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ABSTRACT

Bilingualism has occurred for many years wherever countries with different languages border each other. Recently, bilingual education has begun to have a position in the formal education process of schools throughout the United States with students whose first language is not English. This bulletin, designed with the hope that it can assist school teachers or administrators in designing, implementing, and conducting bilingual education programs, discusses the bilingualism of Mexican-Americans. For a bilingual education program to work with Mexican-Americans, a person must understand, or at least know about, certain aspects of the Mexican-American culture. This bulletin discusses the history of Mexican-Americans in southern Texas since 1836, the social structure of their communities and home life, their religion, the differences between their basic value configurations and those of Anglo-Americans, and how their culture affects their education. The role of linguistics and a person's first language in a bilingual program, methods and techniques for second-language teaching, and bilingual teaching in content areas are also discussed. General suggestions for language teaching, techniques for teaching reading and writing, reinforcement activities, and art activities are given. Sample lessons, in both English and Spanish, are included for 1st grade science, 2nd and 4th grade mathematics, 5th and 6th grade art, and 3rd and 6th grade social studies. (NQ)

A RESOURCE MANUAL FOR IMPLEMENTING

BILINGUAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS

The Regional Educational Agencies Project
on International Education
(Section 505, Title V Elementary and Secondary Education Act
P.L. 89-10)

[1972]

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1. Enrollment and assignment of students without discrimination on the ground of race, color, or national origin.

2. Assignments of teachers and other staff without discrimination on the ground of race, color, or national origin.

3. Non-discriminatory use of facilities.

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In addition to conducting reviews, Texas Education Agency staff representatives will check complaints of non-compliance made by citizens and will report their findings to the United States Commissioner of Education.

Foreword

Three major factors have reinforced national interest in bilingual-bicultural education in recent years. The first is a growing public awareness that every young person should be given the opportunity to converse in one or two languages in addition to his native tongue. A second factor is the proposition now being given credence among many educators that children whose native (home) language is not English, learn best when their primary learning experiences in school are undertaken in the mother tongue, and that success in the educational process for these children demands concurrent intellectual growth with the pupil's progress in the learning of English. A third factor of significant impetus is the international dimension of modern education which has been brought about by the advancement of technology and political awareness which continue to lessen the distance between people and continents.

This bulletin is designed to be of assistance to classroom teachers and school administrators in developing, implementing and conducting programs in bilingual education.

J. W. Edgar
Commissioner of Education

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Table of Contents

Foreword iii

Acknowledgments v

Introduction 1

History: A Point of View 6

Social Systems: Home and Community 18

Two Americans: Why so Different? 29

Language: Learned or Absorbed? 35

Linguistics and Bilingual Programs 47

Methods and Techniques for Second Language Teaching . . 54

- General Suggestions for Language Teaching 57
- Reading and Writing 84
- Reinforcement Activities 88
- Art Activities 96

Bilingual Teaching in Content Areas 98

Sample Lessons in Subject Matter Areas 103

- Science, First Grade 103
- Mathematics, Second Grade 121
- Mathematics, Fourth Grade 130
- Art, Fifth Grade 138
- Art, Fifth and Sixth Grades 142
- Social Studies, Third Grade 144
- Social Studies, Sixth Grade 152

Introduction

Bilingualism is not a unique phenomenon nor is bilingual education an innovation. The latter is new only in Texas and other states in the United States where today it is taking a secure position in the formal educational process of the schools.

Bilingualism has occurred for many years all over the world wherever countries with different languages border each other. The typical western examples are Alsace-Lorraine in France-Germany, the Sudeten land in Czechoslovakia, and the Basque areas of France and Spain; not to overlook Switzerland with its varieties of bilingualism because of its multilingual frontiers.

Since language is a strong cultural characteristic, it is safe to say that wherever bilingualism exists biculturalism also exists.

As a state education agency the Texas Education Agency is concerned with bilingual education rather than bilingualism per se. The bilingualism that prevails in Texas among the Spanish, Czech, German, French, Lebanese, Greek, Japanese, and speakers of other languages is attributed to the strong cultural ties of language rather than any exerted effort in the past by schools, to utilize languages other than English in the educational process, and to develop bilingual students.

As bilingual education becomes an integral part of the curriculum, it becomes necessary to define it and explain its concept. Sometimes it is better to define it first as what it is not, and then as what it is. It is not merely using the first language of a child, as a bridge to English, and then eliminating the first language as proficiency in English is attained. It is the total development of the child bilingually so that he can function within his own capabilities in two languages. This means that in the beginning the basic concepts must be taught in the first language. After he learns the concept of reading, in his first language, for example, he can easily be taught to read in a second language. This could be English; or it could be Spanish for an English-speaking child. A second language can be taught as naturally as the language of mathematics, science, or music, as long as the first language is the medium for teaching it.

As it is for the basic concepts, there must be a time when subject matter is taught almost exclusively in the first language while the student is learning a second language. Subject matter becomes a tool for learning a second language. This permits intellectual growth, the primary purpose for learning; and in reality, bilingualism becomes the by-product of learning. It can also be stated that bilingual education does not cut the educational program in half nor leaves

anything out of the curriculum. It is a complete program plus the added enrichment of two languages, rather than one.

Briefly, the whole of bilingual education must have as its components: (1) the learning of basic concepts in the first language, (2) language development in the first language, (3) language development in the second language, (4) subject matter in the first language, (5) subject matter in the second language, and (6) the development of a positive self-image in the total process.

The development of a positive self-image is a very important concept for all students. It is usually thought of as something for the speakers of languages other than English or for the so-called minority groups. This is an erroneous assumption. All children should be involved in the development of a positive self identity. Consequently it is very important that in the educational process there be experiences denoting the contributions of all of the ethnic groups of which this country is comprised. It is more feasible to reach a positive self concept by building upon the many good traits a student brings to school. Teachers must recognize the historical, psychological, sociological, and cultural forces that influence the formation of the character and characteristics of a group of people.

This bulletin is not intended as an educational panacea for

the Mexican American students. It is hoped that it can assist schools in implementing bilingual education programs for all students wherever it is appropriate to do so. However, as in all educational endeavors, priorities must be established. The circumstances of the Mexican Americans in education readily dictates that they be placed in the number one priority in bilingual education. None should be denied this experience. The Statewide Design for Bilingual Education approved by the State Board of Education places emphasis on the following goals:

1. Implementation of programs for students whose first language is Spanish which will allow successful experiences in the education process while developing literacy in the use of English and Spanish in the total school curriculum and knowledge of the history and culture associated with the languages.

2. Implementation of programs for students whose first language is English which will allow them to develop a literacy in Spanish and English and a knowledge of the history and culture of the speakers of Spanish and their contribution to the development of the State and country.

3. Development of proper measuring instruments for children in bilingual programs.

Since competent, trained personnel are needed for implementing bilingual programs and because there is a shortage of such personnel, the statewide plan of action must include activities which will:

- Plan programs for personnel development (preservice and in-service).
- Develop curriculum materials for use in bilingual education programs.
- Determine ways in which administration and instruction should be planned and integrated in bilingual education in order to provide optimum development of pupil abilities, interest, attitudes, goals, and self-understanding.
- Identify the major dimensions of pupil development (language, skills, culturally engendered patterns of behavior, attitudes and aspirations, talents and abilities) which are the primary emphases of a bilingual program and identify the relationships between family and social background and pupil development.
- Study the functions and competencies of staff members who will provide services to the bilingual education program.
- Study the roles of the Agency, education service centers, regional laboratories and other resource agencies, colleges, and local schools in program planning and development.
- Establish valid evaluative procedures.

History: A Point of View

The Mexican American in Texas is still living under the stigma of 1836. Proponents of the superiority of Anglo-Saxon institutions have long contended that Santa Anna's actions at the Alamo and Goliad were indefensible. As a result, the men at San Jacinto were either heroes or cowards, the difference determined not by each man's fighting ability or sense of personal honor, but by the uniform he wore.

Both general and state textbooks for years virtually ignored the point of view that the War for Texas Independence was a peripheral reaction to the ten-year-old centralism versus federalism struggle in Mexico. The interpretation that most Anglo Texans and Mexican "Tejanos" in 1835-6 supported the federalist movement to restore Mexico's Constitution of 1824 has been equally ignored. When the tools of persuasive discussion failed to achieve reforms, however, the more militant Texas settlers, assisted by soldiers-of-fortune from the United States, turned to force.

The Republic of Texas, confirmed by Sam Houston's victory at San Jacinto, was actually the creation of a few architects of government to which a majority of the people simply agreed later. During the republican experiment, Lorenzo de Zavala served as ad interim vice president, indicating that some Mexican "Tejanos" were disenchanted with Santa Ann's disregard of constitutional formality. Similarly, the ten "Tejanos" who

died at the Alamo rendered valid testimony of their commitment to the Texan cause.

For generations, however, the year 1836 stood as a fixed idea in the minds of most Anglo Texans. Nothing favorable about the Mexican American and his heritage penetrated. The saga of Spanish occupation, the building of missions, the struggle for colonies was depicted as a romantic attempt to bring civilization through Christianity to the border Indians. Little mention was made of the planning, expenditure, physical stamina, and conviction needed by the Spanish settlers. In many cases, a few pages of history books outlined the efforts of Franciscan friars and saber-rattling soldiers as attempts to keep a decadent civilization from total collapse.

Later in the 1830's, a more militant type of immigrant came to question Mexico's right to impose restrictions on foreigners. To a certain extent, the War for Texan Independence represented the clash of two sets of cultural values in a frontier area.

Animosities frequently erupted on both sides of the Rio Grande during the nine years of the Republic. When President Mirabeau Lamar encouraged the ill-fated Texan invasion of Santa Fe in 1841, Mexican troops launched retaliatory attacks on San Antonio a year later. Texan volunteers counterattacked with a number of sporadic raids across the Rio Grande in 1846-48 after Texas was annexed to the United States. Texan Mexican relations deteriorated rapidly. Then during the 1850's,

while few Mexicans traveled north to settle in Texas, Anglo farmers and ranchers streamed in. As a result, the Mexican "Tejano" became part of a smaller and smaller minority group. In the end, the Mexican "Tejano" became a stranger in the land he once claimed as his own.

Because of these and other historical developments, the Mexican American in the Southwest can be divided into two major divisions. First, there are those who lived in the Southwest before it became part of the United States. Among them are the Spanish Americans of northern New Mexico, many Mexican Americans in central Texas and along the Rio Grande from El Paso to the Gulf of Mexico, and finally the native Spanish-speaking people of California. These people share certain historical experiences with the American Indians. Like them, they were conquered in war and forced to become citizens of the United States against their will. Their property and civil rights were guaranteed to them by treaties that were violated, like those with the Indians, before the ink was scarcely dry on the parchment. As a result of extensive land loss, historical mistreatment, segregation, discrimination, poverty, and the feeling of being reduced to an impoverished minority group in the land founded by their ancestors, much bitterness and resentment exist among them that is not found among the more recent immigrants from Mexico.

The second grouping is composed of wave after wave of immigrants from Mexico and their offspring born in the U. S. They left Mexico beginning in the 1900's because of the chaos of the Mexican Revolution, the poverty in rural areas, the lack of employment, and the search for higher wages and better living conditions. It was Mexican labor that built the railroads, erected the cities, brought land under cultivation, harvested the crops, and provided domestic help in the homes of the Southwest.

It should always be remembered that many diverse Spanish-speaking groups exist in the Southwest. Although all of them originated in Mexico, they differ somewhat in length of residence, degree and kind of involvement with Anglo American culture, and in acculturation. Although major cultural values and social institutions are shared by all of them, there are still subtle variations in values and social systems that tend to escape the Anglo American. Conclusions derived from studies of one or more groups do not necessarily apply to others.

From 1847 down to about World War I, the diverse Spanish-speaking groups were all known as Mexicans. English-speaking immigrants coming into the Southwest were called Americans. This dichotomy reflected the existence of historic stereotypes, age old conflicts, and prejudices that existed between Spanish and English and that were passed down to their colonists in the New World. The wars between Catholics and Protestants,

and the long conflicts between Spain and England developed attitudes that still influence Anglo Americans and Mexican Americans in their relationships with each other.

The first World War represented a major watershed in the history of the Southwest. Before the war, substantial numbers of Spanish-speaking people had not yet fully reconciled themselves to Anglo American control of the region. Nor were they accepted as citizens by the Anglo Americans. The patriotic fervor of the war, the economic boom, and the military record of the Mexican Americans played important roles in reconciling the two groups to each other. Barriers of cultural isolation, of segregation and of discrimination began to erode.

The changes in attitudes were marked by the emergence of ethnic names that played down the identification with Mexico. In New Mexico, an area that had been under Mexican control for only forty years, the term Spanish American emerged in the late 19th century. By World War I, it had become acceptable to the majority of the Spanish-speaking people of that state. It should be pointed out, however, that among themselves they use the word "mexicanos" although it would not be acceptable for Anglo Americans to refer to them as such. Among a few academic and journalistic circles in southern Colorado, the name "hispano" was used. It never caught on among the Spanish Americans themselves.

Outside of New Mexico, Spanish American is a "nice" word used to refer to middle class partially anglicized Mexican Americans. One finds it used in northern Texas, Utah, and other states. A similar term is Latin American, current in California, Arizona, and Texas. It also is a "nice" word devoid of any reference to Mexico. These two names never did catch on among the poor unacculturated masses of the Spanish-speaking groups in the Southwest except for Spanish American in New Mexico.

Recently, Mexican American has started to spread widely among the students and young businessmen and professionals. The emergence and wide acceptance of Mexican American seems to indicate a growing acceptance of Mexico and an identification with the Mexican heritage of the region. Perhaps the rapid economic, political, and cultural progress of Mexico is creating a country in which its immigrant sons can find comfort and pride. At any rate, it is very likely that eventually Mexican American will win out over its competitors.

Every Anglo American working with Mexican Americans must be aware of the importance of terminology. No name is yet acceptable to the large majority of the Spanish-speaking groups. Therefore, the Anglo American must be very sensitive to terminology. He should always subtly ascertain what name would be acceptable to those with whom he is working. It is possible to alienate many people by the use of the wrong term. In this discussion, the term Mexican American will be used.

Before World War II, the Mexican Americans were the largest group in most of the Southwest. Except in southern California, Anglo Americans were not numerous. Spanish, as a language, was more commonly used than English. Few Mexican Americans were enrolled in the public schools, and they were quite culturally isolated from contacts with the Anglo Americans. In many communities, a segregated society developed with both Anglo Americans and Mexican Americans developing independent recreational, social, political, and cultural organizations. The barriers of segregation, discrimination, language, and culture were so strong that few Mexican Americans crossed them.

In every Mexican American neighborhood, there were small businessmen, professionals, government employees, and labor organizers who spoke English as well as Spanish and were familiar with Anglo American values. These men served as mediators between the Anglo American community and the Mexican American community. Often they were able to exploit the ignorance of each group about the other for their own personal benefit. Except in New Mexico, very few Mexican Americans held any political or economic positions of importance.

World War II brought significant changes. Thousands of Mexican Americans enrolled in the American armed forces. They won more awards for valor on the field of battle proportionately to the number enrolled than any other racial or ethnic group in the United States. Because of their military reputation, they won wide acceptance by other soldiers. They also found

that there was very little prejudice toward them in other parts of the United States. Aware of the many problems they encountered because of their poor knowledge of English and ignorance of Anglo American values, they returned home quite secure in their American identification.

The G. I. Bill of Rights was one of the most important events in the history of most of the minority groups in the United States. Hundreds of Mexican Americans were able to secure a university education and move into the professions such as education, law, medicine, business, and government employment. Thousands of others acquired technical skills through on-the-job training that enabled them to secure steady employment and to open small businesses. The housing provisions of the Bill permitted many to secure better housing in the traditional Anglo American neighborhoods. A very large Mexican American middle class emerged oriented toward acculturation and desirous of being accepted by Anglo Americans. In general, they insisted that their children learn English and refused to teach them Spanish. They organized the G.I. Forum and filled the ranks of LULACS, the American Legion posts, and the Veterans of Foreign Wars.

Although many Mexican Americans were able to move up in the socio-economic structure, the masses did not. Furthermore, the places of the socially mobile were filled by the high Mexican American birth rate, and immigration from Mexico, both

legal and illegal. As one notes the heavy population pressure along the Mexican side of the border, one is forced to concede that there will never be a time when there will not be large masses of Spanish-speaking unassimilated Mexican Americans in the Southwest.

A rather standardized process has developed. Mexican nationals move across the border. Willing to work for low wages, they depress the entire employment situation. Mexican Americans move away in search of higher salaries and better jobs. They move in large numbers to California, Illinois, Michigan, Colorado, Utah, and other states. Mexican American colonies in almost all of the Pacific Coast, Southwest, Middle West, and Rocky Mountain states are growing. The vacant position of the immigrant family is promptly filled by the high fertility of those who remain or by immigration from Mexico.

The movement away from the Southwest is accelerated by the decline in migrant labor. Mechanization of agriculture is rapidly reducing employment opportunities in the harvest fields. Migrants, therefore, are moving into the cities and towns of a vast area. Cities such as Seattle that never had Mexican American inhabitants are acquiring a colony. There is even some migration over into Canada.

The newly created Mexican American middle class was and is somewhat contemptuous of the less acculturated Spanish-speaking

majority of the Mexican Americans who did not escape from poverty. They tend to blame the poor Mexican Americans for their own unfavorable economic conditions. After all, if the middle class Mexican American was able to escape, then the rest are poor because of their own personal characteristics. In turn, the middle class Mexican Americans are regarded with envy, suspicion, resentment, and hostility by the poor who feel with some reason that the middle class Mexican American rejects them and would betray them.

The Mexican American population of the barrios, the urban slums, the migrant labor camps, the rural colonies, and the villages have been quite passive and almost inert in the face of unemployment, poverty, discrimination, and segregation. The reasons for this passivity are fairly easy to list. The traditional upper class Mexican American laborers who identified themselves with their own people were destroyed by social and economic forces that they never quite managed to understand or to survive. Many protest leaders were forced to leave Southwest in the earlier days. Very few Mexican Americans, until recently, were familiar with Anglo American values or political processes to provide adequate leadership. And many Mexican Americans with the necessary education were not interested in providing leadership for the poor. The veterans of World War II or the Korean War who might have provided a strong focus for organization were for the most part quite

satisfied by the opportunities provided by the G. I. Bill of Rights, the decline of outright segregation after the War, and their upward movement in the socio-econmic structure. And, finally, the coming of one wave of Mexican immigrants after another prevented the formation of a cohesive ethnic group.

This situation is changing gradually. Anglo Americans in the Southwest are in general unaware of the extent to which unrest is spreading quietly through the urban slums, the migrant labor camps, the colonias, and the rural villages. The unrest is greatest among the migrant workers and the college and high school students, but it is beginning to touch the inhabitants of the urban slums. In part, the unrest is a fallout from the Negro Civil Rights Movement. In part it was triggered off by unfulfilled expectations aroused by the anti-poverty programs. And to some degree, it is a nativistic reaction against the growing impact of Anglo American culture.

New leaders have remarkably emerged from the ranks of the poorest, most unacculturated segment of the Mexican Americans, the migrant workers. For the most part, these leaders are charismatic, unacculturated, poorly educated, men from the ranks of the workers who have the ability to voice the resentments, the bitterness, the hopes, and the aspirations of the Mexican American migrant workers. Few of them have much

knowledge of Anglo American values. Perhaps their most important achievement has been to break through the apathy, the despair, and the hopelessness of the migrant Mexican American population.

These leaders are alienated from the anglicized, partially acculturated, Mexican American middle class. Many elements among the middle class resent the prominence and the demands of the new leaders. They are afraid that they will be caught in the middle. Their still precarious economic and social gains may be threatened by any rise in tensions between Anglo Americans and Mexican Americans.

Protest groupings are also emerging among Mexican American university and high school students. They are concerned with the genuine problems that students face in American schools. They have lost the enthusiasm of their father's generation for acculturation and assimilation. Studying the civil rights movement and the events of the Mexican Revolution, they are quite concerned about the position of Mexican Americans in the economy and culture of the Southwest. A somewhat halting yet definite movement is developing to defend the Spanish language, Mexican American culture, and to develop links with protest organizations in the slums.

Social Systems: Home and Community

The social structure of Mexican American barrios and communities is a rather simple one structured upon four interrelated social systems: the (1) extended patriarchal family; (2) the patrón system, (3) the Church, and (4) the barrio or neighborhood itself. Where these systems are still functioning adequately, Mexican American neighborhoods, although marked by poverty, malnutrition, and unemployment, function fairly well with low rates of family breakdown, juvenile delinquency, and other rates of social disorganization. Until very recently the extended patriarchal family carried on all functions of socialization, social control, education, welfare, protection, production, and religion. It is today, as it was in the past, the most important social system among the Mexican Americans.

The Mexican American family originally consisted of three or four generations living and working together in a cluster of linked family residences. The paternal grandfather was the usual head of the family composed of his wife, married sons and their wives and children, unmarried children, relatives living with the family, and adopted children. Such an extended family was marked by close social and economic cooperation, familism, an abhorrence of inter-family conflict, and a carefully structured status and role system.

Dominance and authority in the family were structured upon the related variables of sex and age. Males were dominant

over females in every age grouping. Older family members exercised authority over younger members. The oldest son living with the family came next to the father as a source of authority in the family system. Sons, no matter how old they might be, obeyed their father as long as he was mentally or physically competent. Brothers were expected to cooperate closely together. They were required to work together in close harmony. The strong social drive toward elimination or repression of tension and conflicts that might threaten the family unity was an important characteristic of the Mexican American traditional family system.

Wives in their own homes were subordinate to their husbands. Obedient and tolerant toward their husbands, they were loved by their children who tended to fear and respect the father. Fathers usually were somewhat aloof and formal toward their children. In many Mexican American homes, mother and children were united in a tacit conspiracy to conceal family secrets from the father.

Children were treated as young adults. Each family member usually had some responsibilities in caring for the younger children as well as working on the land or taking care of livestock. Every child was taught to be obedient, courteous, and respectful to all older persons in the family and in the neighborhood. The welfare of any individual might be and

usually was subordinated to the welfare of the family, but every family member received emotional, social, and economic security.

Discipline and care of young children was in the hands of the mother. Discipline was based usually upon scolding and shaming. Older brothers and sisters played an active role in socializing younger family members. The father intervened only if family members committed a serious infraction of the mores.

Girls remained under the tutelage of their mothers until marriage. Until fairly recently, they seldom left their homes unchaperoned by male family members or unaccompanied by other family members. Boys at the age of puberty were considered to be young men. They passed from the authority of their mother to that of the father. As young men, it was expected that they would sow a few wild oats, but they should never bring shame or humiliation upon the family name.

Urbanization and industrialization weakened the traditional structure of the Mexican American family. Among the Mexican Americans today, a number of different family systems may be found. At one end of the continuum are the traditional extended patriarchal families still in existence. This type of family can be located in the urban slums, the "colonias," and the rural villages. There is still what could be called a cultural strain toward this type of family structure among the Mexican Americans. Wherever possible, it comes into

existence and shows an amazing vitality. At the other end of the continuum are deserted mothers and their children struggling to exist as best they can, isolated parents surviving in tenements forgotten by their children, and nuclear families consisting of husband, wife, and children fighting for acceptance by Anglo Americans in middle class suburbs.

It should be pointed out that the Mexican American family withstands the corrosive effects of poverty better than most ethnic families do. It is very unfortunate that school teachers, social workers, and other sources of authority such as the police do not realize the genuine strengths of the Mexican American slum family. Because of their general cultural ignorance of things Mexican American, they fail to realize that by utilizing and strengthening the family rather than standing in opposition to the family, they could develop a strong social organization in the barrios to reduce social problems and to assist these social agencies in the successive performance of their programs.

A <u>patrón</u> among Mexican Americans was and is a prominent person who is able to provide employment, economic security, assistance, leadership, decision-making, and problem solving for those dependent upon him. His position as a <u>patrón</u> is not based upon his personal characteristics, but upon his ability to perform the institutionalized role of a <u>patrón</u>. Two basic

types of patrón evolved among the Mexican Americans. One was the powerful semi-feudal landowner so characteristic of most of Latin America. This type was and is still found in the ranching and farming areas of California, Arizona, New Mexico, Texas, and Colorado.

In the sections controlled by the large landholders, a feudal relationship came into existence between the landholder, rancher or farmer, and his employees. The patrón provided employment and met the economic needs of his peons and their families. He took care of the sick, the aged, the orphaned, and the widowed. He settled conflicts between his workers, and often provided political and military leadership. In return for employment and assistance, his peons gave him implicit and absolute obedience. There are still many large ranches manned by Mexican American vaqueros who have worked for the same family generation after generation in the Southwest. Until very recently, the institution of peonage existed. This was an institution or system in which a man could not leave his employer as long as he owed him money. Sons inherited the debt of their fathers. Peonage ceased to exist several generations ago, but elements of it still survive.

The second type of patrón was the patrón of the barrios, the rural villages, and the colonias. He might be the corner grocer carrying half the neighborhood on his books, the tavern owner where the men congregate for a drink in the evening, a

political boss who provides some financial assistance in times of emergency and can always be counted on to help get a boy out of jail or find a son a job, or an employer or supervisor in a factory or a store. Such a man was accepted as patrón providing he gave employment, assistance, and advice to those dependent upon him. He also settled disputes between barrio families and often represented the barrio in its relationships with the outside world.

The Mexican American landowning patrón rapidly disintegrated under constant Anglo American economic and political pressure. Stripped of their land by violence, fraud, land tax, unwise use of credit, and problems of adjustment to a strange economic and political system, they have disappeared as an important social class in the entire Southwest. Their going removed a protecting buffer from the poor Mexican American peon or laboring class exposing them to the full force of the Anglo American political and economic systems.

The patrón system rested upon values that for the most part still exist and to a large measure still determine the attitudes of the Mexican Americans toward political leaders, government agencies, employers, and systems of leadership and conflict solution. Among these are: (1) a blind loyalty toward traditional ethnic leaders, (2) a tendency to desire to enter into dependent but secure positions of dependency upon an employer or a political leader, (3) a reluctance to

make decisions and a tendency to postpone decisions as long as possible, (4) a dislike of competition and of personal initiative, (5) a preference for a stable hierarchial social system with well-defined statuses and roles, (6) a preference for friendly person-to-person primary relationship rather than the formal impersonal relationships of the Anglo American world, and (7) a strong dislike for and resistance toward social and cultural change.

The Mexican American culture is suffused with the beliefs, dogmas, and practices of Roman Catholicism. Until very recently, a Mexican American who became a Protestant was defined not only as a heretic but also as a traitor to the Mexican American people and their culture. Because of the lack of priests over several hundred years, a folk Catholicism evolved in the rural villages and isolated ranches. Family worship was its fundamental foundation. Each home had an altar or an alcove in which the patron saint of the village, ranch, or family was worshipped by the burning of candles, the placing of flowers, or by prayers and vows. A crucifix and often a simple painted picture of the Virgin hung on the bedroom walls. The formal sacraments played a minor role in the religious lives of the people. The Saints, rather than God the Father, Jesus Christ the Son, and the Virgin Mary were major objects of worship. The rosary and simple family services were far more important than the Mass.

The Mexican American masses often feel uncomfortable in an Anglo American type church addressed to by a priest either from Spain who speaks Castillian or an Anglo American priest who speaks little Spanish. Many of them are joining one or another of the more fundamental Protestant groupings that tend to have Spanish-speaking ministers who frequently are Mexican American themselves. On the other hand, the Roman Catholic Church could regain its lost sheep if it sent Spanish-speaking priests and nuns into the tenements, the migrant labor camps, and the colonias to preach to the people and to help them.

The barrio, colonia, or neighborhood itself is an important social system among the Mexican Americans. In stable rural colonias or villages, and even on the larger ranches with stable employment for generations of Mexican American vaqueros, the neighborhood tends to be second in importance to the extended patriarchal family. It is a small social cell in which its inhabitants retognize each other as neighbors, vecinos. Vecinos are expected to cooperate together to resolve common problems. Vecino families are tied to each other by compadrazgo. A strong tendency exists for the inhabitants to confine their social life to the barrio. Within the barrio they feel safe, secure, and at ease. Outside the barrio, they are among strangers who potentially may be dangerous and threatening.

Each barrio tends to possess age and sex groupings that tend to be quite all inclusive of the inhabitants. The families are the basic building blocks. The building blocks are connected by means of the compadrazgo into a cooperating social unit. Strangers coming into the barrio are held in suspicion. In each barrio, there are age and sex groupings of the young people. The pre-school children play freely in the barrio watched by the eyes of all the adult inhabitants. Just before puberty, girls no longer play with boys but are more closely confined to the home. They then restrict their activities to the home, the church, and the school. Girls form small cliques that meet at church and visit each other's homes. Occasionally, they may clandestinely meet boys without parental knowledge, but very seldom do they go very far. Eyes in the barrio are always watching each girl. Her behavior can deeply touch the honor of every family member.

The boys can be graded roughly into three groupings. The first would consist of boys from 6 to 10 or 11. They are closely connected with their homes and seldom are out in the streets after dark.

The next group, composed of boys from 11 to about 13 or 14 already has more privileges. Some of them are beginning to smoke. A number have already experimented with sex. And a few have tried out marijuana. They tend to hang around the corners observing the older boys. Frequently, the older boys

will use them to run errands, watch for the coming of groups of boys from other barrios, and even to spy on the police.

The next and most important group of boys ranges from 15 to 20 or 21. This group of boys is the dominant group in the barrio. They know every inch of alley, roof top, road, canal, highway, or railroad. There is not a single foot of the barrio that is not under their scrutiny. They know the business, the reputation, and the activities of every member of every family in the neighborhood. They are not delinquent in the eyes of the neighborhood even though they do smoke, drink, and conduct activities in the eyes of the police that are regarded by Anglo Americans as delinquent.

It should be pointed out here that, from Denver down to the end of Patagonia in South America, the street corner is the poor man's club. The street corner is where the older boys congregate to watch the girls go by, comment on the day activities in the barrio, engage in endless talking, boasting, and hopeful comments about the future. Drinking takes place on the street, the planning of parties, and occasional fights with the boys of other barrios.

The barrios are almost totally isolated from the larger society, English is seldom heard. The inhabitants close to the border tend to listen to Mexican radio and to watch Mexican television programs. Mexican newspapers and magazines

circulate far more than do English language magazines. In barrios far from the border where local Spanish language stations and publications are not available, the people seldom tend to read the local papers and pay little attention to the English word.

Two Americans: Why So Different?

Fundamental differences exist between the basic value configurations of Mexican Americans on the one hand and Anglo Americans on the other. The failure of Anglo American professionals to realize this hard fact is responsible for considerable confusion, anger, prejudice, professional failure, and inability to predict Mexican American behavior. The discussion is simplified, as the very subtle differences that exist between the many diverse Spanish-speaking groups in the Southwest will be ignored.

Perhaps the attitude toward time is one of the most important cultural differences. Time to an Anglo American is a tangible element divided into past, present, and future. To the Mexican American, time is a current of life flowing without a stop from birth to death. The present is very important to the Anglo American, as it permits preparation for the future. There is no strong sense of a future among Mexican Americans. The most important division of time is the eternal present, and it should be used to enrich the quality of personal life. Because of the different attitudes toward time, Mexican Americans are often described as lazy and undependable. In turn Anglos are many times characterized as being chained to a time machine, unable to relax or to enjoy life.

A related value to time is the attitude toward employment. A man's job is his most important function among Anglo Amerieans. His social status, his standard of living and his prestige depend on his job. Unemployment and idleness are dreaded and cause personal disorganization. This attitude is inconceivable to Mexican Americans. To them, every man must work because that is how one supports one's family and functions as a male. Work is good only because it provides money for the essentials and the pleasures of life. Few people work as hard as the Mexican Americans. Work is an important value, but it is only one among other equally important values such as the family, friends, enjoyment of life, and cultivation of one's personal interests. All of these confer social status. Building up one's social capital is as important as building up monetary capital.

The average Anglo American is a natural optimist who believes that the future will inevitably be better than the past. He is oriented toward change which he defines as progress. Social problems can be resolved by manipulation of the social environment. The Anglo optimist believes that every problem has a solution and man, through science, can overcome all problems. If some problems resist solution, it is because certain men have failed.

The Mexican American is a cautious pessimist. He does not quite trust either the universe or his fellow men. Nature and the

future are somewhat inscrutable. Man himself is a mixture of both good and evil and it is not always possible to tell which will prevail. Although improvements in living conditions are enjoyed, the Mexican American is never sure that the future will be better than the past. His history has taught him that the future may well be worse than the present. Therefore, the present should be enjoyed fully. When the inevitable difficult days come, man can only resign himself, do what he can, and endure until the arrival of better times.

"Dignidad," translated as dignity, is one of the fundamental Mexican American values. It means that every individual, whatever his station in life, deserves to be treated with respect and consideration because he is a human being. A Mexican American who is scolded, cursed, or humiliated in front of other people will either withdraw completely from all voluntary participation in programs supervised by the offending individual or he will rebel or even seek revenge. Furthermore, every relative and friend will feel equally insulted.

Personalism is another value that is difficult for an Anglo American to understand or to accept. Anglos tend to react formally, objectively, and impersonally to people encountered during their occupational activities. Professionals of Anglo background categorize people in terms of their occupations,

their racial and ethnic group, and their social status. They also like neat, precise, and very tidy allocation of responsibility. Flow charts and tables of organization are dear to their hearts.

Mexican Americans are the despair of such Anglos. No human relationship is ever quite accepted among them unless it becomes warm, friendly, intimate, and personal. They find it impossible to stay within the confines of a chart outlining responsibilities and lines of communication. The impersonal behavior of Anglos is regarded as rude and uncivilized. To have any success, Anglos working with Mexican Americans must treat them in a warm, friendly and personal manner.

Competition, individualism, achievement, and success are fundamental Anglo American values. Anglo children are harried by admonitions that they must keep up with others in their intellectual, scholastic, emotional and physical development. If they do not, parents worry and children tend to feel inferior. They are taught that, through hard work and individual effort expressed through competition, success as measured by wealth, high social prestige, and power will be theirs. Winners gain applause and losers sink back into obscurity of failure. Almost every aspect of our economic, social, athletic, and even academic and scientific life is suffused with the idea of competition.

To Mexican Americans, the Anglo is cold, hard, materialistic,

and mechanistic. They find it impossible to accept the idea that all human relationships must be subordinated to the career of the male head of the family. Intimate friends, family relationships, responsibilities to dependents, and cultivation of an enjoyable life are more important to them than a successful career. They prefer a stable, well ordered universe in which every man has his assigned role and way of earning a living, to the uncertain, brisk, dangerous world of competition and change.

"Envidia," a form of social jealousy, is a concept extremely hard to define in English. It seriously handicaps the ability of Spanish-speaking people to organize or to develop effective leadership. Because of "envidia" a Mexican American who gains a higher social, educational, or economic level than the majority of his friends or relatives will often incur their hostility rather than their admiration. He will be accused of improving his position through exploiting or selling out his own people. Many qualified men are reluctant to accept leadership positions because of the "envidia" that will follow.

Mexican Americans have a strong reluctance to disrobe or attend to bodily functions in the presence of others, even those of the same sex. Both sexes feel that the body should be decently covered. A physical examination by a doctor of the opposite sex can be a disturbing experience. Mexican American children often prefer to suffer rather than tell the teacher that they

need to go to the bathroom. There is very little talk of sex in mixed company.

A "macho" is a real man. That is, he has dignity, honor, and integrity. He struggles to maintain his independence from the outside world. He must be independent, self-sufficient, and manly among men. He must stand behind his word. He must support his relatives and friends in all of their endeavors. He must defend his honor, even though it may mean his death. He should never complain or whimper at fate and accept what comes. He should marry and rear children. He should play whatever role life thrusts upon him and take what comes without complaint or quest for mercy. This is another value that is very hard for Anglo Americans to understand.

In summary, an Anglo American who would like to work successfully with Mexican American people should know something about their history, their social institutions, the socio-economic problems that beset them, and their values. If he is working with a Spanish-speaking group, he should try to learn the language. Even though his Spanish is poor, his clients will feel flattered because he is making an effort to learn their language. Every Anglo American working with Mexican Americans will be tested for his sincerity and real interest in the Spanish-speaking people. If he passes the test, he will be fully accepted. But he should realize that the Mexican Americans have an almost supernatural ability to detect prejudice, insincerity and hypocrisy.

Language: Learned or Absorbed?

Any language is a historical product, the result of thousands of years of development. Since it is also a social and cultural phenomenon, it will tend to reflect in various ways the history of the people who speak it. In order to understand the present linguistic situation of both Spanish and English speakers in Texas and the Southwest, we need first to understand some of the ways and some of the reasons historical events are reflected in a language.

One of the most constant factors in language, as in other aspects of human culture, is change. Change was largely considered a fact of life until the 18th century tastemakers, anxious to dictate standards of linguistic etiquette, branded it immoral. While their blandishment could no more stop change than King Canute could halt the tide, they could and did foster a set of erroneous ideas regarding language which still continue today and plague any attempt to understand the nature of linguistic change.

In order to understand how and why linguistic change occurs, we must first direct our attention to its source. Every normal child is born with a built-in capacity for the acquisition of language. It is a common place observation that every child, whatever his racial background, will grow up learning to speak the language of those around him. Racial differences have no

causal effect in language-learning or pronunciation ability. Conversely, social group is quite a different matter. However, no child learns the language of his elders exactly. This is so because of the way the child learns his language.

Studies of child language acquisitions have shown that children, simply by listening to those around them talk, somehow--in a way not yet understood--manage to develop a personal theory of the way the language is organized grammatically, what distinctive sounds (phonemes) to use, and what individual words mean. It is this theory or internalized grammer, which guides their linguistic behavior at an unconscious level, and determines what words they use, in what position and with what grammatical functions. Now it follows that since no two children will have heard exactly the same sentences spoken, their personal theories of the language will not be completely identical, even if they are identical twins. (Nor will they be identical with the internalized grammar possessed by adults in the community, since these were in turn based on the speech of the preceding generation.)

As children come together in play groups, peer group pressure and the prestige of individuals in the group lead to the modification or individual theories and the emergence of group norms of usage in grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary. Groups of children who are isolated from one another, whether by distance or social barriers, will often naturally develop

slightly different norms of usage. It is then basically these two factors, individual theory function, are social group pressure for conformity, which are ultimately responsible for most of the change that takes place in language.

As successive generations of children mature with their slightly modified norms of pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary use, the linguistic divergence between different areas of social classes will gradually accumulate until marked variations are observable. Thus, in English, some areas or groups may pronounce cot and caught alike while others keep them separate; some use dived, while others use dove; and some use pail, while others use bucket (or retain both terms and give them different meanings). Similarly in Spanish, some areas or groups pronounce cocer and coser alike, while others keep them separate; some say vi as the past tense of ver, while others retain vide; and some use palo while others use árbol. When such differences have come to exist, we may speak of different regional dialects or social dialects of a language. If one dialect is spoken by the more socially prominent members of a community, we may speak of a prestige dialect. And if there are marked differences between the speech of older and younger members of a community, we may even speak of age dialects. It should be evident that the term dialect, as here used, implies no pejorative sense, but is used simply to refer to any distinguishable variety within a given language.

If dialects are separated from one another for a sufficiently long period of time, they will become mutually unintelligible, and in effect are different languages. Thus, for example, the expansion of the Roman Empire carried the dialect of Rome, known as Latin, all over southern Europe. Today, the descendants of these original settlers throughout this territory speak an enormous number of different regional and social dialects. Those living close together, where contact has been maintained, are not so different that communication is not possible, but more distant dialects are mutually unintelligible. Persons living on either side of the French-Italian or French-Spanish borders would have less trouble communicating with someone directly across the border than with someone from the opposite end of their own country. And persons from Paris, Florence, or Madrid cannot readily understand one another despite the fact that what each speaks is merely a particular dialect of Latin. No one today would seriously agree that the Frenchman should give up his dialect for that of Madrid or Florence, nor that the Spaniard should abandon his speech for that of Lisbon or Paris, for each dialect is now securely accepted within its own political territory. If we were to equate change with corruption, we might consider Spanish, Portuguese, French, Italian and Rumanian to be corrupt Latin, but Latin itself was but a dialect of an earlier language and so on ad infinitum, so that it is clearly evident that change is merely a normal

event in the life of a language and is neither good nor bad, improvement nor corruption, but simply change.

It may happen that because of the political, economic, social, and cultural domination of an area by a particular city, the dialect of that city (and of the most socially promient speakers within it) acquires prestige and becomes the medium for official pronouncments, literature, and even education. When this occurs, we may speak of a "standard language," recognizing that this "standard" is but itself a dialect, with no more claim to inherent purity or superiority than any other. Thus in English, the upper class dialect of London became the basic for modern "standard English" (other dialects held prominence at earlier times); in France, the upper class dialect of Paris became the basis for "standard French;" in the Iberian Peninusula, the dialect of Madrid became the basis of "standard Spanish," while another dialect, that of Lisbon, became "standard Portuguese" when the province became politically independent from Madrid.

When this happens, a myth may develop that the prestige dialect of the city is the "pure" language, and that all other dialects are corruptions of this dialect. From a historical point of view we can see that all of the dialects are equally old and equally valid, but persons who are ignorant of language history and the nature of dialect development are apt to make false judgments on the basis of current social conditions. Somewhat

ironically, it is usually the dialect of the city, and of the upper class within the city, which has changed the most from the original form of the language. Contrary to the usual view, the rural areas away from the influence of the cities are most apt to be linguistically conservative and to preserve forms which have passed from use in urban centers.

When a group separates itself and moves to a new area, it takes with it the language in use at that time. If it loses contact with the homeland, it will cease to participate in linguistic changes which take place there after the separation occurs. Thus it is that both New World Spanish and New World English preserve forms and pronunciations which have subsequently passed out of use in Madrid and London. Those cultural and political centers in the New World which maintained close contact with the mother country continued in many cases to participate in the on-going changes in the speech of the capital. And from these centers in turn, the latest innovations radiated out into the hinterland. But in the rural areas where this influence did not penetrate, the innovations failed to strike root. As a result, rural-urban dialect distinction began to appear in the newly colonized lands.

The experiences of people in a new environment always call forth new terms to label, describe, and express these experiences. Where these experiences also involve close contact with new cultural and linguistic groups, the need for new terms may be partly satisfied by the borrowing of vocabulary from native

groups. While English settlers in New England borrowed skunk and squash from their Algonkian neighbors, Spaniards in Mexico adopted tomate, chocolate, mesquite, nopal, cuate, tocayo, and a host of other terms from the Aztecs whom they subjugated. Elsewhere in the New World the same process was repeated as French, Portuguese, English, Dutch, and Spanish settlers came into contact with various Indian groups.

Within only a few years of the Spanish conquest of the Aztec capital of Tenochtitlan, explorers and settlers were streaming north to find new lands to conquer and cultivate. Some areas were settled quite early, and others much later.

The settlements generally emenated from Central Mexico. Today, corresponding to these settlements, we can define a North Mexican dialect area, which stretches across the broad expanse of Northern Mexico and includes the states of Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, and California.

The Spanish spoken at the present time in these states is therefore simply part of this Northern Mexican dialect. A knowledge of differences in the settlement history of parts of Northern Mexico, and such studies as have been made, suggest that an east-west subdivision of this dialect area will be necessary, with even further refinements as more is known about these dialects. There are differences, for example, between the Spanish of El Paso and that of San Antonio, which suggest that these communities belong to

different dialect sub-areas. Until more fieldwork has been undertaken to study these dialects, however, nothing more definitive may be said.

In general, however, although the dialects of Northern Mexico have developed their own regional norms, they have also been relatively conservative and have tended to retain forms which have been displaced in metropolitan centers since the settlement of this area took place.

The artificial political boundary which today lies across this dialect area has had relatively little effect on the language. It has nevertheless created a great many erroneous impressions which have unfortunately prevented an objective assessment. The terms Tex-Mex, pocho, and "corrupt mixture" have been used to label the Spanish spoken in this area, the implication always being that it is different in some real fashion from the Spanish spoken just across the international border.

That this is not so, and that it is a fully developed variety of the language, forming a subdialect of North Mexican Spanish, has been amply demonstrated by recent studies. Such differences as do exist are largely a matter of vocabulary, and these can be readily understood against the background of the situation in which the language and its speakers now exist.

For more items of culture which existed prior to 1900, there are appreciable differences in terminology between Texas and

Northern Mexico. As the massive influx of new technological and cultural innovations began after World War I, Spanish speakers living on the American side of the border first learned of them from the English-speaking community, and so adopted the English terms of them. At the same time, Mexican communities along the border frequently had closer contact with their counterpart communities in Texas than they did with the interior of Mexico, so they were likewise receptive to English borrowed words. However, as communication with their interior improved, more and more innovations began reaching the Mexican side of the border <u>from within Mexico</u>, often fully equipped with a Spanish or Hispanicized term.

Since these items continued to come into the experience of Spanish speakers in Texas, with English labels attached, the created impression has been that in adopting such terms they were not speaking "good" Spanish, since alternative Spanish terms existed in Mexico. The fallacy of such a view can be seen at once, particularly when it is recognized that they had little opportunity to learn the term being used in Mexico. Something which is also often not recognized is that many of these borrowings have spread into Northern Mexico and are accepted there as part of the regional dialect.

This heavy borrowing of vocabulary has occurred repeatedly in history wherever two groups speaking different languages have

come into contact for any prolonged period of time. Thus English at an earlier date borrowed thousands of words from French without being "corrupted" or losing any of its inherent characteristic as English. At a later date, English speakers in Texas and the Southwest borrowed much of the vocabulary of the ranching culture, along with the culture of the Spanish speakers who had developed it. Seen in its proper perspective then, the situation is quite a normal and natural one and poses no threat to the integrity of the Spanish used within the state. In a bilingual program, students should learn the terms used elsewhere in the Spanish-speaking world, but not at the expense of relinquishing the terms they know and use comfortably. They should be made to feel confident in their use of the language, and not be made to feel that there is something "wrong" in the use of loan words.

Some attention needs to be paid to the nature of the English which confronts Spanish speakers in Texas, because of the importance of such information to the teacher. The English dialects spoken in Texas have their roots, for the most part in the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth century dialects of England and Scotland. The settlement history of the eastern United States brought about the formation of several strongly differentiated regional dialects which were carried westward by the great migrations of the last century. Four major dialect areas: the Northern, the Southern, North Midland, and

South Midland (upper South) are conventionally recognized. These are distinguished by only slight differences in grammar, but by major differences in vocabulary and pronunciation. The English-speaking settlement of Texas brought Southern speakers into East Texas and South Midland speakers into most of the rest of the state and eastern New Mexico. A notable feature of Southern and South Midland dialects is that no distinction is made between pin and pen, tin and ten, and similar words. The railroad from Denver brought Northern and North Midland speakers into central New Mexico and the El Paso region, so that this area differs sharply from the rest of Texas. A distinctive feature of North Midland speech is the failure to distinguish such pairs as merry-marry, hoarse-horse, and caught-cot. Finally, the South Texas area, from Corpus Christi to Brownsville, and especially the Lower Rio Grande Valley, did not receive any appreciable Anglo settlement until after 1920, when large numbers of settlers moved in from all over Texas and the Midwest, producing a linguistic amalgom of North and South Midland speech which sets the area off as a separate dialect area of its own.

These backgrounds are important to understand for in the classroom confrontation of English and Spanish we are not dealing with a unitary phenomenon, but rather one varied in different ways by the dialects of the teacher and the student. These facts must be recognized in any bilingual

program as well as the fact that differences in dialect should be appreciated and respected for what they are, and not treated as marks of corruption, inferiority, or lack of intelligence. The teacher must recognize that her dialect, be it South Midland, North Midland, Northern, or a mixture of these, is not the only acceptable one, and that other dialects are equally valid. At the same time, a knowledge of the social dialects of the region is important in order to understand how they differ among themselves, so that students who do not use the prestige dialect may be led in the most effective way possible to develop productive control of it. Finally, predicting and preparing for the second-language-learning problems of students must begin with a knowledge of their native dialect, which for them, is their language.

Linguistics and Bilingual Programs

Every child learns language from other members of the group of which he is a part. As all systems of language are shared by members of the social group, they learn sounds which are understood and produced by others in the group, acquiring all the sounds used in the group's language and excluding sounds which are not used in the group. Any child having normal vocal mechanism is physically capable of learning any sound produced in any language. Whether or not he learns a sound depends upon whether his group uses it as a distinctive feature of group language. Similarly, a child gradually acquires the grammatical structures used by his group while excluding all grammatical possibilities not used in his language.

Meanings are also socially shared. A child learns the subtle nuances of meanings of words, by trial and error and by testing hard meanings against those used by other members of his group in actual communication. As patterns of behavior within family units differ from group to group, language patterns also vary depending on geographical location, occupation, and socio-economic status. Further, it should be added that the child knows all the language he needs to communicate with other members of his own group about everything in his culture which is important to him. Thus, studies have been erroneous in assuming that there are standard sets of sounds, structures,

or meanings that all children can be held responsible for knowing. The child has neither responsibility nor opportunity for learning any form not used in his particular group.

Research has indicated that language development is faster in upper socio-economic groups, leading to the belief that this acceleration is due to the family's participation in outside activities. The greater the child's opportunity to participate in varied activities, particularly with members of another social group, the greater the verbal ability of the child will be. Poverty of language, then, is poverty of cultural input rather than native verbal ability.

The child's ability to participate in the activities of the school depends upon his ability to use the language of the school. Schools identify many children, particularly those from varying ethnic and cultural groups, as having little or no verbal ability. The reason lies in the school's inability to tune-in on the language code the child knows; to bridge the communication gap to the language which has proved to be an effective communication tool for the child. The alienation felt by a child unable to communicate freely with the school can well be imagined.

Linguists have pointed out frequently that children do not learn language by mastering isolated items in the language. Rather, they learn the systems of language--the grammar. The

child is not conscious of the systems he has mastered, but by analogy he is able to create new forms he has neither heard nor produced before, based on the systems he knows.

Two kinds of language competency must be considered. A speaker of any language has a receptive competence which allows him to decode what is said to him by another person. He also has a productive capacity which equips him to encode messages, to put them into language. An individual's capacity to receive and decode language is greater than his ability to produce or encode. Consequently, most individuals can hear more than they can say, can read more than they can write. The implication of this statement for the school is clear. The fact that a child can understand what is said does not insure that he can produce the same form, even in direct imitation. A great deal more training goes into developing a child's productive capacity for language than his receptive capacity.

Testing and evaluation services are now conceding their inability to assess fairly and accurately the verbal ability of a child whose language differs significantly from that of the school. Certainly teachers should be aware of the implications of dialect, language, and culture variance in testing. Other factors to be considered carefully in a school's assessment of a child's verbal ability are the expressive dimensions

of the child's culture such as narrative style and linguistic clues. Gathering information about children's stories, songs, and attitudes gives an insight into the productive verbal ability of a child not gathered on a test restricted to norms based only on school language. These narrative styles will differ not only from group to group but from one age level to another. Not only is this folklore valuable for testing, it provides a base upon which educational experiences can be built. One can take a pupil at child level or teenage level and build oral expression in the verbal strengths which already exist.

Uriel Weinreich has said that "Language contact is considered by some anthropologists as but one aspect of culture contact, and language interference as a facet of culture diffusion and acculturation." The individual who communicates only with members of his own group finds little interference. Every new social contact, however, brings about a need for new language skills. The new language may be no different from his own than a slightly higher vowel sound or a vocabulary item typical of the region or social group, or it may be as different as an entirely new language. The truly bilingual individual is one who can participate freely in two or more groups with equal facility and efficiency. Since, as Weinreich said, language contact is a part of culture contact, studies in language contrast should be based on studies of cultural patterns, among the language.

Educators have long debated how difficult the process of teaching a child to become bilingual would be. It is suggested that learning two separate codes would be confusing and that the learner's education would be retarded in the process. To be sure, asking a child to master two languages or two dialects does place additional responsibility upon him. But then, a far more serious one is that which requires him to participate in groups other than his own without the necessary tools for effective communication.

Modern techniques of teaching foreign languages have, as a rationale, repeated experiences with language acquisition, these experiences being as nearly natural as possible. Such a rationale would require the teacher to be realistic about the fact that a child has had some six years of language learning before he comes to school, and that the school's job is to add to the language experience the child brings with him. At age six a child is able to learn a great deal of language far more rapidly than later. The linguistic material which he is expected to learn, however, must be pre-adjusted before input and frequent opportunity must be provided to repeat the oral forms learned. Linguists are agreed that the school's major responsibility is to teach a formal style rather than an informal one because the former is more difficult to learn and also more useful. Also, there is less opportunity at home and in play with peers for the child to practice the

formal style. Though in reality, the child will use both formal and informal styles, he should be taught to keep them separate, knowing when each is appropriate.

The one factor in reading readiness that has a large effect on reading ability is that the reader sees the relationship of the sounds he already makes and the graphemes on the page. It would stand to reason then, that a child would be better instructed if the graphemes he encounters represent the sounds of his own native language rather than the sounds of another language. For this reason, the bilingual program suggested here would begin reading instruction in the child's native language and go on to reading instruction in the second language when he has oral control of that language. Critics of this program have said that the child would then be learning to read twice; an unjustified statement for two reasons: First, he is learning important skills of reading in either language, such as visual acuity, left-to-right eye movements, and grapheme-phoneme relationships. These skills transfer readily to reading in the second language. The second reason the criticism is unjustified is that expecting a child speaking one language to read in another is not giving him a chance to read at all. The choice here is not so much which language he learns to read in, but whether he has a fair chance to read at all. Two distinct advantages in teaching the child to read first in his native language and later in a second language

are: that he becomes literate in two languages, an advantage denied in programs beginning reading only in English, and that literacy is not delayed while the child is learning the second language orally.

Any school program should have at its foundation, the principle that it takes the cultural and language experiences the child brings to school and build upon them additional skills and experiential understandings. Beginning such instruction in the child's native language is using his native language and native culture as an entry into enlarged experience. In such a program, the child always feels he has something of himself--and his culture--to share. His own experiences are worthy of consideration and he has a definte place in the school.

Methods and Techniques for Second Language Teaching

Language is learned social behavior. The child learning his native tongue first hears and gradually comes to understand the signals conveyed by the sounds of that language. He then learns by mimicry to produce the sounds and eventually to string them together in meaning-bearing sequence. He learns his first language almost below the level of awareness.

Quite the reverse is true when the child learns a second language, particularly if his exposure to the second language is delayed until he starts to school. He must begin again the process of hearing sounds, interpreting them, and memorizing them. This time his learning is not the normal growth process that the original language learning was; he is very aware of the fact that he is learning.

Learning a second language is a complex and time-consuming process. Many variables affect the rate and effectiveness of such learning:

- The degree to which the first language has been mastered
- The similarity of the situations in which the two are learned and used
- The age of the learner
- The learner's socio-economic background

When the child whose native language is not English is introduced to English speech and reading, he brings with him experiences, some of which are helpful, to the learning task. Normally, he will have the ability to use the basic patterns of sound and structure of his native language as well as a body of vocabulary items related to his experiences and environment. He may also have some listening and speaking experiences in English which give him a limited knowledge of the basic sounds and structural patterns of English and a limited number of English words related to his experiences at home.

Working with the child's limited knowledge of the spoken English language, and in some cases no knowledge at all, the classroom teacher must teach him to understand, speak, read, and write English. The teacher's success is dependent on several factors.

- He must be truly aware of the fact that he is teaching a second language;
- He will need to be constantly aware of the fact that his pupils must learn to speak before they can read and that they can only read within the range of their speaking ability;
- He will need to adopt techniques that are effective in second language teaching;

- He will need to create or utilize experiences in which the need for speaking the second language is present;
- He will need to help children develop automatic control and fluency in the use of patterns of sounds and structure;
- He will need to develop systematically a vocabulary suited to the needs of the child--after the child has control of basic structural patterns;
- He will probably find it more valuable to concentrate on understanding the culture of his pupils, and then building upon their positive values, than to force a new culture on them.

General Suggestions for Language Teaching

As an aid in teaching the language skills, the following suggestions are offered:

1. Carefully plan your classes (teaching) in advance, but always leave room for flexibility.
2. Alert pupils to your (and their) objectives and how these objectives will be attained.
3. Approach the language as a practical tool, something to talk about.
4. Talk about, read about, write about topics of interest to your students.
5. Always keep in mind the differences between assimilation of theory and practical application.
6. Insist that students keep their books closed during presentation and practice.
7. Encourage all students to participate--instead of yielding to the temptation to call on outstanding pupils only.
8. Differentiate between the hearer and the speaker as you train pupils only.
9. Teach only one thing at a time, such as new vocabulary in an old pattern of structure or a new pattern of structure with learned vocabulary, practice on a particular sound problem or a persistent problem in written work.
10. Teach phrases or sentences (utterances) instead of

isolated words.

11. Correct mistakes in pronunciation immediately.
12. Do not emphasize errors. Be positive--call for choral (class) correction of mistakes before asking the student to correct his error.
13. Give praise for correct answers.
14. Clarify meanings of words to avoid confusion and to save time.
15. Use visual aids, cues, and dramatizations to explain meanings.
16. Always make use of something "old" when you are teaching something new.
17. Avoid lengthy discussion of grammatical points. Too much analysis of grammar kills interest. On the other hand, too little may cause uncalled for confusion, especially on the part of older students.
18. Let reading and writing assignments be on familiar material.
19. Do not ask students to write things they cannot say.
20. Give assignments that are helpful to students; do not be guilty of asking for "busy work."
21. When giving a new assignment, always explain fully what is expected and how it is to be carried out. Give models of assignment.
22. Encourage each student to keep a record or compilation of his work so he can judge his own progress.

23. Do not judge a student's ability solely on the basis of his written work.

24. Remember the importance of review and provide for it periodically.

25. Do not expect your pupils to know as much about the language as you do. You are not in the teacher-training business.

Effective Techniques

It is essential that the teacher strive constantly to learn about and to utilize new or revised methods. When the structural framework of a language has been learned using a limited number of words, the required vocabulary can easily be added. This is not to suggest that the vocabulary is not important; the question is only one of initial emphasis and perspective. The following techniques described have been selected for their known effectiveness in language learning situations.

Listening and Speaking

I. Listening Experiences

Before the child can understand the spoken word, he must learn to listen carefully. Purposeful listening experiences should be provided from the very beginning.

Students must be trained to listen not only for understanding, but also to be able to reproduce the sounds and intonation patterns of the language. Such activities can include:

- Teacher and pupil use of the language for the daily routine and classroom directions.
- Increased use of a variety of recorded materials
- Listening to resource persons
- Radio and television programs
- Games, which require attentive listening

II. Presentation of a Language Pattern

One major device to teach sounds and new items of language structure is the presentation of simple language patterns. Vocabulary is also taught by making simple substitutions in the basic language patterns.

These steps may be used in an oral presentation.

- Say the basic sentence clearly and distinctly several times at normal speed.
- Indicate meaning of words or situations by pictures, gestures, action, or simple explanations (translations).
- Have students listen carefully before they repeat in chorus.
- Have the pupils repeat the patterns after you. This enables you to listen for and hear problems

as you walk around the classroom.

- Model the sentence pattern repeatedly.
- Give remedial pronunciation practice for any words causing difficulty.
- Have pupils practice in isolation only those words that pose pronunciation problems, and then re-practice them in context.
- After students have "mastered" the sentence pattern orally, have them practice reading it.

III. Dialogues

A dialogue is a simple conversation between two or more people. It is built around an everyday (real) situation in which the student understands, identifies with, and enjoys. Dialogue practice offers practice in pronunciation and structure, and also provides other specific values:

- From the beginning, the child learns to use language as a means of communication.
- All that is learned is meaningful. What is learned in one part of a dialogue often makes meaning clear to another.
- The pupil finds a personal interest in what he is saying and a possible use far beyond the classroom for the expressions which he masters.
- Time is not wasted on isolated words and isolated sentences that may be credited with logical meaning but are devoid of psychological meaning.

The following questions may be used as criteria by the teacher in his selection of dialogue material:

- Is the dialogue short, interesting, and meaningful?
- Does it contain simple phrases and patterns for mastery?
- Is it developed around a real situation on the child's interest and emotional level?
- Does it allow for intensive practice of basic structural patterns and insure a high quality of language development?
- Does it in some way reflect or transmit ideas of the culture of the people who speak the foreign language natively?

When teaching a dialogue, these suggestions are helpful:

- Use appropriate facile expressions and gestures in the presentation so that children will get the feel of what they memorize.
- Make use of pictures, props, puppets, or other visual aids necessary to clarify ideas.
- Change positions each time there is a change of speakers.
- Re-present the dialogue sentence-by-sentence for added comprehension and repetition practice.
- Walk around the room and require the children to repeat the sentences of the dialogue by the use of hand motions.
- Give correction to errors through choral repetition

drill of correct forms.

- Always cultivate the habit of clear and quick responses.
- Know that a dialogue has been mastered when most of the students can participate at a moment's notice and the entire dialogue can be said from beginning to end at a normal tempo without hesitation or mistakes.

By selecting well-organized and appropriate dialogues and applying well-sequenced steps in their presentation, the teacher can improve his results considerably. He must remember that through the medium of dialogue practice, he is teaching his students to become independent in the use of the simple forms in natural hearer-speaker situations.

Students in the higher levels may be led to create their own dialogues. Whole expressions and parts of dialogues that have been memorized previously may be used as a basis for developing the new dialogue.

IV. Pronunciation Drills

Every teacher of English serves as a model for pronunciation. If he teaches Spanish-speaking children, it is important that he become well acquainted with the sound structure of English and with the ways in which it contrasts with Spanish. This knowledge enables him to predict pronunciation problems and to select or prepare drills for their solution.

Several techniques are suggested for preparing drills for pronunciation practice:

- Contrast words with the same beginning and ending consonants but with varying vowel sounds:

  but bought boat

- Contrast words having the same vowel sounds, but with varying final consonants:

  hat had has

- Contrast words containing the same consonants in different positions in the words:

  tan attack cut

- Develop recognition drills of similar words with contrasting vowel or consonant sounds:

  heed hid head had
  sheep cheap ship chip

- Give interesting and practical explanations or drills as to how difficult sounds are made:

  - By comparing unfamiliar sounds to noises familiar to students, such as:

    s _____ sound of a serpent

    sh_____ "hushing" sound

    h _____ whispering any vowel that follows h

    z _____ buzzing sound of a bee

    ch_____ sound of train engine

  - By using simple illustrations, as "the motor in

throat," to distinguish between voiced and voiceless sounds, such as:

f v

t . . . . d

s . . . . z

p . . . . b

- Lead students to form their own pronunciation rules after they have been taught inductively a number of examples.
  - Formation of the past tense ending in -ed
  - Formation of plurals

These procedures may help the teacher in presenting pronunciation drills more effectively:

- Model a pair of contrasting words or a sentence.
- Have class repeat in unison.
- Repeat the same pair of words or sentence, pointing to an individual student to repeat after you.
- Model the second pair of words or the second sentence and follow the same procedure. Do the same with subsequent words and sentences.

V. Pattern Drill

Pattern drills are used to enable students to gain control of the spoken language without resorting to elaborate grammatical dissections and descriptions. Students learn

structural points through use and have a context for practice of vocabulary. They develop automatic responses and manipulation of structure without conscious thought.

Pattern drills provide for the learning of new forms in patterns of old familiar forms and for practice of familiar forms in different combinations.

New vocabulary and structural points are learned in oral pattern practice, and familiar structures and vocabulary can be practiced in oral (reading) or written reinforcement exercises.

In short, a pattern drill is one in which the pattern (frame or utterance) is given orally to pupils and is repeated or is changed into a variation of the pattern by the pupils. The form given to pupils is a meaningful pattern of speech; if it is changed, the form to which it is changed is also a meaningful pattern of speech. The drills may be read and written after they have been mastered orally.

Pattern drills to present new materials or to practice familiar materials should be based on the following principles:

- The drill should include as much of the text material as possible.
- The drill should be contextually oriented.
- The drill should be structurally oriented: (1) it should concentrate on one structure, or (2) where several structures are involved, there should be a consistent

pattern of change.

- The drill should provide for sufficient practice to result in a grasp of the salient points of vocabulary or structure drilled.

There needs to be a distinction between pattern drills for practice and those for presentation. In the former case, pupils drill already known forms or vocabulary in different combinations; in the latter case, they are learning new structural forms or vocabulary. Certain types of pattern drills may be used for both presentation and practice, and some for practice only.

Pattern drills for presenting new structural points include:

- Repetition drills (may also be used to present new vocabulary)
- Restatement or relay drills (directed dialogue)
- Transformation drills
- Replacement or substitution drills
- Integration drills
- Expansion drills
- Contraction drills

Pattern drills for practice may include all the above, plus:

- Patterned response drills, in question and answer form
- Progressive drills
- Substitution in a series of patterns
- Drill in rejoinder-response

- Combined substitution and transformation drills
- Completion drills
- Translation drills
- Variation drills

When constructing a drill, the teacher must decide its function. Is the drill to present a new point or does it drill familiar items? In presenting new points of structure or vocabulary, it is important to remember that:

- New vocabulary is introduced through repetition drills.
- New structural points may be introduced through various drills.
- Drills designed to present new structural points must show the function of the forms to be learned.
- Only one new structural point is to be introduced in a drill. The change from the pattern supplied by the teacher to the pattern given by the student should involve only a single change.
- Pupils should be given sufficient drill in one form of the structural item (example: this) before going on to the next form of the item (example: these).

Teachers need to observe these reminders when selecting pattern drills in published form:

- Structural items involving new words, as well as vocabulary items, must be presented through repetition.

- Repetition drills of irregular verbs should be followed by or be interspersed with substitution and directed-dialogue drills.
- All items presented through repetition drills should also be practiced through other drills such as substitution, transformation and integration, expansion, and contraction drills.
- Where several types of drill are combined, it is important that only one of the elements be a new structural item.

When conducting drills, the teacher will find these suggestions helpful:

- The teacher gives one or two examples of the original pattern and its variant which the class repeats.
- Pupils must be told the type of change to be made and how to make it. (Give example).
- When pupils have grasped the principle of the change, the teacher gives only the cue. Pupils, individually or in groups, are required to recite patterns using the new cue.
- When pupils falter, they should be prompted, preferably in a "stage whisper."
- The number of sentences given pupils will vary with the structure presented, the ability of pupils to respond, and the items needed to secure coverage. As many as eight utterances of a single form may be necessary.

- A grammatical explanation is given briefly before or after the drill, depending on the degree of grammatical difficulty. For most structures, the explanation is given after the initial drill, when pupils have grasped the point. The drill is then resumed.

Types of Pattern Drills

The structure drills which follow are only representative sample types of pattern practice which have been effective in language learning both in the classroom and in the language laboratory.*

A. Repetition Drills:

The student repeats an utterance aloud after the teacher. He does this with his book closed. The utterance must be clear and brief. This drill is especially helpful in presenting new items.

Example for English as a Second Language:

Teacher	Student
Today is Monday.	Today is Monday.
Today is Tuesday.	Today is Tuesday.
Today is Wednesday.	Today is Wednesday.
Today is Thursday.	Today is Thursday.
Today is Friday.	Today is Friday.
Today is Saturday.	Today is Saturday.

Example for Spanish as a Second Language:

Teacher	Student
Hoy es lunes.	Hoy es lunes.
Hoy es martes.	Hoy es martes.
Hoy es miércoles.	Hoy es miércoles.
Hoy es jueves.	Hoy es jueves.
Hoy es viernes.	Hoy es viernes.
Hoy es sábado.	Hoy es sábado.

For an effective repetition practice, observe these cautions.

- Models for repetition should always ge given correctly using natural intonation.
- Repetition periods should not be too long.
- Repetition periods should not be too far apart.
- Repetition must be carried on until the habit is fixed and the student can respond automatically.

B. Inflection Drills:

One word in the utterance appears in another form when repeated.

Example:

Teacher	
I have the book.	I have the books.
I need the paper.	We need the paper.
We work at school.*	We worked at school.

Inflection of one word may require inflection of another.

Teacher	Student
He brought <u>his</u> car.	They brought <u>their</u> <u>cars</u>.
We like this <u>man</u>.	We like <u>these</u> <u>men</u>.

C. <u>Substitution Drills</u>:

Substitution drills have three parts:

- A frame - a model utterance that the students repeat to begin the drill
- A cue - an element to be substituted in a certain slot in the frame
- A response - a second utterance made by combining a cue with the model utterance and so on through the drill

Model utterance: Tengo papel

Slot: Tengo

Cue: Dinero

Second utterance: Tengo dinero

* In most of the sample drills, an inadequate number of frames (utterances) are given. For actual classroom usage, longer drills will be needed for students to achieve mastery. Any

of the linguistically oriented texts will give you a deeper understanding of the exact "proportions" of an authentic pattern drill.

When using substitution drills, follow these steps:

- Give the initial utterance.
- Have entire class repeat it in chorus three or four times.
- Give the first cue.
- Have class, group, or one student make the new utterance with the cue in the correct slot.
- Continue through all the cues in the drill, making sure to maintain a rapid pace.

Substitution drills are of a variety of types:

1. Person-Number Substitution:

   The cues indicate changes in gender, person, and number. This is a very effective drill for the practice of verb forms.

   Example:

Teacher	Student
Compro papel.	Compro papel.
Nosotros_____.	Compramos papel.
El _____.	Compra papel.
Ellos _____.	Compran papel.

2. Item Subatitution Drills:

The cues call for the subatitution of an item involving gender or number or both. Only one word in the sentence changes. This drill is very effective with nouns, adjectives, pronouns, possessives, etc.

Example:

Teacher	Student
John is sick.	John is sick.
_____ American.	John is American.
_____ tall.	John is tall.
_____ here.	John is here.

3. Double-Item Substitution Drills:

Cues are given for total alternating slots (words) instead of for the same one throughout the drill.

Example:

Teacher	Student
El está enfermo hoy.	El está enfermo hoy.
_____ahora.	El está enfermo ahora.
_____cansado_____.	El está cansado ahora.
María _____.	María está cansada ahora.
_____aqui _____.	María está aquí ahora.

4. Replacement Drills.

One word in an utterance is replaced by another. (Only <u>one</u> substitution is made at a time.)

Example:

Teacher	Student
I read the book daily.	I read it daily.
John gets up early.	He gets up early.
We gave our maid a present.	We gave her a present.

Replacement and inflection are often combined.

Example:

Teacher	Student
This is new.	These are new.
Mary has her pen.	She had per pen.

5. Progressive Replacement Drills:

An utterance is made; one additional word is given which is fitted into the utterance; another is given which is fitted into the last utterance.

Example:

Teacher	Student
She found her watch.	She found her watch.
(key)	She found her key.
(he)	He found his key.
(lost)	He lost his key.
(we)	We lost our key.
(book)	We lost our book.
(I)	I lost my book.
(brought)	I brought my book.

In another useful drill involving progressive change, a replacement is made alternately in one of two words (or slots) in the sequence.

Example:

They see the man.

They knew the man.

They knew the waiter.

They tip the waiter.

They tip the waitress.

They ask the waitress.

They ask the price.

D. Completion Drills:

The student hears an utterance that is complete except for one word and then repeats the utterance in completed form.

Example:

Teacher	Student
I have my book and you_____.	I have my book and yours.
They have_____own car.	They have their own car.

E. Expansion Drills:

A word is added which takes a certain place in the sequence.

Example:

Teacher	Student
Lo conocí (bien)	Lo conocí bien.
Lo conozco. (apenas)	Apenas lo conozco.

F. Contraction Drills:

A single word stands for a phrase or clause.

Example:

Teacher	Student
Place the book on the table.	Place the book there.
We hope they will help us.	We hope so.

G. Transformation Drills:

A sentence is transformed by being made negative or interrogative or through changes in tense, voice, mood, aspect, or modality. Such drills are accompanied by a cue that points to the desired transformation.

Example:

Teacher	Student
(knows)	She knows my name.
(doesn't)	She doesn't know my name.
(does)	Does she know my name?
(used to)	She used to know my name.

H. Integration Drills:

Two separate utterances are integrated into one.

Example:

Teacher	Student
We must work. This is important.	It is important that we work.
I like that girl. She is helping you.	I like the girl who is helping you.

I. Rejoinder Drills:

The student makes an appropriate response to a given utterance. He is told in advance to answer in one of the following ways:

Be polite.

Example:

Gracias.	De nada.
¿Cómo estás?	Muy bien.
¿Qué día es hoy?	Hoy es viernes.

Agree.

Example:

They are lost.	I think you're right.
This is a pretty coat.	It's very pretty.

Agree emphatically.

Example:

Pretty good coffee, isn't it?	It's very good.
That was smart of us.	It certainly was.

Express surprise.

Example:

Voy a la fiesta.	¿De veras?
Quebré el plato.	¿Quebraste el plato?

Express regret.

Example:

John is absent.	That's too bad.
She missed the flight.	What a shame!

Disagree Emphatically.

Example:

Tienes hambre.	¡No tengo nada de hambre!
Después entenderás.	¡Nunca jamás!

Disagree.

Example:

Me gustó la comida.	No me gustó.
Estamos seguros que es listo.	No lo creo.

Question what is said.

Example:

She plays the piano beautifully.	It's impossible.
She is older than her husband.	I can't believe it.

Fail to understand.

Example:

That's a lot of talk.	What did you say?
That's one for the book.	I don't get it.

J. Restoration Drills:

The student is given a sequence of words that have been called from a sentence, but still bearing its basic meaning. He uses these words with little changes and additions to restore the sentence to original form. He may be told whether the time is present, past, or future.

Example:

students/wait/bus	The students are waiting for the bus.
girl/buys/purse	The girl bought a purse.

VI. Dialogue Adaptation

The objective of dialogue adaptation is to relate the dialogue sentences and situation to the personal experience of the students. The technique consists of questions and answers that are based on the dialogue, and it may be used as soon as the appropriate parts of the basic dialogue have been fairly well learned by the students.

The following are suggestions for presenting dialogue adaptation:

- The question-answer process is first practiced between teacher and students.
- When a phrase becomes familiar, direct one student to ask the question of the student next to him.

- After answering, this student in turn may ask the student next to him.
- This "chain drill" ends after several students have participated.
- Introduce a new question.
- Do not hesitate to interrupt the "chain practice" frequently and have a student ask you the question.
- When necessary, prompt the correct form immediately.

VII. Questions and Answers

The questioning technique is one of the most frequently used by language teachers, but this does not mean that it is the most successfully used. Valid question practice is very important in language learning because it requires the ability to think quickly and easily and to answer automatically.

The following suggestions are for improving technique:

- Direct the question to the whole class before any one pupil is called on for an answer.
- Use only words found in the pupil's vocabulary.
- Be concise, clear, and definite.
- Require all questions to be answered in complete sentences or utterances.
- Pass the questions around and give all students a chance to participate.

- Do not follow any special order in asking the questions, such as a seating arrangement or alphabetic order.
- Do not allow a few of the very slow students to waste the time of the class.
- Ask most questions in a business-like, but unhurried rapid manner.
- For culminating reviews and drills, ask questions in a rapid manner.
- Use various types of questions that will:
  - Establish an active vocabulary
  - Emphasize points in grammar
  - Test student's information
  - Stimulate thought and create enthusiasm
- Make questions difficult enough to challenge the student's efforts but not so difficult as to discourage them.

The most effective questions are those pertaining to student's lives and experiences. They create personal interest and enthusiasm. For drill purposes, however, and in order to build an active vocabulary, the teacher may use other types of questions: yes--no; choice; simple and difficult recall.

VIII. Directed Dialogue

Directed dialogue is a controlled conversation between two students stimulated by teacher instruction. The student rephrases an utterance and addresses it to someone else.

Example:

Teacher	Student
Mary, ask John to close the door.	John, close the door.
Ask him to be careful.	Be careful.
Tell him to wait for you.	Wait for me.
Ask him how old he is.	How old are you?
Ask him what he needs.	What do you need?
Tell him you are going to the movies tonight.	I'm going to the movies tonight.

When presenting directed dialogue,

- Have two students come to the front of the room the first few times you use the technique.
- Use students' own names in speaking to them.
- Have one student repeat the words.
- Have the entire class repeat the same sentence or question.
- Move and stand beside second student; give him the exact response.
- Have him repeat it; have class repeat it.
- Give the direction to first and second students to elicit the responses without prompting.
- Repeat the same directed dialogue with two or three other pairs of students.
- Prompt immediately when prompting is needed.

Reading and Writing

How well the student learns to understand and to speak a second language is a vital factor in achieving success in reading and writing. The teacher should ask a child to read and write only what he understands and what he can actually say.

Techniques for Teaching Reading

In learning to read, the student must first go through the process of learning how the sounds he knows appear in print. This is done by directing his activities from sound to letter and from letter to sound.

Nelson Brooks suggests the following sequential steps in teaching reading to the child who is learning a second language:

- Show how a word looks when written.
- Ask for other words in which the same sounds occur. Write the appropriate suggestions, which illustrate the way or ways in which a given sound is written.
- Write out several familiar sentences. Read them and have them read aloud.
- Distribute printed text of dialogue or narrative. Read it aloud and have it read aloud.
- Prepare sentences that are composed of known words put together in a new way.

In developing the reading skill, the teacher must be careful

that comprehension takes place without reference to the mother tongue. Therefore, the material must not be too difficult in either vocabulary or structure, or the student will not attempt comprehension except by translating to the mother tongue.

Comprehension in the new language should be stressed. The pupil should be taught to relate meaning to clusters of words as they interrelate to context. Content may then supply him with new meanings. When context does not reveal meaning, another approach must be used. A footnote or glossary restating the meaning in different words already known to the student, is best. If these means fail, give Spanish equivalents, not of whole propositions, but only of the term or terms in question.

Techniques for Teaching Writing

A child who has learned to understand, to speak, and to read a language can proceed effectively to the final step in language mastery--writing. As it was for all the other skills, the objective of writing for the learner of a second language is writing without resorting to his native language.

There are four important sequential steps in learning to write:

1. Copying: In the early stages, imitative writing--copying identical material which has previously been mastered orally--is emphasized. Copying and dictation are most important in establishing sound-letter correspondence.

2. Dictation: Dictation involves several aspects of language learning:

- Purposeful listening
- Differentiating sounds
- Distinguishing words and speech groups
- Understanding meaning
- Recognizing forms
- Observing structure
- Knowing how to spell
- Using proper punctuation and capitalization

Dictation may be based on various types of material such as a paragraph, a passage in the text, a dialogue, a letter, or an event in the news.

Dictation should follow a definite plan known to the class. The teacher first reads the selection at a normal speed while the students listen and do not write. Then the teacher reads the selection again at a slower tempo with a pause after each thought group; the students write this time. Finally, the teacher reads the selection a third time at normal speed. The students are given enough time to read, to think, and correct their work.

3. Controlled Writing: From dication students progress to controlled writing. There are several types:

- Guided writing--pattern drills, simple answers to questions, and completion statements
- Directed writing--students change a story by changing tense, person, number, form, or sentence structure.
- Controlled composition--the controls are gradually lessened by having pupils summarize passages using their own words, alter a model composition, develop paragraphs from topic sentences, or write letters or articles with guidelines provided.

4. Free Composition: Gradually, pupils progress to such forms as original dramatizations, personal narratives, descriptions, reports, and letters. Composition gives the teacher a very definite picture of each pupil's progress. By carefully choosing a topic, he may test knowledge of vocabulary, idioms, or structure. General as well as individual errors are detected.

The teacher must always keep in mind that the level of accomplishment in writing will remain lower than that of reading. In writing, the student is limited by his knowledge of the structure of the language and by the extent of his vocabulary. As the student grows in his writing skill, some of the differences which distinguish written style from that of the spoken language can be pointed out.

Reinforcement Activities

Devices for Fun

Songs, games, story telling, puzzles, and art activities are not only ways of creating atmosphere, interest, and enthusiasm, but they are also an excellent medium for teaching, reviewing, and testing language learnings.

Songs

Children of all ages enjoy singing songs because they:

- Are fun and create atmosphere
- Teach melody and words in a manner that will maintain interest
- Aid in learning new sounds and give an interesting medium for pronouncing them correctly
- Facilitate learning of new words and concepts through appropriate action or dramatization
- Afford a means of improving intonation patterns and rhythm in the new language
- Give practice on the cardinal principle that a word must be learned before it is seen

When teaching a song, follow these steps:

- Read the words at a normal speed and explain the text, elaborating on any parts that are necessary.
- Sing or play a record of the song all the way through so that students will become interested in the melody

and how to sing it.

- Reread the song, line by line, indicating rhythm and inflection by hand motions.
- Have the students repeat the song in choral unison with correct pronunciation and rhythm.
- Require correct pronunciation of all words, giving choral unison drill of the difficult words.
- Sing an entire verse (or a part of a verse) and have the students join in the singing.
- Continue singing until students have learned to sing the melody correctly.
- Encourage students to learn the words by memory, once they can sing the song correctly.
- Organize groups for two, three, or four part harmony, after the song has been mastered by the entire group.
- Make the presentation of a song more meaningful by using appropriate pictures and relating it to the development of the lessons taught.

Games

The teacher can take advantage of the child's natural interest in games to give additional practice in reinforcing, maintaining, and reviewing previously learned skills.

In selecting games for classroom use, choose those that:

- Are fast moving in order to avoid monotony

- Contain elements of suspense and competition.
- Require responses from a large number of students.
- Are uncomplicated and require only simple explanation and score keeping.
- Most of all, provide a definite learning objective.

Many professional books and magazines provide teachers with new ideas about games. The following list contains only a sampling of very elementary games that have been effective in language teaching.

"Something to Do"

One child gives another directions of actions, such as "Open the door." Another child follows the directions and responds, "I open the door."

"Saw"

The teacher places different articles familiar to the children on the desk, table, bulletin board. The child looks at the articles and tells what he sees. The child naming the greatest number of articles wins.

"Singular and Plural Endings"

Children form two groups. Example: Child from Group 1 makes a sentence in the singular form. Child from Group 2 changes the sentence to the plural form. First child: "One boy answers." Second child: "Two boys answer."

"I See, I See" or "I'm Thinking of an Object"

A child chooses some object and tells the teacher the name

of the object. Then he says, "What do I see?" or "What am I thinking of?" and gives a clue. One child answers "Is it a flag?" If the answer is "no," the child gives another clue. Clues are given until the answer is "yes."

"I'm Thinking of a Person"

One student describes a person and asks, "Who is it?" The other students try to guesss who it is. Or one student may say, "I'm thinking of a person." The other students must then ask questions until they can guess who it is.

"Let's Count"

One student bounces the ball and counts, or the class counts in unison, each time the ball bounces. The teacher may stop the procedure and have students count while she taps with the ruler.

"It"

One child is chosen as leader and is sent out of the room. The other members choose an object that he must identify. When he returns to the room, his classmates guide him by repeating

"You're far away." (cold)

"You're near." (warm)

"You're very, very near." (very hot)

When he finds the object he says, "This is it." Then another leader is chosen.

"Let's March"

The children march or clap to a record.

"Walk the Ladder"

A drawing of a ladder is provided. On the left side of each step, the teacher places a picture of an object or activity, the name of which begins with the sound to be drilled. On the right side of each step, is a picture of an object with a name ending in the identical sound. The child who goes up and down the ladder without a mistake pronounces the sounds is the winner.

"Introduction"

Students introduce other classmates to the teacher and to each other.

"Cut-out Fun"

Children cut out cartoon figures from comic strips and paste them in whatever order they choose on heavy paper. Then they supply an original dialogue to go along with the picture sequence.

"My Story"

Children complete sentences dealing with a real or personal situation such as,

- "On my way to school I saw _____."
- "When I looked out the window, there was _____ _____."
- "Last night my father came home and brought _____ _____."

Story Telling

The learning of stories furnishes rich listening and speaking experiences that promote language growth. In selecting stories for beginners, those that are well-known and well-liked should be chosen. They give pupils feelings of confidence. The teacher can use pictures and props to help get meanings across.

These steps are effective in presenting a story:

- Practice repeating the story several times outside of class, using pictures and props that may be used during its actual presentation.
- Correlate skillfully the presentation of each visual aid with the idea that it explains. Practicing in front of a mirror can be helpful.
- When telling a story, follow the same sequence each time and use the visual aids exactly the same way. The visual material may be different to vary the presentation, but always present the events in the

same order or sequence.

- When first presenting the story, tell it in a short and simplified form, dealing mainly with the basic framework.
- Use key phrases or expressions later as a refrain or choral drill. Present the dramatic action so that the children can easily learn to mimic the voice and action.
- Tell the story a number of times.
- Have dramatic presentations with the children performing or using puppets to serve as a culminating or final activity.

Puzzles

Puzzles are a most useful aid which all children enjoy. Like games, they arouse interest and are ideal for reinforcing learning or review.

There are a variety of types, among which the following are commonly used in language teaching:

- Picture Puzzles (Grades 2-6). A picture puzzle is one in which the child looks at the picture to develop concepts at these levels. An example would be a picture of a ball with the letter b missing. The child sounds out the word and supplies the letter he hears.

Story Puzzles (Grades 2-8). A story puzzle is one in which the child reads a teacher-composed story or composes one himself. After it has been read several times, consonants, blends, or endings are erased and the child is permitted to put the missing letter or letters in the right places.

- Compound Word Puzzles (Grades 2-6). A compound word puzzle picture can be made by drawing pairs of pictures. The child can spell the words to match the pictures, thus creating the compound words.

- Rhyming Word Puzzles (Grades 1-2). A rhyming word puzzle is one in which the child looks at a picture on the board and writes a word that rhymes with the picture. Another variation is to have a list of four words with one word that does not rhyme. The child circles the "wrong" word.

- Crossword Puzzles (Grades 2-8). Crossword puzzles may be made and duplicated by the teacher or purchased. Each child reads the sentence clues and puts the letters in the squares to make a word. A variation would be to give students the puzzle filled in correctly and let them provide the sentence clues.

For additional suggestions about games, see Spice published by Educational Services, Inc.

Art Activities

Art activities are a helpful aid to learning and may be used most effectively with younger children. When they first come to school, they are curious about their new surroundings, and art activities take advantage of this natural curiosity.

Through art work, the children learn simple terms, such as square, circle, and color. They learn to observe and appreciate color in nature and to recognize the primary and secondary color groups. They also learn to express themselves. All of these learnings stimulate language growth.

The following are types of art activities that can be used. Some are for the children to do and some are to be partially prepared by the teacher, to be completed by the children.

Two-dimensional Art Activities

- Use crayons in different ways.
- Use tempera paint in a variety of ways.
- Use colored construction paper in different ways.
- Illustrate stories and poems with crayon and paints.
- Use finger paints.

Three-dimensional Art Activities

- Use clay.
- Make masks (cut paper, paper sacks, paper plates).
- Collect odds and ends of scrap materials (rice, rocks,

string, buttons, beads) to make interesting forms. Use cloth, yarn, and large needles to sew simple objects.

Art Appreciation Activities

- Take a walk, observe and talk about the beauty in nature.
- Collect articles and flowers for enjoyment and beauty.
- Learn to care for personal belongings in an orderly manner.
- Make plans and participate in various projects to beautify the classroom.
- Plan how, where, and when class work will be exhibited.

Bilingual Teaching in Content Areas

A bilingual program for either the Spanish or English speaker capitalizes on the child's knowledge of his primary language in order to continue the development of conceptual understanding and a stronger personal identity while introducing and developing facility in a second language. Enriching experiences are offered by providing opportunities to learn through doing, exploring, discovering, and creating. Equally important, the program helps to provide each child with the structures and vocabulary to talk about these experiences in two languages.

By continuing the use of the child's first language, a strong line of communication is available between the home and school and between the child and school. At no point is there a break in communication because of insufficient language facility. The child is provided an immediate vehicle for communicating at all times. Even when the child has learned to manipulate the second language, both languages will continue to be developed further and used for communication and instructional purposes. Therefore, the bilingual program not only helps the child to move with ease from the home to the school environment while learning a second language without interrupting the expected learning process, but also facilitates the tools by which the child develops into a literate bilingual.

In a bilingual program, instruction in content materials should be given to all children in either Spanish or English, and direct language instruction during separate, regularly scheduled periods should be given in both English and Spanish. Instruction in the two languages should usually be at different times of the day to discourage translation-type learning and minimize interference between the languages.

When Spanish is the primary language spoken in the children's homes, it can be assumed that the majoirty have control over most of the sound system of that language and knowledge of most of its grammar with a limited vocabulary at the time they enter school. With this in mind, the majority of first grade Spanish-speaking children should be given reading-readiness in Spanish just as a teacher would give an English-speaking child studying English. During the first few weeks the major emphasis would be understanding and speaking the first language, however, as the year progresses, the major emphasis shifts to reading and writing that language. The four skills of understanding, speaking, reading, and writing and in this order, will continue to be emphasized, with varying degrees of emphasis for each skill, as long as the child remains in a bilingual program.

Some children of farm laborers are left in the care of other children while their parents are in the fields. These may not be provided with an adult language model and may be discouraged

in their attempts at verbal communication by their parents or by the high noise level which usually exists in overcrowded homes. These first grade children should spend more time in an aural-oral (understanding and speaking) language skills development program before beginning the development of the reading and writing skills.

The lessons in English should assume no contact at all with that language and children should be taught the phonemic contrasts of the English language, as well as bacic sentence patterns. Very early in the program, the sound contrasts which exist in one language, but not the other, should be taught. The concepts "same---different" need to be understood before they can be applied to the sounds of language. Auditory discrimination begins with discriminations of gross sound differences. The teacher may start by having several noise-makers in front of the class and showing and ringing two at a time. "These sounds are the same (ring two cow bells)." "These sounds are different (ring a cow bell and a sleigh bell)." At this stage the children can also see the bells are different. After the concept "same---different" is understood, the objects can be hidden in a bag or box and the children asked to determine "the same" and "different" on the basis of sound alone. Small items, such as beans, cotton seeds, or buttons, can be

put in pill bottles covered with adhesive paper. The children may take turns shaking two bottles and deciding if they are "the same" or "different." They may look inside to check their answers. The children who are able to do this activity are ready to begin the discrimination of speech sounds in the direct language instruction periods.

The child's acquisition and automatic use of basic language structures takes precedence over the mere accumulation of vocabulary items in a second language program. The basic patterns should be taught through the use of audio-lingual drills.

Initially, the number of vocabulary items taught should be limited to the child's experience. Items previously learned should be practiced with known patterns and used when introducing new patterns. New vocabulary items should never be taught in isolation, but rather, they should be taught within phrases or sentences. A word may be isolated for purposes of explanation, but should immediately be used in a sentence in order to facilitate clarity and comprehension. An expanded vocabulary will be acquired rapidly once the child begins to read.

Similar vocabulary items may be presented through the structures of both languages, although lexical equivalance is not necessarily desirable. Function words will be needed in both

languages, and the content words should be selected for immediate need and usefulness in each language. Motivation to learn structures and vocabulary is higher when these are used in real situations. When there is occasion to use them repeatedly, their retention is more likely. Good sources for the vocabulary content of language drills are the texts for other subject areas and other basic words relating to home, family, and school. An emphasis should be placed in all activities and experiences in the curriculum on developing the concepts for which label can be provided in both Spanish and English.

While periods of direct language instruction are necessary for maximum effectiveness and efficiency with students of all ages, the language instruction need not and should not be limited to one short period of the day. A teacher who is aware of the potential interference areas in the languages of his students and who understands how to construct varied and interesting drills in such areas can make maximum use of the instructional time and teach language along with virtually every other area of the curriculum. The effective program consists of planned educational experiences that involve parents, teachers, and students; emphasizes language and concept development, assists each child in gaining a feeling of personal identity and worth, and ultimately, produces literate bilingual citizens.

Sample Lessons in Subject Matter Areas

Science

Classification of Objects By Size, Shape and Color
First Grade

Overview:

All objects are classified by their physical appearance. This lesson offers the child an opportunity to form sets or groups of objects basing his selection on the sizes, shapes and the colors of the objects. Since all the objects are different in size, shape, and color, the child will be able to form sub-sets. It is possible for the child to form groups of round and large objects or of large and red objects. Perhaps he will decide to group the large green squares or the small ones. It is possible that upon close examination the child will be able to form other sub-sets.

Objectives:

To enable the child to form sets and sub-sets according to the physical appearance of the objects: size, shape, and color. There are three variables in the lesson and two others are introduced to challenge the child even more.

Materials:

- A chart with the basic figures
- All the figures cut in three sizes from:

  colored felt — sand paper (fine and rough)

  cork — tin foil (corrugated)

rubber tin foil (smooth)

- Flannelboard
- Colored transparencies
- Stencil with the basic figures (to form abstract figures on the screen)
- Cut-out figures from the stencil (to form abstract opaque figures on the screen)
- Overlay in color for the stencil (to help the child to identify the figures)
- Plastic bags
- Overhead projector

Oral Vocabulary:

set	(s)	equivalent	(s)
group	(s)	equal	(s)
collection	(s)	angle	(s)
element	(s)	triangle	(s)
square	(s)	rectangle	(s)
		circle	(s)

In addition, teach other descriptive words to describe the shapes, sizes and colors.

Procedure:

It is preferable to initiate the lesson by the manipulation of the objects by the child. These should be

exhibited on a table which is in sight of all children. Place other objects of different sizes, colors, and shapes on the table.

Methodology:

Say: Children, we are going to play a game!
(For the teacher) The object of the game is for the children to guess what object you have in mind with the clues you give him. Example:
Say: I am thinking of a green object. It has straight sides. It is small. It is the smallest object on the table. It has four sides. If someone guesses what it is, you may keep it at your desk and exchange it later for a surprise.
(For the teacher) Start with the most familiar objects until the children understand the game. An effective method is to limit your description to one of the variables at the beginning (the color). This will permit the children to make some errors in their selection due to the fact that several objects have some of the characteristics in common.

It is evident that this is not a game but a careful way of identifying objects according to their physical appearance. The felt, sandpaper, and rubber figures are included to allow other ways of classification of

objects in ways other than size, color and shape. i.e. texture and touch. The children can place the figures on the flannelboard. At this stage of the lesson, the children can pair off the figures on the flannelboard with the ones on the chart. By using the plastic bags, the children can classify the objects according to their size large, medium, and small. When you have finished this phase of the lesson, ask the class if they can classify in another way. Since the plastic bags are transparent, the children can see the color and the shape (two of the variables) without difficulty. Choose volunteers to regroup the objects in the bags.

The large chart should illustrate the three variables. Remember that other variables are introducted to challenge the children even more. Use the chart to reinforce the descriptive vocabulary developed in this lesson. The figures can be paired off as can the sizes and colors. When possible, the children should go to the chart to indicate to the rest of the class the properties they describe.

Creative activity:

Allow the children to make other figures using the four basic shapes. This activity give the child an opportunity to develop his creativity. The child can highlight his

creative work by coloring it. Project the colored transparency to motivate the children.

The first grade science lesson illustrates the point that even very elementary materials contain many linguistic problems if they have not been specifically designed for a sequential and systematic presentation of the language structures. In addition to vocabulary items listed in the lesson, the children are required to know the names of colors and shapes, terms for size (big, small), labels for textures (rough, smooth), more complex descriptive phrases (straight sides), and basic function words which must be used in statements and questions in English. This lesson requires the children to know how to place an adjective before and after a noun, use the comparative forms (bigger, smaller), and form plurals. Speakers of Spanish must learn that the adjective in English comes in a different place in a sentence and does not take a plural inflection along with the noun. The phonological problems raised in this lesson are extensive: /č/ and /š/ must be contrasted as children choose shapes; the same two words require the distinction between final /z/ and /s/; the color yellow may be mistakenly pronounced with a /j/, while the final /j/ in orange may be devoiced to /č/. English consonant clusters are often difficult for speakers of Spanish, and this lesson introduces small, straight, square, triangle, blue, black, brown, and green.

The linguistic complexity of this lesson is typical of most

and does not negate its content value. The teacher whose students do not speak English, however, must restructure this lesson into an ordered sequence of activities so that the problems, insofar as possible, may be met one at a time.

1. The teacher and each child has boxes containing eight crayons in front of them.

   T: (holds up one crayon and says) This is red.

   C: (holds up matching crayons and says) This is red.

   T: This is green

   C: This is green

   etc.

As soon as the children are matching the crayons with ease, concentrate on the pronounciation of th in <u>th</u>is. If the teacher exagerates sticking her tongue out to say the word, the children enjoy following the example and nothing needs to be said. A child who does not copy should be told, "Let me see your tongue."

2. After the children can repeat what is said, they may take turns being "teacher."

   C: (one child holds up a crayon and says) This is blue.

   C: (the other children hold up matching crayons and echo) This is blue.

The child who is "teacher" looks around the room to see if others are showing the right color and another "teacher" is

chosen. If the "teacher" names the wrong color, the adult teacher should correct the child and have him repeat the sentence.

3. The names of the shapes may be taught in a similar sentence frame. Distribute pre-cut shapes of colored construction paper to the children and repeat as above.

   T: This is a circle (note that "a" is added to the frame; this need not be pointed out to the class and should cause no problems.)

   C: This is a circle.

4. Children take turns being "teachers."

   C_1: This is a circle.

   C: This is a circle.

   C_2: This is a square.

   C: This is a square, etc.

5. The next step is to combine colors and shapes in description, placing the adjective before the noun. Using the same construction paper shapes, the pattern becomes:

   T: This is a red triangle.

   C: (repeat)

   T: This is a blue circle.

   C: (repeat)

6. After all the shapes have been described by the teacher

and the children, the teacher may give one word as a cue and have individual children respond by showing an appropriate shape and describing it.

This is big/small.

This is a big/small (shape).

This is a big/small (color) (shape).

8. Add terms for texture, rough and smooth, by introducing shapes made of sandpaper, aluminum, or other materials. The patterns to be drilled are:

This is rough/smooth.

This is a rough/smooth (shape).

This pattern can be expanded to include size and color with a few children, but the ordering of more than two adjectives should not be attempted at this stage with most children.

9. The comparative form of the adjectives big and small may be introduced with similar shapes cut from construction paper. Patterns to be used include:

This is a small triangle.

This is a big triangle.

This is a bigger triangle.

This circle is big.

This circle is small.

This circle is smaller.

The red square is small.

The blue square is big.

The orange square is bigger.

10. Two descriptive sentences may be combined at this point.

The red square is smaller than the blue square.

The orange square is bigger than the blue square.

11. By this time the meanings of the terms for eight colors, four shapes, and four qualitative adjectives should be understood and all children should be able to use them in a few sentence patterns. Encourage the children to look for and describe objects inside the classroom and then on a walk around the school grounds which also have these characteristics.

John is bigger than Mary.

The red book is smaller than the yellow book.

The clock is a circle.

12. Introduce a riddle game of the form, "It is _____. What is it?" Have the children take turns guessing and formulating new riddles. They may describe something in the classroom, a picture they have made, or an object brought from home and concealed from the other children in a paper bag or pocket.

13. Use the flannel board, or transparancies to show how houses, trains, animals and other objects can be made from a collection

of different shapes. Let the children describe the pictures in terms of the colors, sizes, and shapes.

The head is a big circle.

The hat is a blue triangle.

The mouth is a small red circle.

Give the children pre-cut shapes and let them paste objects or designs and describe them to the class.

14. If the plural forms of count nouns have not been introduced elsewhere, they should be presented here. The basic technique for using a new pattern should be repeated: a) the teacher says the pattern; b) the children repeat after the teacher; c) the children use the pattern in group and individual responses, corrected by the teacher if necessary.

This is a circle.

These are circles.

This is a square.

These are squares.

Repeat with all shapes and other count nouns which can be easily illustrated. Then give just a cue word and have the children repeat the pattern.

T: book.

C: This is a book.

These are books.

The addition of the English adjective presents a new problem for Spanish-speakers, for the Spanish adjective would also take the plural form.

This is a blue circle.

These are blue circles.

This square is red.

These squares are red.

The phonological problems should be dealt with in the same way as the /b/ and /v/ contrast mentioned above. The /s̆/ and /c̆/ distinction is particularly difficult.

1. Show pictures containing /s̆/ and have the children repeat. Add some without /s̆/ and have children respond to words containing /s̆/.

2. Practice the pronunciation of /s̆/ in activities.
   a. Teach the finger play, "Open Them, Shut Them."
   b. Have a number of colored objects. The child who is "it" says, "Show me red," or "Show me yellow." He calls on another child to show the color and be the next one "it."
   c. Have the children sit or stand in a circle. One child tosses a bean bag to another, saying "My ship sails to _____." If the child to whom the ship sails catches the bean bag, he may be "it."

3. Show pictures containing /č/ in the same way.

4. Practice the pronunciation of /č/ in activities.

   a. Have pictures of food. The children take turns choosing something for lunch. "I choose _____ for my lunch."

   b. The children may join hands and go around in a circle, chanting:

      Charley over the water,
      Charley over the sea.
      Charley caught a chicken,
      But he can't catch me.

When they say "me," they squat before the child who is "it" catches them.

5. Practice hearing "the same" and "different" words as suggested for /č/ and /š/. Minimal pairs which may be used include:

   chair-share
   choose-shoes
   chew-shoe
   watching-washing
   chip-ship
   cheep-sheep
   catch-cash
   match-mash
   dish-ditch

6. Put the construction paper shapes in a bag and ask one child, "Which shape do you choose?" He responds, "I choose a (color) (shape)." He then reaches in the bag and pulls out a shape without looking). If he selects the one he described he gets another turn. If not, he asks another child, "which shape do you choose?" and the game continues.

Other grammatical structures may be taught in conjunction with this first lesson on the classification of objects. Drills may be added, for instance, for question transformations and pronouns.

1. First the teacher asks a question and the children respond with an answer.

   T: Is this a _____?"

   C: Yes, it is, (or) No, it isn't.

   T: What color is your/his/her_____?

   C: My/his/her _____ is _____.

The children also take turns asking questions after the pattern has been established.

This methodology, pattern drills, may be used to teach Spanish to the English-speaking child.

CIENCIA

Clasificación Por Tamaño, Forma, Y Color
Primer Grado

Bosquejo inicial:

Todos los objetos se clasifican de acuerdo con su apariencia física. Esta lección ofrece al niño una oportunidad para formar conjuntos o grupos de objetos basando su selección en los tamaño, las formas, y por los colores. En vista de que todos los objetos son diferentes de tamaño, de forma y de color, el niño podrá formar varios otros sub conjuntos. Es posible que el niño forme grupos de objetos redondos y grandes o de objetos grandes y rojos. Tal vez decida agrupar los cuadrados grandes verdes y los chicos. Es posible que al examinar los objetos con más cuidado, pueda el niño formar otros sub-conjuntos.

Metas:

Dar oportunidad al niño para que forme sub-conjuntos de acuerdo con la apariencia física de los objetos: tamaño, forma, y color. Hay tres variables en esta lección que debe dominar el niño. Se introducen otras dos para retar e interesar al niño aun más.

Materiales:

- una lámina con las figuras básicas
- todas las figuras cortadas en tres tamaños en:

fieltro a colores	lija (fina y aspera)
corcho	estaño corrugado
hule	estaño liso

- transparencias a colores
- patrón modelo de figuras básicas número 1 (para formar figuras abstracts en la luz en la pantalla)
- figuras que quedaron del patrón modelo (para formar figuras abstractas opacas en la pantalla)
- sobre impuestos a colores (overlays) para el patrón modelo (para ayudar al niño a identificar las figuras)
- unas bolsitas de plástico transparente
- proyector para transparencias 8 1/2" x 11"
- franelógrafo

Vocabulario oral: (relacionado con el estudio de matemáticas)

conjunto	(s)	equivalente	(s)
grupo	(s)	ángulo	(s)
colección	(es)	triángulo	(s)
elemento	(s)	rectángulo	(s)
cuadrado	(s)	círculo	(s)
igual	(es)		

Además enseñe otras palabras descriptivas esenciales para describir las formas, los tamaños y los colores.

Desarrollo:

Es preferible iniciar la lección con la manipulación de todos los objetos que deben estar expuestos en una mesa que esté a la vista de todos los niños. Coloque también varios otros objetos de diferentes tamaños, colores y formas.

Metodología:

Diga: ¡Niños, vamos a jugar un jueguito!
(para la maestra) El objeto del juego es que los niños adivinen que objeto (cosa) tiene en su mente con las claves que les de. Ejemplo:

Diga: Pienso en un objeto verde. Tiene los lados rectos. Es chico. Es el objeto más chico en la mesa. Tiene cuatro lados. Si alguien adivina lo que es, se lo puede llevar a su pupitre para que después lo pueda canjear (cambiar) por una sorpresa.

(Para la maestra) Principie con los objetos más familiares hasta que los niños comprendan la idea del juego. Un método efectivo es limitar su descripción a una sola característica al principio (el color). Esto permite

que los niños hagan unas selecciones errôneas debido a las caractêristicas en común.

Es evidente que esto no es un juego sino una manera cuidadosa de identificar los objetos por su apariencia física. Los objetos de fieltro, lija y de hule están incluídos para dar unas formas más de clasificar que se apartan del tamaño, del color, y de la forma: la textura y la aspereza. Los niños pueden colocar las figuras en el franelógrafo. A esta altura de la lección los niños pueden parear las figuras del franelógrafo con las figuras de la lámina.

Por medio del uso de las bolsitas de plástico, los niños pueden clasificar los objetos por sus tamaños: grandes, medianos y los más chicos. Después de terminada esta fase de la lección, pregunte a la clase si pueden clasificar de otra manera. Por ser las bolsitas de plástico transparente, los niños pueden ver el color y la forma (dos de las variables) sin dificultad. Escoja voluntarios para que reagrupen los objetos en las bolsas.

La lámina grande ilustra los tres factores variables. Recuerde que se presentaron otros factores variables, la textura y la aspereza, para retar e interesar a los niños un poco más. Use la lámina para reforzar el vocabulario descriptivo desarollado en esta lección. Las figuras se pueden parear

así como los tamaños y los colores. Cuando sea posible, que los niños pasen a la lámina para indicar al resto de la clase las propiedades que describen.

Actividad creadora:

Permita que el niño forme otras figuras con las cuatro formas básicas. Esta actividad da al niño la oportunidad para desarrollar su facultad creadora. El niño puede dar realce a su creación al iluminarla (colorearla). Proyecte la transparencia a colores para motivar a los niños.

Mathematics

Second Grade

Union of Sets

Review addition Facts (1-10)

Objectives:

To increase the ability of the child to compare, determine relationships, and to establish a one-to-one correspondence.

A set is a group or collections of things (elements).

Example:

marbles	milk cartons
pencils	napkins
friends	straws
colors	balls
cookies	blocks
books	cups

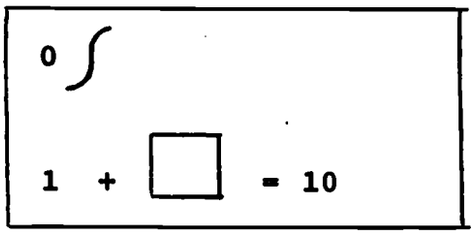
Teacher: This is nothing new to you. You have a group or collection of marbles. Each marble is an element or a member of a set. You also have a set of pencils. Maybe you have three yellow pencils and three red pencils. Each group is a set.

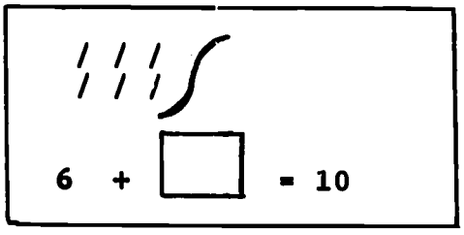
Now, we can compare them. When we compare them we know more about them.

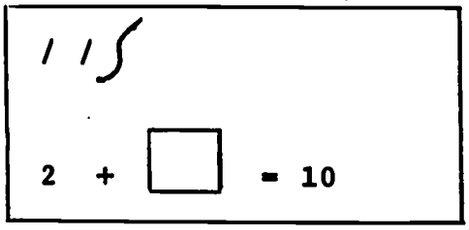
This matching is known as one-to-one correspondence.

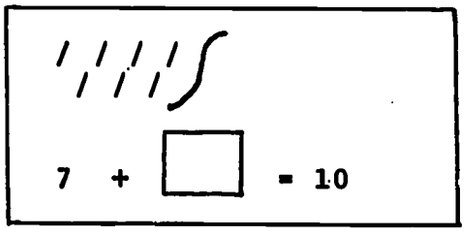
Addition facts:

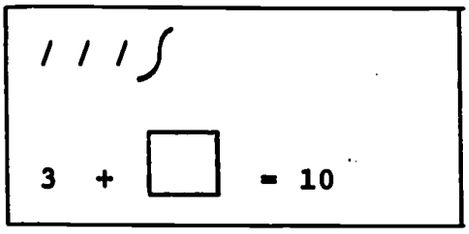
In each rectangle draw another set so that the union of the two sets will have ten elements.

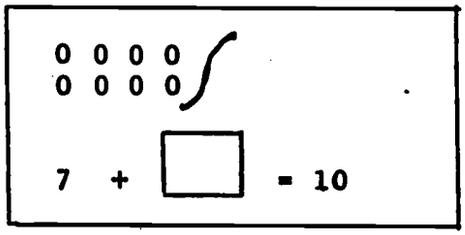


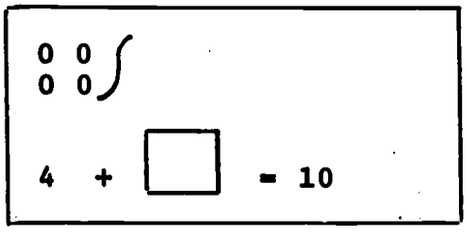


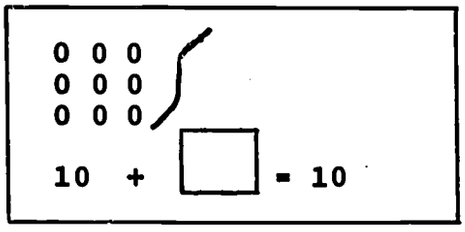


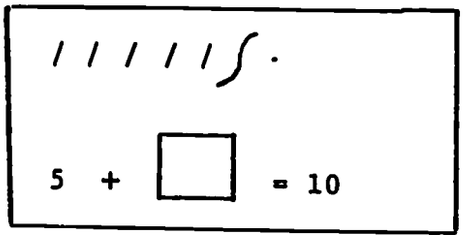


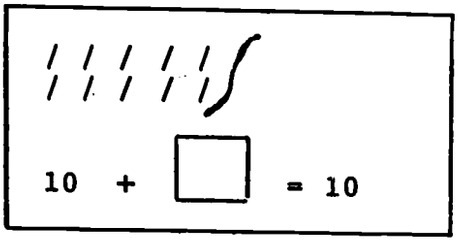












* Review the empty set.

The second grade mathematics lesson contains the same structures (words for colors and shapes, sentence patterns, and sounds) as the first grade lesson. Even though the meanings of the words may be known by second grade, the teacher should use the same phonological drills to teach or review the more difficult sounds. If the second grade children cannot use English sentences to discuss the colors and shapes, all of the suggested first grade activities are again applicable.

This mathematics lesson contains additional material which requires structural drills: A set of things calls for plural inflection of nouns and verbs. Not all plurals end in /s/, and the objects suggested in this lesson provide examples for final /s/ - /z/ distinctions: marbles, pencils, blocks, books, cookies. These same plural forms also contain some final consonant clusters which will require pronunication drills. One can be combined with a drill on the use of <u>a</u> and <u>some</u> with objects which can be counted. The pattern would be:

I have a _____.

I have some _____.

The drill would begin with the teacher holding up an object and saying, "I have a crayon." The children hold up the same object and repeat. The teacher then holds up several and says, "I have some crayons," and the children repeat. This should be continued with pencils and books and then as an individual drill with a few children coming to the front of the room to take objects from a table and repeat the sentences. After the meaning has been well established, the teacher should change the technique and provide only "cue words." The teacher, for instance, says "book," and the children recite, "I have a book. I have some books." This should be done rapidly and with many countable nouns until the pattern is automatic.

The pattern may then be expanded and colors given as cue words.

I have a <u>blue</u> book.

I have some <u>blue</u> books.

After the pattern has been presented orally, it may be written on the chalkboard or a chart with a line indicating where the cue word is to be inserted. It may be further expanded with other qualitative adjectives to teach the appropriate word order in English.

I have a <u>big</u> blue book.

I have some <u>big</u> blue books.

The pattern may be modified as the number of objects in various sets is emphasized.

I have five circles.

I have seven squares.

Demonstrative pronouns and other constructions may also be drilled.

She lost her books.

They read their lesson.

Combinations of sets provide a good situation for introducing more complex sentences. "I have three yellow pencils" and "I have three red pencils." In the lesson, the instructions say "three yellow pencils and three red ones," but this is a more complex transformation of sentence elements. When the nouns have the same referent, the second may be replaced with "ones." This added complexity is not to be avoided, but presented after more basic patterns have been mastered.

Other linguistic forms which may be added to the mathematics lesson are more, less, many, few and any. Patterns should include question and negative transformations.

After all of these suggested patterns have been learned with the names of objects which can be counted, similar patterns should be presented for objects which cannot, such as milk, chalk, and water. Words also form sets, and the sets have different properties. Count nouns, for instance, can occur after numerals and an indefinite article while non-countable (or mass) nouns cannot. Count nouns are also inflected for

plural and may take different qualifiers. These properties may be discovered by the children as are the similar properties of other sets they are studying. The categorization of concrete objects should, of course, come first.

MATEMATICAS

Segundo Grado

Unión de Conjuntos

Repaso de adiciones básicas (1-10)

Metas:

Aumentar la habilidad del niño para hacer comparaciones, determinar relaciones, y establecer correspondencias biunívocas (parear).

Un conjunto es un grupo o colección de cosas (elementos).

Ejemplo:

canicas	envases de leche (cartón)
lápices	servilletas
amigos	popotes
colores	pelotas
galletas	cubos (bloques)
libros	tazas

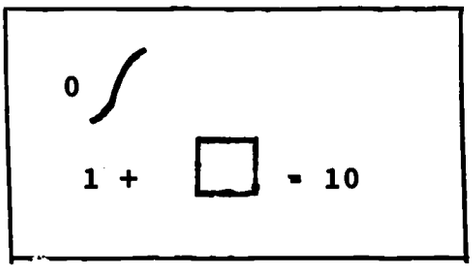
Maestra: Esto no es nada nuevo para ti. Tienes un grupo o colección de canicas. Cada canica es un elemento o miembro del conjunto. También tienes un conjunto de lápices. Tal vez tengas tres lápices amarillos y tres lápices rojos. Cada grupos es un conjunto.

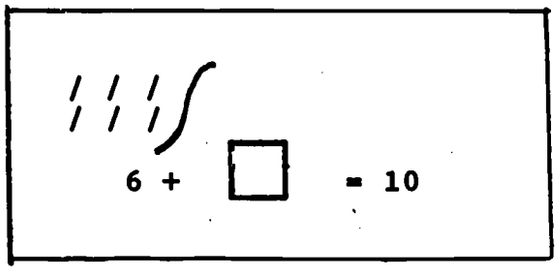
Ahora, los podemos comparar. Cuando los comparamos sabemos más acerca de ellos.

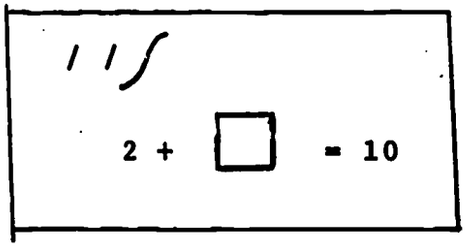
A este pareo se le llama correspondencia biunívoca.

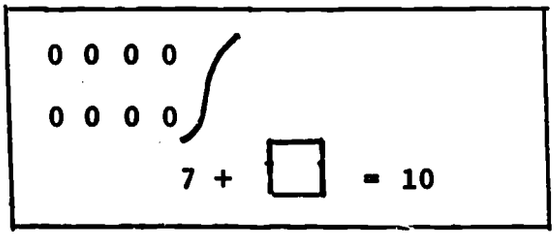
Adiciones básicas:

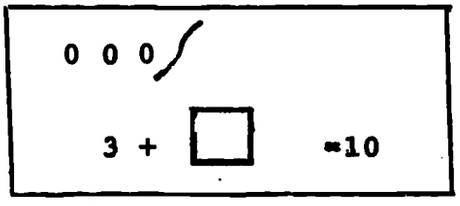
En cada rectángulo dibja otro conjunto para que la unión de los conjuntos tenga diez elementos.

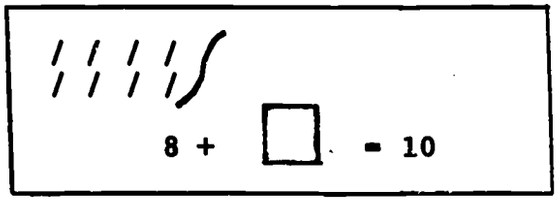


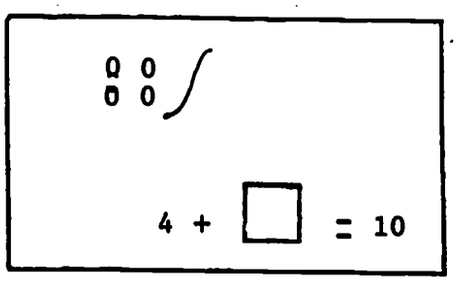


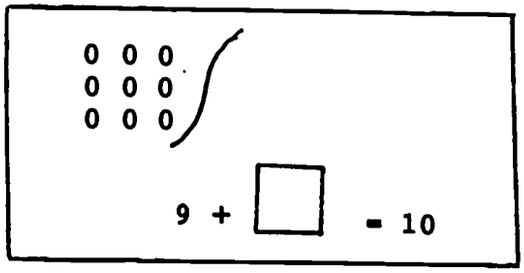


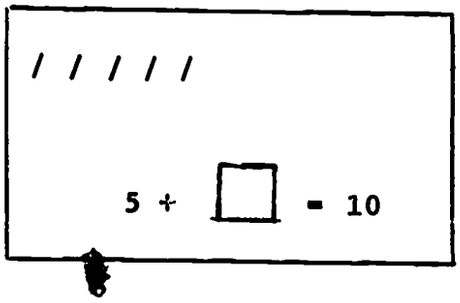


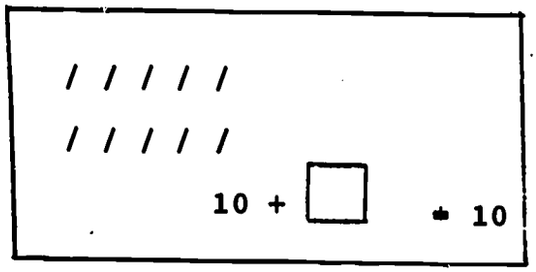












* Repase el conjunto vacío.

Mathematics

Fourth Grade
Geometry

Objectives:

To increase the ability to recognize and to reproduce the four basic geometric forms; the square, the circle, the triangle, and the rectangle.

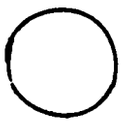
Procedure:

These shapes (figures) the square, circle, triangle, and rectangle are not new to you.

Name these shapes (figures):

1. 

2. 

3. 

4. 

Write the names:

1. _____ 2. _____

3. _____ _____

All these figures or shapes are plane figures. These figures are made up of parts of lines on one plane. These figures on one plane do not have thickness.

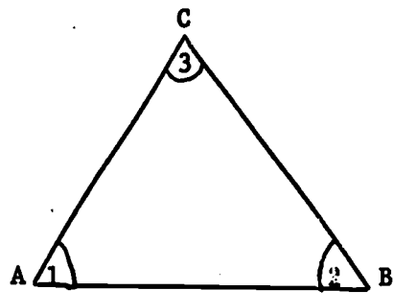
1. Which figures have straight sides?
2. What are the sides called?

The Triangle

1. How many line segments does this shape have?
2. How many angles does it have?

Shapes that have three angles are called triangles. "Tri" means three. Remember these shapes do not have thickness.

The Angles of a Triangle



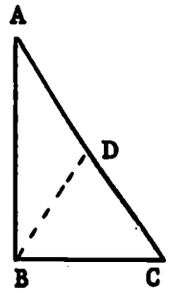
This sign ∠ means angle. The angles of a triangle are named as follows:

∠ 1 = BAC

∠ 2 = ABC

∠ 3 = ?

The following figure is a 30°- 60°right triangle. Let the pupils make inferences about the relationship between the angles and the sides when point D is the midpoint of AC. The pupil should have an angle model (protractor).



1. ∠ ABC = 90°
2. ∠ BAC = 30°
3. ∠ BCA = 60°
4. BC = AD = DC or AC = 2BC
5. In ∠ ABD, AD = BD,
   in ∠ BDC, BD = BC.

The fourth grade lesson in geometry contains the same basic forms as did the first grade lesson discussed above. The additional concepts presented here are thickness, plane surface, and numbers of segments making up a single geometric form. In addition, reading and writing the names of the forms and sentence patterns containing the names should be included in these activities.

Two of the major phonological problems which will have been encountered earlier but need review here are the contrasting /ð/ and /θ/ of this and thick and the many consonant clusters in such words as shapes, figures, and straight.

If the fourth grade children cannot describe the shapes in English sentences, the teacher should use the same drills

suggested for the earlier grades or adaptations of them. If only a few students do not know the basic patterns, they constitute a group for special instruction. A simple test is to hold up pictures of combinations of shapes in different sizes and colors and say, "Tell me about this picture." Asking questions about a picture does not require a whole sentence response on the part of the student.

Many spelling errors are the result of faulty auditory discrimination, and phonological drills are still needed at this grade level for instruction and review. Drills on the placement and ordering of adjectives usually contribute to a more fluent writing style. Expansion drills of the following type are helpful:

T: Circle.

C: That is a circle.

T: Big.

C: That is a big circle.

T: Red.

C: That is a big red circle.

T: John's.

C: That is John's big red circle.

The children may be given scrambled sentences after they can produce the patterns automatically and asked to order them.

Big circle is that John's red.

They may also be given patterns and asked to fill in the blanks with appropriate forms.

Those _____ circles.

John has three _____triangles.

The square is _____than the rectangle.

MATEMATICAS

Cuarto Año

Geometría

Metas:

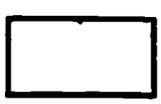
Para aumentar la habilidad de reconocer y reproducir las cuatro formas geométricas básicas; el cuadrado, el círculo, el triángulo, y el rectángulo.

Desarrollo:

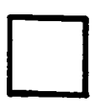
Estas formas o figuras, el cuadrado, el círculo, el triángulo, y el rectángulo no son nuevas para tí.

Nombra estas figuras o formas:

1. 

2. 

3. 

4. 

Escribe los nombres:

1. _____ 2. _____

3. _____ 4. _____

Todas estas figuras son figuras en un plano. Estas figuras se forman de partes de rectas en un plano. Estas figuras en un plano no tienen espesor.

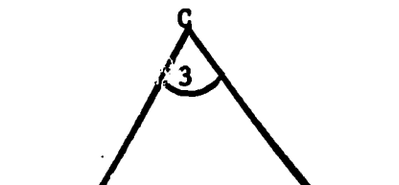
1. ¿Cuáles figuras tienen lados derechos? (rectos)
2. ¿Cómo se les llama a los lados?

EL TRIANGULO

1. ¿Cuántos segmentos tiene esta forma?
2. ¿Cuántos ángulos tiene?

Formas que tienen tres ángulos son llamadas triángulos. "Tri" quiere decir tres. Recuerda, estas formas no tienen espesor.

LOS ÁNGULOS DE UN TRIANGULO



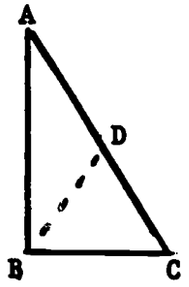
Este signo ∠ quiere decir ángulo. Los ángulos de un triángulo se nombran como sigue:

∠ 1 = BAC

∠ 2 = ABC

∠ 3 = ¿ ?

La figura que sigue es un triángulo recto 30º-60º. Permita al alumno que haga inferencias acerca de las relaciones entre los ángulos y los lados cuando el punto D divide al lado AC en partes iguales. El alumno debe tener un modelo para medir ángulos.



1. $\angle ABC = 90°$
2. $\angle BAC = 30°$
3. $\angle BCA = 60°$
4. $BC = AD = DC \circ AC = 2BC$
5. En el $\angle ABD$, $AD = BD$

   en el $\angle BDC$, $BD = BC$.

Art

Fifth Grade

Objectives:

The fifth grade art program seeks to provide a variety of varied activities. Two or three dimensional activities can be introduced at this grade level.

Materials:

drawing paper, crayons, plaster of paris, water, molds made from the bottom of plastic containers, photographs, 2" by 2" color slides, 8" by 11" transparencies, films, marble chips, and an overhead projector

Methods:

Drawings of shapes by the pupils can be colored with crayons or tempera paint to attain a variety of strokes, shades and textural effects.

These same figures can be made of plaster of paris. The designs can be made when the plaster begins to harden. A finger nail file, a dull knife, or any other similar object can serve to cut into the soft plaster. Sand and other coarse materials may be embedded in the plaster.

Broken marble chips that appear to be old may be placed with Elmer's glue on corrugated cardboard on which the figures have been drawn.

This art lesson makes use of straight lines, circles, squares, and rectangles. Point this out to the children.

ARTE

Quinto Grado

Metas:

El programa de arte en el quinto grado busca proveer una variedad de actividades variadas. Actividades de dos y tres dimensiones se pueden introducir en este grado.

Materiales:

papel para dibujo, colores, yeso, agua, moldes hechos de los fondos de los embases plásticos, proyector "overhead," transparencias 2" por 2" y de 8" por 11," películas, arena, mármol en pedacitos

Desarrollo:

Los dibujos adjuntos y otros originales de los alumnos pueden iluminarse (colorearse) con colores o con pintura "tempera" para lograr una variedad de pinceladas (brochazos), matices (sombras) y efectos variados en textura.

Estos mismas figuras se pueden hacer de yeso. Los diseños se pueden hacer cuando el yeso principia a endurecer en los moldes. Una lima para las uñas o navaja sin filo o algún objeto similar se puede usar para formar el diseño. Area gruesa u otros materiales se pueden incrustar el yeso antes que fragüe bien el yeso.

Pedazos de mármol, con aparencia de ser antiguos, se pueden fijar con pegamento "Elmer" en cartón corrugado en el cual se ha dibujado el diseño.

Esta clase en arte hace uso de rectas (líneas), círculos, cuadrados, y rectángulos. Enfatíce esto a los alumnos.

Art

Fifth and Sixth Grades

The fifth grade art lesson expands the concepts presented in the first and fourth grade lessons and adds another dimension to the shapes.

In this and the sixth grade lesson there is very little or no control of structures. Depend entirely on class at this point. Evaluation is essential. If patterns are learned, progress to more complex; if not, review. In all cases, encourage language use: Describe activities and resulting art forms, allow quiet conversation while working.

Appropriate for either fifth or sixth grade lessons would be prints of Mexican, Spanish, and United States arts to discuss in terms of both forms and cultural factors. Perhaps of interest at the sixth grade level -- discuss Mexican scenes in English and United States scenes in Spanish. Students may find areas where knowledge of one language or the other is inadequate for such discussion and increase vocabulary and awareness.

Other fifth and sixth grade language activities might include preparation of slides of best pictures and accompanying tape to show parents or other students.

Students could prepare written descriptions or instructions

to accompany their pictures for display on walls or in an art booklet compiled by the class.

Such activities to be in Spanish and/or English, but do not have the same description written in both languages on the same day. This would encourage direct translation, which is not desirable. The same pictures could be described in both languages on different occasions and the descriptions placed together on tape, charts, or in an art booklet.

Social Studies

Third Grade
Our Heritage and Our Community

The early explorers arrived to the Americas in 1492. They were pioneers and explored North America. Christopher Columbus landed at San Salvador Island, Bahamas in 1492. Ponce de León, another explorer, landed in St. Augustine, Florida on April 1513. He was followed by Pedro Menéndez de Avilés. He took possession of this land for Spain and founded the first settlement. The first English settlement was established in 1607 by the Virginia Company, ninety-four years after Ponce de León set foot in Florida.

Shortly after this time, the following universities were established and were in operation before the first American University, Harvard, was established in 1636:

- Universidad de Santo Tomás de Aquino . . . 1538
- Universidad Nacional de México 1551
- Universidad de Lima, Perú 1554
- Universidad de Bogotá, Colombia. 1580
- Universidad de Quito, Ecuador. 1586
- Universidad de Cuzco, Perú 1598
- Universidad de Charcas, Bolivia. 1624
- University of Harvard, U.S.A. 1636

Another contribution was the first printing press established in Mexico City in 1535. In 1584 another printing press was

established in Perú. Our first printing press was established in Cambridge in 1639.

One of the first hospitals in the new world was established in Mexico City. The contributions of the Spanish and Mexican cultures were many.

Laredo, Texas was established by Don Tomás Sánchez in 1755. He was an officer in the Royal Army of Spain. St. Augustine Plaza was the center of the city. The streets surrounding the plaza are Zaragoza on the south, Grant on the north, St. Augustine on the east and Flores on the west. Zaragoza Street was named after General Ignacio Zaragoza. He was born in Bahía del Espíritu Santo, Texas. His father was Miguel G. Zaragoza from Spain and his mother María de Seguin. Later, on May 5, 1862, he led the Mexican army and defeated the French in the city of Puebla, Mexico. Grant Street was named after one of our presidents, Ulysses S. Grant.

Another legacy from Spain and Mexico is a strong tie with the Catholic Church. The largest and oldest church in Laredo is St. Augustine.

The kiosk at St. Augustine Plaza is typically Mexican. It is the central structure on the plaza which is used by bands to present musical concerts attended by many people. Music and dances from Mexico and Spain are very popular in the city. There are many schools that teach dancing.

The city of Laredo is located on the banks of the Rio Grande (Rio Bravo). The sister city is Nuevo Laredo, Tamaulipas, Mexico. It was established after Laredo, Texas. This is why it took the name of Nuevo Laredo (New Laredo).

Both cities enjoy a very close friendship. They labor together on many projects. The citizens understand each other. They have many things in common. Among these are: language, music, hospitality, and friendliness. How wonderful it is to find sister cities that know each other! There is a two-way flow of understanding and coöperation between the two Laredos.

Words which are very similar in two languages often cause even more interference problems than words which are very different because the phonological system of one language is more likely to be transferred to the other. Words which look alike but have different meanings, such as asistir and assist are "false cognates" and are very likely to cause problems for the student.

Calling attention to the cognates in the social studies lesson might make the second language sound a little "friendlier" to the children's ears. The children could then be encouraged to listen for additional cognates in the speech someone is using which is their second language. They should carry a pencil and paper with them to record at least one such word and, perhaps, the sentence in which it was used. These would be brought back to class and discussed. The primary purpose of such a lesson is not vocabulary development, but attitude development and the extension of the listening habits acquired in the language lesson to situations outside the classroom.

There should be very little need for the teacher to control rigidly the language use in the third grade social studies lesson. When the first grade teacher may assume that many or most of the students will now know one of the two languages of instruction in a bilingual program, by the third grade and beyond such assumptions are not reliable. A Spanish-speaking student may know enough English vocabulary to get along, but the teacher must realize that he may use the words according to the sound system or word order of his native language (Spanish). It is very likely that the more difficult problems, such as the /s̬/ - /c̬/ distinction or adjective placement for Spanish-speaking students learning English, will still require intensive practice.

At no time should translation-type learning be encouraged, but the subject matter of the third grade lesson suggests that the relationship between the Spanish and English languages might be introduced here along with the other cultural interrelationships between the United States and Mexico. Many place names in the United States are Spanish, and many other words are very similar. We call them "cognates." Even when these words look alike, however, they are pronounced differently, and this might be pointed out with some of the words in the lesson. Universidad, for instance corresponds to university, and operation, possession, contritution, and other good examples are included in the social studies lesson.

CIENCIAS SOCIALES

Tercer Grado

Nuestra Herencia y Nuestra Comunidad

Los primeros exploradores llegaron a las Américas en 1492. Fueron precursores y expoloraron las Américas. Cristóbal Colón llegó a la isla de San Salvador, Bahamas en 1492. Ponce de León pisó tierra en San Agustín, Florida en abril de 1513. Le siguió Pedro Menéndez de Avilés. Tomó posesión de esta tierra en nombre de España y fundó la primera población. La primera población inglesa se fundó en 1607 por la Compañia de Virginia, noventa y cuatro años después de haber pisado tierra Ponce de León.

Poco después, las siguientes universidades se establecieron y estaban en operación antes que la primera universidad americana, Harvard, se estableciera:

- Universidad de Santo Tomás de Aquino . . . 1538
- Universidad Nacional de México 1551
- Universidad de Lima 1554
- Universidad de Bogotá 1580
- Universidad de Quito 1586
- Universidad de Cuzco, Peru 1598
- Universidad de Charcas, Bolivia 1624
- Universidad de Harvard, U.S.A. 1636

Otra contribución fué la primera imprenta establecida en la ciudad de México en 1535. En 1584 otra imprenta se estableció

en Perú. La primera imprenta nuestra se estableció en Cambridge en 1639.

Uno de los primeros hospitales en el nuevo mundo se estableció en la ciudad de México. Las contribuciones culturales de España y de México fueron muchas.

Don Tomás Sánchez estableció Laredo, Texas en 1775. Era un oficial del Ejercito Real Español. La Plaza de San Agustín era el centro de la ciudad. Las calles que rodean la plaza son Zaragoza al sur, Grant al norte, San Agustín al este y Flores al oeste. La calle de Zaragoza se nombró en honor del General Ignacio Zaragoza. Nació en Bahía del Espíritu Santo, Texas. Su padre fué Miguel G. Zaragoza de España y su madre María de Seguín. Más tarde, el 5 de mayo de 1862, derrotó al ejercito francés en la ciudad de Puebla, México. La calle Grant se nombró en honor de uno de nuestros presidentes, el general Ulysses S. Grant.

Otra herencia de España y de México fué el vínculo fuerte con la iglesia católica. La iglesia más grande y más antigua en Laredo es San Agustín.

El <u>kiosko</u> en la Plaza de San Agustín es típicamente mexicano. Es la estructura central en la plaza que usan las bandas que presentan conciertos musicales. Música y danzas de México y de España son muy populares en la ciudad. Existen muchas escuelas que enseñan estos bailes.

La ciudad de Laredo está situada en la ribera del Rio Grande (Rio Bravo). La ciudad hermana es Nuevo Laredo, Tamaulipas, México. Se estableció después de Laredo, Texas. Por eso se llama Nuevo Laredo.

Las dos ciudades gozan de una amistad muy cercana. Laboran juntas en muchos proyectos. Los ciudadanos se entienden los unos a los otros. Tienen muchas cosas en común: lenguaje, música, hospitalidad, y amistad. ¡Qué hermoso es encontrar ciudades hermanas que se conocen! Hay un canal abierto, en doble sentido, de entendimiento y cooperación entre los dos Laredos.

Social Studies

Sixth Grade
Present Day Mexico

Mexico is in North America. It is our sister republic to the south. It borders with the state of Texas and other southwestern states on the north and with Guatemala on the south. The Gulf of Mexico is to the east and the Pacific Ocean to the west.

Mexico has made great progress in the last twenty years. Like in the United States, the principal cities have grown. In some regions the people have left the small towns to make their homes in the larger cities.

The principal city in northern Mexico is Monterrey. It is the "Pittsburg" of Mexico. Large steel mills furnish the building materials that are needed for the building boom in all Mexico. A large German automobile plant has been dismantled and rebuilt in Monterrey. Other American and European plants assemble automobiles in Mexico.

There are many excellent schools in Monterrey. There is one state university, University of Nuevo Leon, and the Technological Institute. The former institution prepares many engineers and technicians for the booming industry of our friendly neighbor. Every year about 900 students from the United States enroll in summer school. Most of these students study Spanish.

To the south of Monterrey is Mexico City. It is the capital of the republic. Mexico, D.F., (city) is one of the most beautiful cities in the world. Like Washington, District of Columbia, Mexico City is in a special district, Mexico, Distrito Federal. Mexico City is one of the largest cities in the world. The population is over six million. Besides its beauty and size Mexico City is about 7,000 feet above sea level. The National University of Mexico is also one of the largest and most beautiful educational institutions. Large murals made of tile tell of its history and of its struggles. It is also one of the oldest universities in the Americas. It was founded in 1551. The enrollment, today, is in excess of 75,000 students. This figure will let you know that it is one of the largest in the world.

There are other similarities with the United States. The lives of two of its heroes, Abraham Lincoln and Benito Juárez parallel.

How striking is the similarity between the two great men, both leaders in the struggle for liberty.

Both were born in humble country homes. Juárez was born near the beautiful lake of Guelatao, State of Oaxaca, and when a child was a simple little sheep herder. Lincoln was born in a farm near the forests and worked as a rail splitter.

Studious and eager to become someone, both became lawyers and both reached the presidency of the two republics. Both were endowed with wisdom and sound practical spirit, profound convictions, logically ordered ideas, a deep (strong) moral sense, and an iron will.

One fought to free the slaves and the other to free his country from the unjust French invaders. Lincoln from Washington decreed: "That as of the first of January 1863 any person held as a slave would be free thenceforth and forever more." Juárez said: "Among individuals, as among nations, peace constitutes respect for the rights of others." Both had the fortune to save their country: Lincoln from the disunity and Juárez from the unjust invasion by the French. Both died when according to Walt Whitman each ship of the state had been "anchored safe and sound." These two great men will live in the memory and in the hearts of the people of each nation and of the world.

CIENCIAS SOCIALES

Sexto Grado

El México de Hoy

México está en Norte América. Es nuestra república hermana al sur. Tiene frontera con Texas y otros estados del sudoeste al norte y con Guatemala al sur. El Golfo de México está a este y el Océano Pacífico al oeste.

Los Estados Unidos de México han progresado mucho en los últimos viente años. Como en los Estados Unidos del Norte (U.S.A.) las ciudades principales han crecido. En algunas regiones la gente ha salido de los pueblos para hacer sus hogares en las ciudades grandes.

La ciudad principal en la parte norte de México es Monterrey. Es el "Pittsburgh" de México. Grandes hornos de acero proveen los materiales necesarios para construcciones que abundan en todo México. Una fábrica grande de automóbiles fue desmantelada en Alemania y reconstruida en Monterrey. Otras plantas americanas y europeas arman automóbiles en México.

Hay muchas escuelas excelentes en Monterrey. Hay una universidad del estado, Universidad de Nuevo León, y el Instituto Tecnológico. Este último prepara a muchos ingenieros y técnicos para la industria que prospera a grandes pasos en México, nuestro buen vecino. Cada año como 900 alumnos de los Estados Unidos se matriculan en la escuela de verano. La mayor parte de estos alumnos estudian español.

Al sur de Monterrey está la Ciudad de México. Es la capital de la república. México, D. F. es una de las ciudades mas hermosas del mundo. Como Washington, Distrito de Colombia, la Ciudad de México está en un distrito especial, El Distrito Federal. La Ciudad de México es una de las ciudades más grandes del mundo. La población es más de seis millones. Además de su belleza y tamaño, la Ciudad de México está como 7,000 pies sobre el nivel del mar.

La Universidad Nacional de México es también una de las más hermosas. Grandes murales, hechos de mosaico relatan su historia y luchas. Es también una de las más antiguas en las Américas. Se fundó en 1551. Hoy en día, la matricula es más de 75,000 alumnos. Por esta cifra conocerán que es una de las más grandes del mundo.

Hay otras similaridades con los Estados Unidos. Las vidas de dos de sus héroes Abraham Lincoln y Benito Juárez paralelan.

¡Qué impresionante es la semejanza entre estos dos grandes hombres, adalides de la libertad!

Ambos fueron campesinos que nacieron en cuna humilde. Juárez nació a la orilla del lago hermosísimo de Guelatao, estado de Oaxaca, y cuando niño fue sencillo pastorcito.

Lincoln nació en una granja en la proximidad del bosque y fue recio leñador desde su infancia. Amantes del estudio y

ansiosos de elevación, ambos se hicieron abogados y alcanzaron la presidencia de las dos repúblicas. Fueron varones sensatos, de gran espíritu práctico, de profundas convicciones, de un hondo sentido moral y de una voluntad de acero.

Uno luchó por la libertad de los esclavos y el otro por la libertad de la Patria. Lincoln, desde Washington, D. C., decretó: el primero de enero de 1863 toda persona tenida por esclavo será libre desde entonce y para siempre." Juárez dijo: "entre los individuos, como entre las naciones, el respeto al derecho ajeno es la paz." Ambos tuvieron la fortuna de salvar a su Patria: Lincoln de la desunión, y Juárez de la injusta invación francesa. Murieron ambos cuando, según Walt Whitman, "está el barco anclado sano y salvo, terminado y cumplido su viaje." Estos dos grandes hombres vivirán en la memoria y en el corazón de sus pueblos y del mundo entero.