcones para tratar de apaciguar[7] a sus hombres. Sin
embargo, los mexicas, muy disgustados, le lanzaron piedras.
Una de ellas lo hirió en la cabeza y poco tiempo después
murió.

1. aliados: los que están en favor de uno, amigos,
              compañeros (contrario de enemigos)
2. alojarse: quedarse en un lugar a pasar la noche, hospedar
3. traición: engaño
4. mexicas: aztecas
5. enojo: furia, rabia, ira
6. sitiaron: (del verbo sitiar) cerrar todas las salidas
              de una ciudad para poder conquistarla
7. apaciguar: calmar

Como la comida, el agua y la pólvora se acababan rápidamente, Cortés y los suyos planearon huir.[1] Los guerreros aztecas, entre los que estaba Cuauhtémoc, se enteraron del plan y se prepararon para no dejarlos salir de Tenochtitlán. Puesto que la ciudad estaba rodeada por las aguas de un lago, levantaron los cuatro puentes que la conectaban con tierra firme.

La noche del 30 de junio de 1520, los mil doscientos españoles y cerca de dos mil tlaxcaltecas trataron de escapar. Sin embargo, sólo trescientos españoles lograron salir con vida del ataque azteca.

Cuentan los historiadores que esa noche, llamada La Noche Triste, Cortés se sentó debajo de un árbol a llorar la muerte de sus hombres en esa gran derrota.[2]

Sin perder las esperanzas de conquistar a los aztecas, Cortés y los pocos españoles que quedaron, se refugiaron en Tlaxcala para reorganizar sus fuerzas. Seis meses más tarde, Cortés, ya listo, volvió a Tenochtitlán.

Los aztecas ahora tenían un nuevo emperador y líder guerrero. El era el valeroso[3] joven Cuauhtémoc que tan solo tenía unos 18 años de edad. Cuauhtémoc y sus hombres se defendieron lo mejor que pudieron. En esta ocasión, sin

_____

[1] huir: escapar
[2] derrota: fracaso, vencimiento (el contrario de victoria)
[3] valeroso: valiente, hombre con mucho valor (lo contrario de cobarde)

embargo, los aztecas perdieron la batalla. La gran
Tenochtitlán quedó totalmente destruida. Cuauhtémoc
cayó prisionero, y, un año después, murió ahorcado
por órdenes de Cortés. Así terminó la poderosa
civilización azteca y se implantaron[1] la lengua, la
religión y el control del imperio español.

----

1. implantaron: (del verbo implantar), se establecieron
                  ideas, costumbres, prácticas nuevas sobre
                  otras.

LA TOMA DE TENOCHTITLAN

Escribe, junto a cada cañón, los nombres de los capitanes de Cortés que sitiaron a Tenochtitlán, teniendo en cuenta la calzada por donde atacaron.
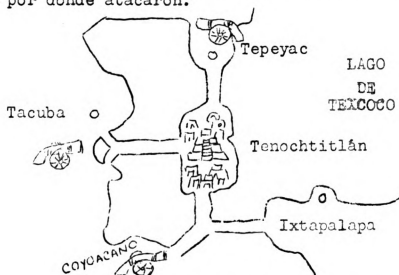
Ilumina con color rojo las calzadas, con azul las aguas del lago y con verde las tierras vecinas.

Actividades de Aprendizaje

A. En las siguientes listas, ¿cuál palabra no pertenece
   al grupo?

   _____ 1. Quetzalcoatl, hombre blanco, olmecas,
                      serpiente emplumada.

   _____ 2. cultura, artes, religión, dinero.

   _____ 3. leyenda, verdad, cuento, fantasía,
                      tristeza.

   _____ 4. conquistador, Moctezuma, emperador,
                      Cuauhtémoc.

   _____ 5. conquistadores, Brasil, españoles,
                      Hernán Cortés.

   _____ 6. tierras, riquezas, águila, joyas.

   _____ 7. olmecas, incas, chichimecas, toltecas.

B. Llenen los espacios con la palabra o las palabras
   apropiadas.

   1a. Los aztecas dominaban el _____ y _____
       de México.

   b. Eran un pueblo de _____, sacerdotes,

      _____, _____ y _____.

   2. Otras culturas avanzadas antes de la llegada de
      los españoles fueron los _____,

      los _____ y los _____.

   3. Quetzalcoatl hizo una _____ a su

      reino diciendo que hombres _____

      vendrían algún día a _____ las tierras

      indias.

4. Cuando llegó Hernán _____, Moctezuma

creyó que la _____ tolteca se había

cumplido.

5. Los indios nunca habían visto _____

ni _____.

6. Los aztecas pensaron que los españoles eran

_____ invencibles.

7. El encuentro entre Moctezuma y Hernán Cortés

tuvo lugar en el siglo _____.

8. Los españoles querían _____ su imperio.

9. Su misión en México era _____ las

tierras y adquirir las _____.

10. Los españoles querían _____ a

los indios a la religión _____.

11. Algunos dioses de los aztecas eran _____,

_____ y _____.

12. Para poner fin a la religión azteca, los españoles

destruyeron sus _____, _____

y _____.

13. Antes de estar en el mercado de Tenochtitlán,

los españoles nunca habían visto _____,

_____, _____, _____

y _____.

14. La noche en que Cortés lloró su derrota se llama

la _____.

15. Los indios _____ ayudaron a

Cortés a capturar a Cuauhtémoc.

¿Qué piensas tú?

1. Si tú fueras Moctezuma, ¿qué hubieras hecho después de la llegada de Cortés?

2. Si pudieras escoger entre los aztecas, los toltecas y los españoles, ¿cuál preferirías tú ser? ¿Por qué?

3. ¿Consideras tú a Cuauhtémoc como un héroe? ¿Tiene él características en común con Benito Juárez o Abrahám Lincoln?

¿Qué tanto aprendiste?

1. Los indios que dominaban casi todo el centro de México

   antes de la conquista eran los _____.

2. El emperador de estos indios se llamaba _____.

3. El conquistador español que puso fin a ese gran imperio

   fue _____.

4. La cultura de una sociedad se refiere a _____,

   _____, _____ y _____.

5. Los indios adoraban a muchos _____.

6. En los tiempos de los conquistadores, España era el país

   más _____ de todo el mundo.

7. Otras culturas avanzadas de México fueron _____,

   _____ y _____.

8. Un cuento basado en eventos reales pero transformado

   por la tradición es una _____.

9. Al principio los indios le dieron a la ciudad de México

   el nombre de _____.

10. Cuauhtémoc fue el último _____ de los

    aztecas.

Sugerencias para Actividades Adicionales

1. Hacer un cuaderno de dibujos de los aztecas incluyendo:

   a. armas

   b. artículos religiosos

   c. joyas

   d. esculturas

   e. templos o edificios

   f. murales aztecas

   g. el vestido de los aztecas

2. Preparar reportes orales sobre los siguientes temas

   a. Moctezuma y la superstición

   b. Los dioses aztecas y el dios cristiano

   c. El sacrificio humano de los aztecas y la
      Inquisición en España

   d. Hernán Cortés en México hasta su muerte

   e. España en 1520

   f. Los toltecas

   g. Los olmecas

3. Preparar una dramatización del encuentro de Moctezuma
   con Hernán Cortés y mostrarlo en la clase.

4. Construir un modelo de arcilla o de "paper maché"
   de Tenochtitlán.

5. Investigar y dar un informe oral sobre el calendario
   azteca y el sistema de matemáticas prehispánico.

APPENDIX B

CATEGORIES FOR SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS INDEX

APPENDIX B

CATEGORIES FOR SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS INDEX

The educational level of parents was coded as follows: (Note: Parent was interpreted as the main person in the family who supports the child.)

Completed grade 4 or less	1
Completed grade 5 or 6	2
Completed grade 7 or 8	3
Completed grade 9-10	4
Completed grade 11-12	5
Completed high school plus other noncollege training	6
Completed 1 or 2 years of college	7
Completed 3 or 4 years of college	8
Completed some graduate work	9

The occupational level of the parents was coded as follows: (Note: a hierarchical ordering was assumed only for codes 9-4.)

Professional, Big Business	9
Semi-Professional, Small Business	8
Clerical, Sales	7
Skilled Labor	6
Service Occupations	5
Semi- or Unskilled Labor	4
Housewife	3
Retired, Unemployed	2
Other (Military, Student)	1

APPENDIX C

GENERAL SELF-CONCEPT OF ABILITY SCALE

SELF-CONCEPT OF ABILITY SCALE
Form A: General
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY
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CIRCLE THE LETTER in front of the statement which best answers each question.

1. How do you rate yourself in school ability compared with your close friends?

   a. I am the best

   b. I am above average

   c. I am average

   d. I am below average

   e. I am the poorest

2. How do you rate yourself in school ability compared with those in your class at school?

   a. I am among the best

   b. I am above average

   c. I am average

   d. I am below average

   e. I am among the poorest

3. Where do you think you would rank in your class in high school?

   a. among the best

   b. above average

   c. average

   d. below average

   e. among the poorest

4. Do you think you have the ability to complete college?

   a. yes, definitely

   b. yes, probably

   c. not sure either way

   d. probably not

   e. no

5. Where do you think you would rank in your class in college?

   a. among the best

   b. above average

   c. average

   d. below average

   e. among the poorest

6. In order to become a doctor, lawyer, or university professor, work beyond four years of college is necessary. How likely do you think it is that you could complete such advanced work?

   a. very likely

   b. somewhat likely

   c. not sure either way

   d. unlikely

   e. most unlikely

7. Forget for a moment how others grade your work. In your own opinion how good do you think your work is?

   a. my work is excellent

   b. my work is good

   c. my work is average

   d. my work is below average

   e. my work is much below average

8. What kind of grades do you think you are capable of getting?

   a. mostly A's

   b. mostly B's

   c. mostly C's

   d. mostly D's

   e. mostly E's

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APPENDIX D

STUDENT INTRODUCTION TO THE SPANISH SOCIAL

STUDIES PROGRAM FOR BILINGUAL STUDENTS

APPENDIX D

STUDENT INTRODUCTION TO THE SPANISH SOCIAL STUDIES
PROGRAM FOR BILINGUAL STUDENTS

This is a unique program designed for bilingual students like you. You are special students because most of you have learned Spanish at home, yet you have never studied it at school. So this program will give you the opportunity to learn to read and write Spanish. You will have a great deal of practice in speaking it. And if you try your best, you will be taking a giant step towards becoming a completely bilingual person, a person with many job opportunities for the future. There are hundreds of meaningful, interesting, and well-paid positions which only a bilingual individual can fill. This is a language program which adds many more dimensions to the Spanish you already know. But it is not only a language program, it is also a program in which you will get to know many things about the Spanish-speaking people who live in the United States - we will talk and read about the important things that they have done, their contributions to this country, their leaders, their interests, their customs, their music, their art, etc. In short, we will practice and improve our Spanish as we listen, speak, read, and write about their cultural history and the experience of the Spanish-speaking American in the United States.

These are some of the topics which we are going to study:

1. Bilingualism in the United States

2. Pastimes of the Mexican and the Mexican-American

3. The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo of 1848

4. Agriculture and Cesar Chavez

5. The unity of the family

6. Mexican-American music

7. Hispano-American architecture

8. Mexican-American dances

9. Painters of today and of always

10. Hispano-American sports and athletes

11. Religious customs

12. Mining

13. Parliamentary procedures

14. Opportunities for a bilingual person

15. Hispano-American Social Movement

16. Migration

17. Hispano-American writers

18. Movie industry

19. Student council

20. Hispano-American Educational Movements

Whenever possible, we will invite guest speakers, listen to recordings, watch films or slides, take field trips, and participate in other activities that interest you. We encourage you to take advantage of the many activities that

take place in the community. You will enjoy the movies,
dances, fiestas, speeches, plays, and musical and dance pre-
sentations, which will make what we talk about in class come
to life. Invite your friends. You will have more fun. We
should remember that what we get out of this program will
depend on how much all of us are willing to put into it.
If we are all willing to work together, we will have a great
year ahead of us.

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