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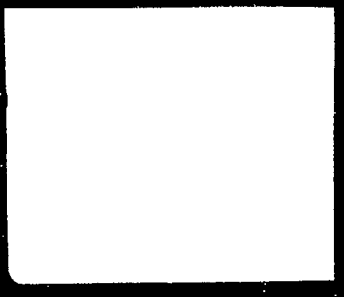
ABSTRACT

The resource manual is designed to provide educators with information regarding some of the resources available in bilingual education for language minority students. It may also be useful to parents and community members involved in policy formation or interested in being well informed about bilingual education. The first section outlines the evolution of bilingual education, giving a historical perspective on both federal and some California state legislation and guidelines. Subsequently, practical program design and implementation issues are discussed and appropriate resources are identified. These issues include identification and assessment of limited-English-proficient (LEP) students, and alternative curriculum models, including full, partial, and transitional bilingual programs, language maintenance, bilingual individual learning program, underachieving linguistic minority student supplemental education, and high-intensity English-as-a-Second Language instruction. A subsequent chapter discusses two theoretical issues in language development of LEP students: use of vernacular language and emphasis on cultural identification and pride. An annotated bibliography cites current research on a number of the topics previously discussed. Finally, articles on formal English as a second language and on cognitive style in bilingual education are appended. (MSE)



RESOURCE MANUAL FOR BILINGUAL EDUCATORS

Produced by
Naomi Gray Associates, Inc.
1726 Fillmore Street
San Francisco, California 94115

For
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Office of Bilingual Education
and Minority Language Affairs.

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BILINGUAL RESOURCE MANUAL

FORWARD

This resource manual was prepared with funds provided through the U.S. Office of Education; Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Language Affairs. Its purpose is to provide educators with the necessary information regarding some of the resources available in bilingual education for middle school Language Minority Students. Its primary focus will be to give educators an awareness of the plight faced by LEP students and then identify resources of Bilingual Education and services available to help meet the critical needs of Language Minority Students.

The first part of the resource manual will focus on the evolution of bilingual education, giving a historical perspective of legislation and guidelines set forth by the Federal Government and referencing some bilingual state laws; the second half will focus on selected articles which address current issues in bilingual education and bilingual program devlopment, as well as a listing of resources available to districts seeking information/resources for middle school.

Our hope is to assist educators in locating and organizing quality educational materials which wil help set the stage for providing education. This resource manual should be considered a guide, a starting point for the educator which can be expanded. It is divided into four sections:

(1) Historical perspective, this section addresses both the history and legislation governing Bilingual Education;

(2) Current research on Bilingual Education;

(3) Cultural perspective of bilingualism and

(4) a listing of resources of training and technical assistance.

PREFACE

The purpose of this resource manual is to guide educators who must implement a bilingual program in their schools, who are unaware of the resources available and who need practical information in order to make the best decision possible for their students. This manual will consider aspects of bilingual program development while briefly discussing federal and state laws and regulations that set the parameters of bilingual programs. Urban districts with bilingual programs have had to face unfamiliar and complex educational decisions. Educators have been unable to provide programs which consistently meet the learning needs of Limited English Proficient students (LEP). Consistant and effective program planning requires understanding, educational attainments possible for LEP students and recognition of past successes and failures.

As emphasized in this manual, each district (whether just established or already involved in bilingual education) should be guided by a comprehensive assessment of student needs and the resources available to meet them.

This manual is designed primary for school personnel who have decision-making responsibilities for meeting the needs of Limited English Proficient (LEP) students. It is also intended as a resource for parents and community members who serve on school boards, project advisory committees, or for community members desiring a better understanding of bilingual education.

Meeting the needs of Limited English Proficient (LEP) students is an integral part of school district curriculum planning. This resource manual is designed for principals and/or district administrators who must develop programs to meet the specialized needs of LEP students. This manual will provide guidelines and background information needed for the implementation of a new bilingual program and assist in the expansion or improvement of existing programs. The research provided can serve as the basic criteria for bilingual program development of all types.

While it may not answer all of your specific questions, I hope it will serve as a guide for designing your bilingual program.

BACKGROUND

No public institution has a greater and more direct impact on future opportunity than the school. It directly affects the lives of over 5 million students. Between the ages of 5 and 17, American children spend much of their time in school. Early success or failure dictates to a large extent a student's expectations for the future including whether he or she will seek post secondary education and thus have a wide range of economic choices and options available following formal schooling.

The evolution of Federal and state mandates which govern Bilingual Education evolved as the result of the Brown v. Board of Education [1] and was later followed in the 1960's by civil rights activity to end segragated schools. Similarly, much of the same effort to overcome discrimination against limited or non-English speaking persons in the 1970's was focused on schools.

The term "Language Minority" refers to persons in the United States who speak a non-English native language and who belong to identifiable minority groups usually of low social economic status. Some of the language minority groups include -- Mexican Americans, Chinese, Puerto Ricans, Haitian, Native Americans, Vietnamese, Filipinos, and other Asian Americans which have been subject to discrimination and limited opportunities.

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[1] 374 U.S. 483(1954). Finding that segregated schools are inherently unequal, the Supreme Court held that State laws compelling black students to be educated separately from white students are unconstitutional.

There is a need to identify the full range of variables which affect programs. The Process For Service Delivery Plan represents a range of variables to consider in assessing bilingual program and technical assistance needs. In addition to the variables listed above, there are concerns related to children with interrupted education; lack of adequate funding to attract bilingual teachers to small, rural districts; the controversial nature of bilingual programs, leading to isolation of teachers in bilingual programs; and lack of adequate resources to implement good ideas and take advantage of existing teacher talent and good will. There is also outright resistance to bilingual education from staffs, parents, and communities.

On the other hand, there are districts with well-established programs and staff development training which falter for lack of stable funding. For this reason, well-established programs are being cut back (e.g., suburban Oakland and San Jose districts). Clearly there are an infinite number of combinations of variables. Because of this complexity, there is a need to design and implement a process to (1) identify the full range of variables; (2) determine the specific variables and their weighted values for each district or cluster of districts; and (3) plan appropriate training and technical assistance programs which maximize resources from the local level up to the federal, even international level, and vice versa.

RATIONALE FOR A BILINGUAL APPROACH

Any experimental curriculum must grow out of logic based upon theoretical and practical consideration of the nature of learners, the learning tasks, the education of teachers, the school community and a multitude of other variables. The decision to engage full the Spanish language background and the cultural heritage of Mexican-American pupils proceeds from a conviction that the school is a verbal world; that these verbal demands include oral and written language; and the failure to control the language of the school reduces the amount of knowledge and information available to pupils. This viewpoint places a great emphasis upon the communication skill of listening, speaking, reading, and writing in the native language of the learner.

His own language provides the foundation for literacy; his encounters with the school environment are mediated by his native speech; his concepts are acquired, clarified, labeled, stored and recalled through the use of his personal system of language symbols. His sense of identity and self-worth are enhanced by the acceptance of his language and culture.

It appears reasonable to off the following statements as a framework to support a curriculum design who essential feature is the use of the pupils' native language, Spanish.

1. The learning on one's mother tongue takes place in the intimacy of one's family and carries with it memories, feelings, and emotions which become part of the self.
2. Acceptance and valuing of the pupil's native language nurtures feelings of acceptance and valuing of self and family.
3. Human beings learn to listen and to speak before they learn to read and write. Thus, the natural order of language is listening, speaking, reading and writing.
4. It makes sense to read first the language which has been mastered oral form.

5. There is an important relationship between oral language and its written form, for print depends for its existence upon the prior existence of speech.

6. Learning to read and write in Spanish makes full use of the mastery of sound and structure of the native language which Spanish speakers possess. The introduction of the written form of a second language, English, demands, Unrealistically, responses to a sound and structure not sufficiently controlled in its oral form.

7. Use and refinement of one's native language opens up the content areas of mathematics, science, literature, and all other facets of the curriculum which demand the processing of information presented through print.

8. A broad base of oral language should support any writing system to be learned if both oral and written language proficiency are the goals.

9. There are many possibilities for positive transfer later to the reading of English after literacy is achieved in Spanish. These transfer elements stem from the commonalities in the reading process as well as the attitudes of learners who have been successful and who know they are literate.

10. In today's world, there is a tremendous need to encourage literacy and language proficiency in many idioms. Many of the future linguists of the nation may be found among this Mexican- American segmnet of the school population.

Eleanor Thonis, Ph.D.
Director, Yuba County Reading-Learning Center
Olivehurst, California

BACKGROUND: LAW AND REGULATIONS

The purpose of this chapter is to give a brief overview of the state and federal legislation which affects the development of bilingual instructional programs in California.

The Bilingual Education Improvement and Reform Act (AB 507)

The Bilingual Education Improvement and Reform Act of 1980 (AB 507) provides greater clarity and flexibility to bilingual education programs and services for limited English proficient (LEP) pupils. Pursuant to AB 507, other statute provisions and regulations adopted by the State Board of Education, all districts (K-12) are required to:

1. identify the primary language of all pupils, using a Home Language Survey, within 30 days of enrollment (See Chapter 2). Each student who identifies with a language other than English is a potential LEP student.
2. assess the proficiency of potential LEP students in English within 30 days of enrollment. Language proficiency includes understanding, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Part of this assessment requires the use of state-approved instruments (See Chapter 2).
3. conduct a diagnostic assessment of each LEP pupil in English and in the primary language and determine the language to be used for instruction of basic skills within 90 days of enrollment. A criterion referenced test based on the district bilingual curriculum is an example of one approach to diagnostic assessment.
4. establish District Bilingual Advisory Committee (See Chpater 5) when there are at least 51 LEP pupils in a school.
5. establish School Bilingual Advisory Committees (See Chapter 5) when there are at least 21 LEP pupils in a school. Committee members need not represent the same language group.
6. provide appropriate bilingual education programs (program options a, b, c, d, e or f are described on the following pages) for all LEP pupils.

7. adopt appropriate guidelines for role, competencies and career-ladder training when bilingual instructional aides are required. (The requirement is pending approval.)
8. assess LEP pupils' academic achievement in English and in primary language each year (for example: CTBS English/Spanish).
9. complete annual language census.

Additionally, all K-6 schools are required to:

10. provide, when there are 10 or more LEP pupils per grade, with the same primary language:
    a. Basic Bilingual Education
    b. Bilingual Bicultural Education, or
    c. Experimental Bilingual Programs.

    These options are described in terms of specific programs below.
11. staff each a, b, or c programs with bilingual crosscultural teacher (except when waiver granted).
12. notify parents of LEP pupils (See Appendix B) of the results of the
    a. initial identification,
    b. diagnostic assessment,
    c. pupil eligibility for participation in a bilingual program, and
    d. reclassification assessment.
13. provide an additional bilingual teacher to assist in the implementation of Individual Learning Plans (ILP) when there are 20 or more LEP students of the same primary language not in a, b, or c programs and a specified level of funds is available. The specified level of funds had not been determined as of July 1981.

    For a detailed description of AB 507 programmatic requirements (as of May 1981), see Appendix A. In brief, however, AB 507 specifies seven (7) bilingual education program options.

BILINGUAL EDUCATION PROGRAM OPTIONS

Option a: Bilingual Education K-6

Goal: To develop English language proficiency.

Program Requirements:

1. LEP students receive daily English language development instruction. English language development includes oral language development, English as a second language (ESL) and when appropriate the building of literacy skills.
2. LEP students receive daily basic skills (i.e. mathematics, language arts, reading and writing when appropriate) instruction in primary language in order to sustain basic skills achievement until the transfer to English is made.
3. Monolingual English speaking students in a bilingual program must be offered instruction in the primary language of the LEP pupils.
4. All pupils shall participate in activities designed to promote a positive self-image and crosscultural understanding.

Option b: Bilingual Bicultural Education K-6

Goal: To develop competency in English and the primary language.

Program Requirements:

1. LEP students receive daily English language development instruction.
2. LEP students receive instruction designed to develop the primary language, i.e. oral and literacy skills.
3. LEP students receive instruction in other selected subjects in the primary language.
4. Monolingual English speaking students participating in a bilingual program must be offered instruction in the primary language of the LEP pupils.
5. All pupils shall participate in activities designed to promote a positive self-image and crosscultural understanding.

Option c-1A: Innovative Bilingual Program K-6

Goal: To provide an innovative educational opportunity for students in a bilingual education program.

Program Requirements:

Must include an innovative approach such as a new management application or greater emphasis on team teaching while remaining within the programmatic requirements of program options a or b.

Option c-1B: Planned Variation Programs K-6

Goal: To provide School Districts with a vehicle to develop new approaches to educating the bilingual student.

Applications must be approved by the State Board of Education prior to implementation. Only districts which have demonstrated a continuing commitment to bilingual education programs compliant with state and federal statutes are considered eligible to submit applications.

Extensive planning is needed in order to meet option c-1B programmatic requirements (See Appendix A).

Option d: Secondary Level Language Learning 7-12

Goal: To provide English language development while the student receives primary language support in courses required for graduation.

Program Requirements:

1. Each LEP student will have not less than one period a day of English language development.
2. Districts will provide primary language instructional support in courses required for graduation.
3. Pupils shall participate in activities which promote a positive self-image and crosscultural understanding.

Option e: Secondary Level Individual Learning Program 7-12

Goal: To develop English proficiency.

Program Requirements:

1. Districts will observe the legal requirements of Lau V. Nichols and other federal regulations. (See Appendix A)
2. Each LEP pupil must receive instruction in a language understandable to the pupil; instruction builds upon the pupils' language skills in order to develop proficiency in English
3. All pupils shall participate in activities which promote a positive self-image and crosscultural understanding.

This program option is an example of the minimum requirements for 7-12 schools.

Option f: Elementary Level Individual Learning Program K-6

Goal: To provide bilingual education for pupils utilizing an Individual Learning Plan (ILP).

Program Requirements:

1. Each LEP student receives English language development instruction.
2. Each LEP student receives primary language instruction.
3. Each LEP student shall participate in activities which promote a positive self-image and crosscultural understanding.

The School Improvement Act (AB 65)

1. School Improvement Program (SIP): SIP plans must address the needs of the LEP students in each school. These requirements are congruent with AB 507 regulations.
2. Economic Impact Aid (EIA): Economic Impact Aid (EIA) emerged from the enactment of AB 65. As of July 1, 1979, all state categorical aid for compensatory and bilingual education was consolidated into this program.

   The Local Education Agency (LEA) is responsible for allocating EIA funds to meet the needs of LEP pupils. This money must supplement and not supplant local general funds or categorical funds allocated from other local or state sources. EIA categorical funds may be used for bilingual education even when the school is not eligible for state compensatory education funds.

The Bilingual Education Act: ESEA, Title VII

The Bilingual Education Act of 1969 was enacted by Congress to establish equal educational opportunity for all children. The intent of the act is to encourage the establishment of programs demonstrating bilingual educational practices, techniques and methods. ESEA Title VII provides financial assistance to state and local agencies to develop and implement programs in pre-school, elementary and secondary schools and to demonstrate effective ways of helping limited English proficient students achieve competence in English while using their primary language.

ESEA Title VII funds are intended to finance a program during its initial years only. Once the development period is over, a district is expected to

assume all expenses connected with the operation of a bilingual program.

With the cutback in Title VII monies, it has become more difficult to obtain new grants under the appropriation. If you are interested in applying for Title VII monies, contact the State Department of Education Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education (OBBE).

Other Funding Considerations:

Districts must be aware of the diminishing resources available for bilingual education development. A district which does not plan for the long-range fiscal implications of dwindling federal and state funds may face the need to dismiss personnel and terminate services. For this reason, the school district administration must be committed to long-range program development making provisions for future program stability.

Some private sources, such as foundations, fund a few bilingual services. Community organizations such as local service clubs and the Parent Teacher Association (PTA), may provide certain services not addressed by other funding sources. Some community organizations have provided child care to enable mothers to participate in their children's school activities or to enroll in English as a second language classes.

Parent and community volunteers should not be overlooked as a source of assistance in the classroom. With inservice training and proper supervision, such volunteers are most valuable. Volunteers, working side-by-side with paid classroom aides, may create an uncomfortable situation unless they understand that volunteers form a pool from which paid positions can be filled.

A creative program director can find ways of coordinating the need for bilingual materials and services with existing budget plans. Supplementary reading materials, for example, might be included in the school's library budget, and a multicultural unit can be incorporated into the regular budget for inservice training.

FEDERAL LAWS AND REGULATIONS CONCERNING DISCRIMINATION IN EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

Legislation	Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964	Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972	Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 as amended by the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972 and by the Pregnancy Discrimination Act of 1978	Equal Pay Act of 1963 as amended by the Education Amendments of 1972	Executive Order 11246 as amended by 11375 and 12086	Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1972	Vocational Education Guidelines for Eliminating Discrimination & Denial of Service on the basis of race, color, sex, national origin & handicap
What is Covered	All programs or activities receiving or benefiting from federal financial assistance.	All educational institutions receiving or benefiting from federal financial assistance	All institutions with 15 or more employees	All institutions	All institutions with federal contracts over $10,000	Any programs and activities receiving or benefiting from federal assistance	Recipients of federal funds offering or administering vocational education programs
What is Prohibited	Discrimination on the grounds of race, color, national origin	Discrimination on the basis of sex	Discrimination in employment on the basis of race, color, religion, national origin or sex	Discrimination in salaries on the basis of sex	Discrimination in employment on the basis of race color, sex, religion, national origin	Discrimination on the basis of handicap	Discrimination on the basis of race, color, national origin, sex or handicapping condition
Which Agency Enforces	U.S. Office for Civil Rights	U.S. Office for Civil Rights	Equal Employment Opportunity Commission	Equal Employment Opportunity commission	U.S. Department of Labor	U.S. Office for Civil Rights	U.S. Office for Civil Rights

LAU REMEDIES AND PROPOSED TILTE IV GUIDELINES

FEDERAL AND STATE AUTHORITY FOR THE
BILINGUAL INDIVIDUAL LEARNING PROGRAM

1. Civil Rights Act of 1964, Title VI

"No person in the United States shall, on the ground of race, color, or national origin, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance."

2. May 25, 1970 Memorandum, Depart. of HEW, 35 Fed. Reg. 11595 (1970)

Sent to school districts with more than 5 percent national origin minority children

"Where inability to speak and understand the English Language excludes national origin-minority group children from effective participation in the educational program offered by a school district, the district must take affirmative steps to rectify the language deficiency in order to open its instructional program to these students."

"Any ability grouping or tracking system employed by the school system to deal with the special language skill needs of national origin-minority group children must be designed to meet such language skill needs as soon as possible and must not operate as an educational dead-end or permanent track."

3. Lau v. Nichols U. S. Supreme Court Decision of 1974

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

4. Equal Education Opportunities Act of 1974, 20 U.S.C. 1703 (f)

"No State shall deny equal educational opportunity to an individual on account of his or her race, color, sex, or national origin, by ...(f) the failure by an educational agency to overcome language barriers that impede equal participation by its students in its instructional programs."

5. Task Force Findings Specifying Remedies Available for Eliminating Past Educational Practices Ruled Unlawful Under Lau v. Nichols (LAU GUIDELINES) Summer 1975

"We will require a plan under Lau during the initial stage of investigation when the district has 20 or more students of the same language group identified as having a primary home language other than English. However, a district does have an obligation to serve any student whose primary or home language is other than English.

At the Elementary and Intermediate Levels:

Any one or combination of the following programs is acceptable.

1. Transitional Bilingual Education Program (TBE)
2. Bilingual/Bicultural Program
3. Multilingual/Multicultural Program

LEGISLATIVE HISTORY

OVERVIEW

NON-DISCRIMINATION LEGISLATION: TITLE VI OF THE 1964 CIVIL RIGHTS ACT - LAW AND REGULATION

In the past, educational practices have resulted in denying many minorities, including those with limited English proficiency, the equal educational opportunities to which they are legally entitled. Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 enacts a broad prohibition against discrimination in federally funded programs. The statute is intended to prohibit discrimination against all race and national origin minorities. It reads in part --

> "No person in the United States shall, on the ground of race, color or national origin, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any program or activity receiving federal financial assistance." (42 U.S.C. 2000d)

Shortly after Title VI became law, the Department of Health, Education and Welfare promulgated regulations implementing Title VI (45 CFR Part 80, republished as 34 CFR Part 100). The regulations were primarily directed toward the elimination of segregation. Among other things, the regulations prohibited practices by recipients that:

- Resulted in services, financial aid or other benefits that were different or provided in a different manner to minority and non-minority people.
- Restricted an individual's enjoyment of an advantage or privilege enjoyed by others on the basis of race, color or national origin; or denied an individual the right to participate in federally assisted programs because of race, color or national origin.
- Had the effect of defeating or substantially impairing the objectives of federally assisted programs with respect to persons of a particular race, color or national origin.

Lau v. Nichols and Lau Remedies*

Title VI and its implementing regulations prohibit the denial of access to education programs because of a student's limited English proficiency. This interpretation was publicized through a guideline, the May 25, 1970 Memorandum (35 Fed. Reg. 11595), which was unanimously upheld as an appropriate and permissible interpretation of Title VI in

*The literature often refers to the Lau Remedies as the Lau Guidelines.

the United States Supreme Court, in Lau v. Nichols, 414 U.S. 563 (1974).

The Lau decision involved approximately 3,000 limited-English-proficient Chinese students enrolled in the San Francisco public schools who were required to attend classes taught exclusively in English. The opinion of the Court noted that the Title VI regulations promulgated by the Department of Health, Education and Welfare prohibited conduct which had a discriminatory effect as well as conduct which was intentionally discriminatory.

The Court reasoned that exclusion based upon a characteristic unique to a national-origin minority group had the same effect as an intentional scheme to exclude such a group from a realistic chance to obtain an education. In part, the opinion stated:

> "...there is no equality of treatment merely by providing students with the same facilities, textbooks, teachers and curriculum, for students who do not understand English are effectively foreclosed from any meaningful education." (Lau, supra, at p. 566.)

The Lau decision did not prescribe the steps which a school district must take to accommodate students whose English is limited. The Court stated:

> "Teaching English to the students of Chinese ancestry who do not speak the language is one choice. Giving instruction to this group in Chinese is another. There may be others." (Lau, supra, at p. 565.)

After the Court's decision was rendered, the Department of Health, Education and Welfare asked experts for advice on assisting limited-English- proficient students. The result was a policy document, made available in the summer of 1975, entitled Task Force Findings Specifying Remedies Available for Eliminating Past Educational Practices Ruled Unlawful Under Lau v. Nichols. The document was not published in the Federal Register, but was distributed widely to school officials and to the general public. This document became known as the Lau Remedies.

The document was originally developed to guide the Department's Office for Civil Rights in evaluating plans to eliminate Title VI violations resulting from the exclusion of students whose English is limited. A plan that met the criteria established in the document was automatically accepted. In applying the Lau Remedies, Department officials adopted the following policies:

- Schools were required to provide instruction to elementary

students through their strongest language until the students were able to participate effectively in a classroom where instruction was given exclusively through English.

- Schools were required to provide effective instruction in English as a second language to all students for whom English was not the strongest language.

- Districts were permitted to rely exclusively on English-as-a-second-language instruction only if they could demonstrate that their program was as effective as the types of programs described by the Lau Remedies.

Proposed Rules Implementing Provisions of Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 based on the Lau Decision

The August, 1980 proposed rules prohibit recipients of federal financial assistance from denying equality of access to any student because of that student's limited proficiency in English.

The procedures required by the proposed rules fall into four broad categories. Recipients must first identify each student's primary language. After students with a primary language other than English have been identified, their skills in English and their primary language must be assessed. Depending on the results of the assessment, different students are entitled to different types of services. Finally, the recipient must reassess students to determine when services may be ended.

Proposed Rule: Public Hearings

DATES: Public hearings were held in September. Additional comments must be received on or before October 20, 1980.

FOR FURTHER INFORMATION CONTACT: Mr. David Leeman, Office for Civil Rights, Department of Education. Telephone: (202) 472-4422.

PROGRAMMATIC LEGISLATION: TITLE VII

ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION ACT OF 1965 (ESEA)
THE BILINGUAL EDUCATION ACT

In addition to Title VI, other statutes have been enacted to encourage special help for students with a primary language other than English. Although it is not administered by the Education Department, the Equal Educational Opportunity Act of 1974 requires that public educational agencies take steps to overcome language barriers impeding equal participation in school programs.

Under Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, the Bilingual Education Act, the Education Department administers a $167 million program of grants and contracts to support bilingual education. Several states, including California, Texas, Colorado and Massachusetts, have also enacted laws requiring bilingual education programs. These statutes, which provide state funds for bilingual education, vary widely in the nature of the services they require and in the populations they serve.

The Bilingual Education Act authorizes funding of the following programs (Subpart A of the regulations):

- BASIC PROJECTS IN BILINGUAL EDUCATION: This program provides financial assistance to establish, operate, or improve programs of bilingual education, to assist children of limited English proficiency to improve their English language skills.

- DEMONSTRATION PROJECTS: This program provides financial assistance to demonstrate exemplary approaches to programs of bilingual education.

- STATE EDUCATIONAL AGENCY PROJECTS FOR COORDINATING TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE: This program provides financial assistance to State educational agencies to coordinate technical assistance to programs of bilingual education.

- SUPPORT SERVICES PROJECTS: Includes funding of:

  - BILINGUAL EDUCATION SERVICE CENTERS which provide training and other services to programs of bilingual education and bilingual education training programs within designated service areas.

- EVALUATION, DISSEMINATION, AND ASSESSMENT CENTERS which assist programs of bilingual education and bilingual education training programs within designated services areas in assessing, evaluating, and disseminating bilingual education materials.

- TRAINING PROJECTS: This program provides financial assistance to establish, operate, or improve training programs for professional personnel.

- SCHOOL OF EDUCATION PROJECTS: This program provides financial assistance to institutions of higher education to develop or expand their capability to provide degree-granting bilingual education programs.

- DESEGREGATION SUPPORT PROGRAM: This program provides assistance to desegregating local educational agencies to meet the needs of children who are from an environment in which the dominant language is other than English and who lack equality of educational opportunity because of language barriers and cultural differences.

- FELLOWSHIP PROGRAM: This program provides financial assistance to full-time graduate students who are preparing to become trainers of teachers for bilingual education.

- MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS PROGRAM: This program awards grants and contracts to develop instructional and testing materials for use in programs of bilingual education and bilingual education training programs.

- RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM: This program authorizes funding for research activities in bilingual education.

Prepared by Sheryl Denbo
Executive Director
Denbo Associates
1437 Rhode Island Avenue
Washington, D.C. 20005

SUMMARY OF FEDERAL STATUTES, DIRECTIVES, AND CASE LAW
REGARDING NATIONAL ORIGIN MINORITY STUDENTS

1. Civil Rights Act of 1964, Title VI

> "No person in the United States shall, on the ground of race, color, or national origin, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance."

2. May 25, 1970 Memorandum, Depart. of HEW, 35 Fed. Reg. 11595 (1970) (Sent to school districts with more than 5 percent national minority children)

Compliance reviews by the Office for Civil Rights (OCR) revealed a number of practices that denied equality of educational opportunity to linguistic minority students. The May 25 memorandum clarified how Title VI applied to national origin minority students:

> "Where inability to speak and understand the English language excludes national origin-minority group children from effective participation in the educational program offered by a school district, the district must take affirmative steps to rectify the language deficiency in order to open its instructional program to these students."

Further, the memo states:

> "Any ability grouping or tracking system employed by the school system to deal with the special language skill needs of national origin-minority group children must be designed to meet such language skill needs as soon as possible and must not operate as an educational dead-end or permanent track."

Comment

Although the memo requires districts to take "affirmative steps" (not defined), it does not suggest or state that such steps require the expenditure of additional funds.

The memo places equal emphasis on (1) placing students in appropriate programs and (2) removing students from these programs once their linguistic needs are met.

3. Lau v. Nichols U.S. Supreme Court Decision of 1974

Decision was based on Title VI and rested upon the requirements of May 25 memorandum:

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

The San Francisco Board of Education was directed to "apply its expertise to the problem and rectify the situation." (No specific relief was requested.)

Comment

The Court recognized the ability of HEW to set forth regulations and interpretive directions pursuant to federal statutory authority.

4. Equal Educational Opportunities Act of 1974, 20 U.S.C. 1703(f)

Relying upon Title VI, the Congress addressed the matter of discrimination against linguistic minority students:

> "No State shall deny equal educational opportunity to an individual on account of his or her race, color, sex, or national origin, by . . . (f) the failure by an educational agency to overcome language barriers that impede equal participation by its students in its instructional programs."

Comment

This statute formally recognizes the state's role (as opposed to LEA's) in assuring equal educational opportunity for national origin minority students. In addition, the statute declares that the failure of an educational agency to rectify a pupil's language difficulties is a denial of equal educational opportunity.

5. Task Force Findings Specifying Remedies Available for Eliminating Past Educational Practices Ruled Unlawful Under Lau v. Nichols (LAU GUIDELINES) Summer 1975

The Lau Guidelines outline those educational approaches which constitute appropriate "affirmative steps" to be taken by a school district to "open its instructional program" to the students addressed in the May 25 memorandum.

School districts developing educational plans which are not consistent with the Lau Guidelines must demonstrate affirmatively that such plans "will be equally effective in ensuring equal educational opportunity."

Comment

The receipt of state or federal supplemental funds is not a prerequisite for the implementation of programs conforming to the Lau Guidelines. OCR uses the Guidelines as standards of remediation for those districts it finds to be in violation of Title VI. The Guidelines represent a clear minimal standard for the affirmative development of programs for national origin minority students.

6. Rios v. Read, 73 F.R.D. 589, 595 (E.D.N.Y. 1977)

In 1977, the U.S. District Court of New York ruled that "affirmative steps" required under Lau v. Nichols means an educational program that emphasizes "the importance of bilingual education in the academic and personal growth of the language disadvantaged child."

"It is not enough simply to provide a program for language disadvantaged children or even to staff the program with bilingual teachers; rather, the critical question is whether the program is designed to assure as much as is reasonably possible the language deficient child's growth in the English language. An inadequate program is as harmful to a child who does not speak English as no program at all."

In November 1978, in another decision in this case, the court reaffirmed (by referring to Cintron v. Brentwood) the notion that English-as-a-Second Language (ESL), when used alone, violates the Lau Guidelines. Therefore, some instruction must be provided in the student's native language.

Comment

This court case indicated that documentary compliance is not enough. The court recognized that "quality" is part of compliance with Lau.

7. Elis Cintron, et al, v. Brentwood Union free School District, et al.

U.S. District Court, Eastern District of New York
Decisions of August 22, 1977 and January 10, 1978

Although not found by HEW/OCR to be in noncompliance with Title VI, the court ordered the Brentwood school district to develop a plan "in compliance with the Lau Guidelines."

The court requested the district to "expend its best efforts in hiring sufficient qualified and experienced personnel to staff" the bilingual education programs in the district.

The court said that the "goal is instruction by competent bilingual teachers in the subject matter of the curriculum while at the same time teaching non-English-speaking children the English language."

As of December 1978, the district is implementing a plan in "substantial compliance" and has hired bilingual teachers to teach in the program.

Comment

Although OCR did not find a violation in the district, the court directed the school district to "submit a plan in compliance with the Lau Guidelines," including instruction in the primary language. The court extended the Lau Guidelines and used them as standards of compliance. The Guidelines may, therefore, be used as standards for compliance with Title VI.

8. Subsequent Events Which Further Define Federal Role With Respect to National Origin Minority Students

a. Morales v. Shannon
U.S. Court of Appeals, Fifth Circuit

b. Serna v. Portales Municipal Schools
U.S. Court of Appeals, Tenth Circuit

c. Aspira v. Board of Education
U.S. Court of Appeals, New York

d. U.S. v. Rodriquez
U.S. District Court, New York

Comment

These decisions, resting upon federal statutes implementing Title VI as well as the Lau Guidelines, require use of the student's native language as part of the instructional program.

9. July Memorandum from David S. Tatel, Director of OCR, Washington Regarding Proposition 13 Cutbacks

> ". . . school districts must continue to provide bilingual education programs to all children eligible under the Lau Guidelines to receive such services. Therefore, bilingual teachers must be made available in sufficient numbers to allow the school district to meet its obligations under Lau.
>
> "While we understand fully the economic crunch facing California school districts, the absence of funds cannot justify a failure to comply with Title VI."

Comment

This memorandum emphasizes the right of linguistic minority students to receive a linguistically comprehensible education.

Neither federal court decisions nor OCR administrative directives have ever conditioned the provision of bilingual education services upon the receipt of funding.

STUDENT IDENTIFICATION AND ASSESSMENT

STUDENT IDENTIFICATION AND ASSESSMENT

Initial Identification

Home Language Survey

The State of California Home Language Survey (HLS) (See Appendix B) is used to determine the student's primary language. This survey meets the state's requirement for the initial identification of LEP students. The student's primary language is considered to be other than English if at least one of the four questions on the HLS indicates a language other than English.

The Home Language Survey provides school districts with accurate information concerning the number of English proficient students within their boundaries. Because the HLS is administered at the time of enrollment, the school secretary should understand the intent of this form. The role of the school secretary or registrar is critical; he or she must explain to parents that the purpose of the survey is to help the school better meet the needs of their children. Each school should keep the completed Home Language Surveys centrally located and readily available. This student language information must be available to classroom teachers, principals, and support staff personnel.

English Language Proficiency Assessment

Students who identify a language other than English as their primary language (in the HLS) must be given an English language proficiency assessment within 30 days of the pupil's enrollment in school. The English assessment must include understanding, speaking, reading, and writing. State approved tests must be used for oral English proficiency assessment. English reading and writing assessment are optional for all pupils in grades K-2 and for pupils in grades 3-12 who were determined to be limited English proficient (LEP) on the basis of oral skills assessment alone. Students in grades 3-12 designated as fluent English proficient (FEP) on an oral language test must have their reading and writing skills formally assessed.

The State Department of Education provisionally designates the following oral language tests for use in the 1981-82 school year:

1. Language Assessment Scales I (LAS I) K-5 only.
2. Language Assessment Scales II (LAS II) 6-12 only.

   Publisher

   Linguametrics Group
   P.O. Box 454
   Corte Madera, California 94925

3. Bilingual Syntax Measure I (BSM I) K-2 only.
4. Bilingual Syntax Measure II (BSM II) 3-12 only.

   Publisher

   The Psychological Corporation
   1001 Polk Street
   San Francisco, California 94109

The following instruments, while not meeting the department's required technical standards, may be used during 1981-82 only:

1. Basic Inventory of Natural Language (BINL) K-12

   Publisher

   CHEC Point Systems
   1520 N. Waterman Avenue
   San Bernadino, California 92404

2. Language Assessment Battery (LAB) K-12

   Publisher

   Riverside Publishing Company
   1763 Gardena
   Glendale, California 91204

In December 1981 districts will be told which tests may be used for the following school year. Districts opting to use other instruments must submit a petition to the Office of Program Evaluation and Research, using form OPER-LC (See Appendix B). For those students who score as fluent English proficient (FEP) on the oral language test, each district must establish a process to assess reading and writing skills. This process must designate the personnel responsible for its implementation and specify the criteria, instruments, procedures and standards appropriate.

Pupils in grades K-2 who score fluent on one of the state approved oral English proficiency tests may be designated fluent English proficient (FEP). Pupils in K-12 who are not fluent are designated as LEP. Pupils in grades 3-12 scoring fluent on an oral proficiency test in English are classified

(FEP) only if they score at or above the district established standards in both reading and writing.

Students who previously were classified as LES and/or NES are now classified LEP. Students previously classified as FES are now FEP.

The initial identification assessment shall be conducted by persons who are bilingual in English and the primary language of the pupil and who can evaluate the effects of cultural and ethnic factors in assessment. See Appendix B for more information on the use of initial identification alternatives.

Diagnostic Assessment in English and the Primary Language

For those pupils identified as LEP, a further assessment shall be made to determine the pupil's primary language proficiency, including speaking, comprehension, reading, and writing. Parallel versions of the instruments used to determine English language proficiency must be used, if available. A master list of language proficiency test scores may be maintained at each school and district office. This list, which must be updated as students are retested, will provide each school with current information on the number of limited English proficient pupils.

After an initial assessment of oral primary language proficiency, a diagnostic assessment in English and in the primary language shall be conducted. In order to provide for the basic skills instruction of the LEP student, the diagnostic assessment should review comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing skills. This diagnostic assessment must be completed within 90 days of the pupil's enrollment. This assessment shall be conducted by persons who are bilingual in English and in the primary language of the pupil and who can evaluate the effectives of cultural and ethnic factors in assessment.

Parent Notification

Parents of students with a primary language other than English must be notified of the results of the language proficiency and diagnostic assessment. The results of reassessment throughout the year also must be shared with parents. If a parent, teacher, or school site administrator doubts the accuracy of the pupil's language proficiency assessment results or designation, the pupil must be reassessed.

PROGRAM PLANNING

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMS

The following is a description of curriculum models and organizational formats that are possible options that a district can utilize when describing its instructional program.

Curriculum Models

Full Bilingual-Bicultural Program

This curriculum models provides instruction in two languages one of which is English and the other the primary language of the student. The primary language is used to introduce new concepts and when instructing in reading, math, comprehension skills, social studies, language arts, and science. English as a second language instruction is a primary component of this model.

Partial Bilingual Educationa Program

This curriculum model provides for primary language instruction in reading, writing, speaking and listening. English as a second language is a component. This model may be transitional if the primary language instruction is discontinued as a result of the district's established exit criteria. A partial program may continue in one subject or curriculum area even after the student has been reclassified or exited into an English program.

Transitional Bilingual Programs

Provision is made for instruction in English and the primary language according to the diagnostic and prescriptive measures adopted by the district. E.S.L. instruction continues with an emphasis on speaking and understanding in the beginning stages. Reclassification criteria established by the district will predict student educational success in participating in an English program. Special services and teaching strategies should be adopted for those studnets making this transition.

Maintenance Bilingual Programs

Programs that are maintained provide for continual instruction in the primary language even after the student is functional in English. The primary language instruction may be continued in all subject areas as in selected curriculum components.

Bilingual Individual Learning Program (B.I.L.P.)

This curriculum model provides for English as a Second Language instruction and primary language instruction in basic skills. This individualized plan is diagnostic and prescriptive and is kept on file at the school site. The B.I.L.P. is developed with consultation by the parent. The B.I.L.P. should be nothing less than an individualized program as prescribed for students participating in a full or partial bilingual proram.

Underachieving Linguistic Minority Students-Supplemental Educational Program

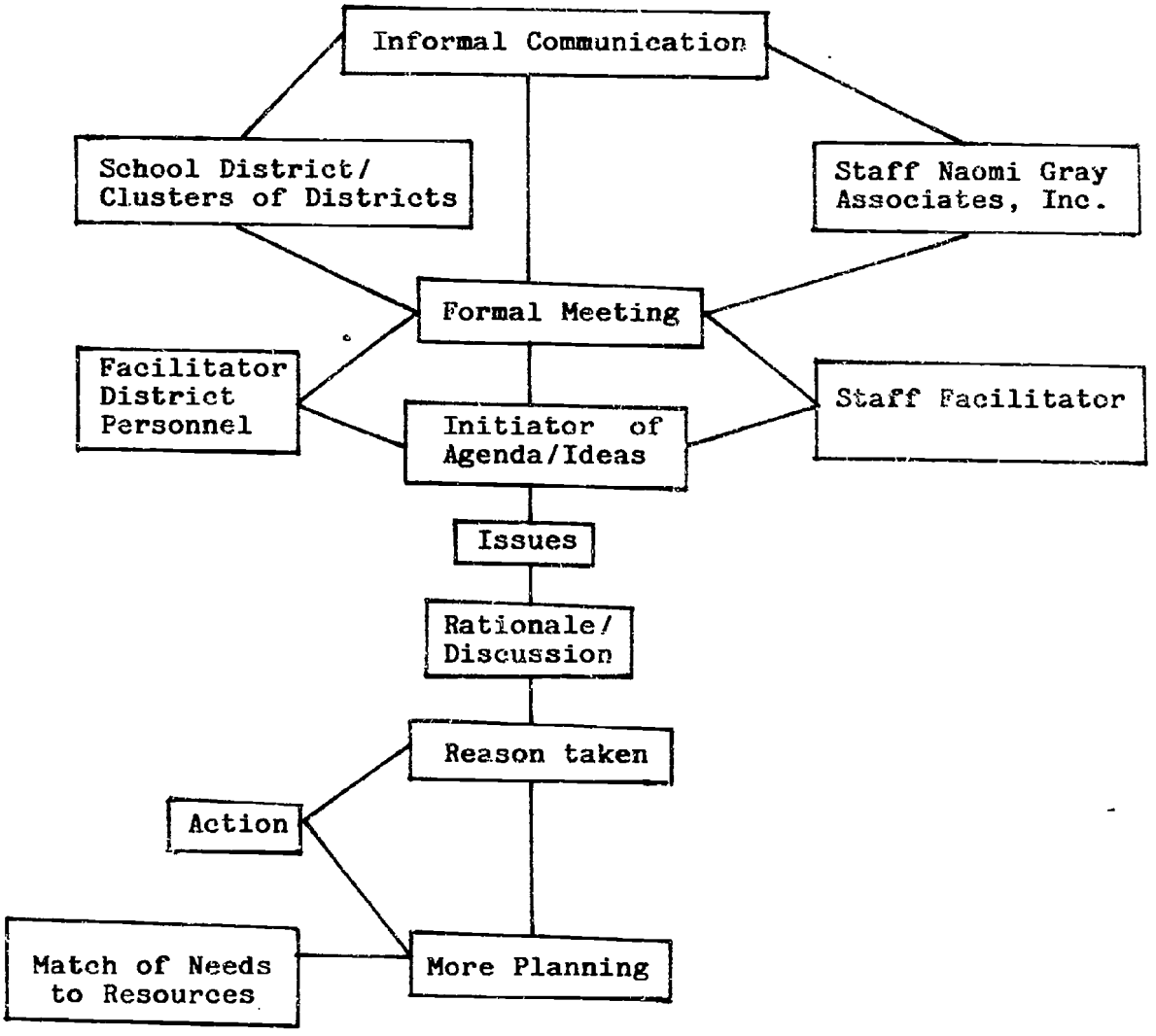
This curriculum model provides for a remedial teaching program in all aspects of English language arts and math. Further supplemental assistance may be necessary in other curriculum areas. The primary language may be used if necessary. This model is appropriate for Lau category C, D, and e students. Underachieving is defined in the Lau Remedies as performance at one or more standard deviations below district norms in each subject area. However, many districts prefer to use their own standards for classification as under-achieving, which are fully defined in the district master plan.

High-Intensity English as a Second Language Program

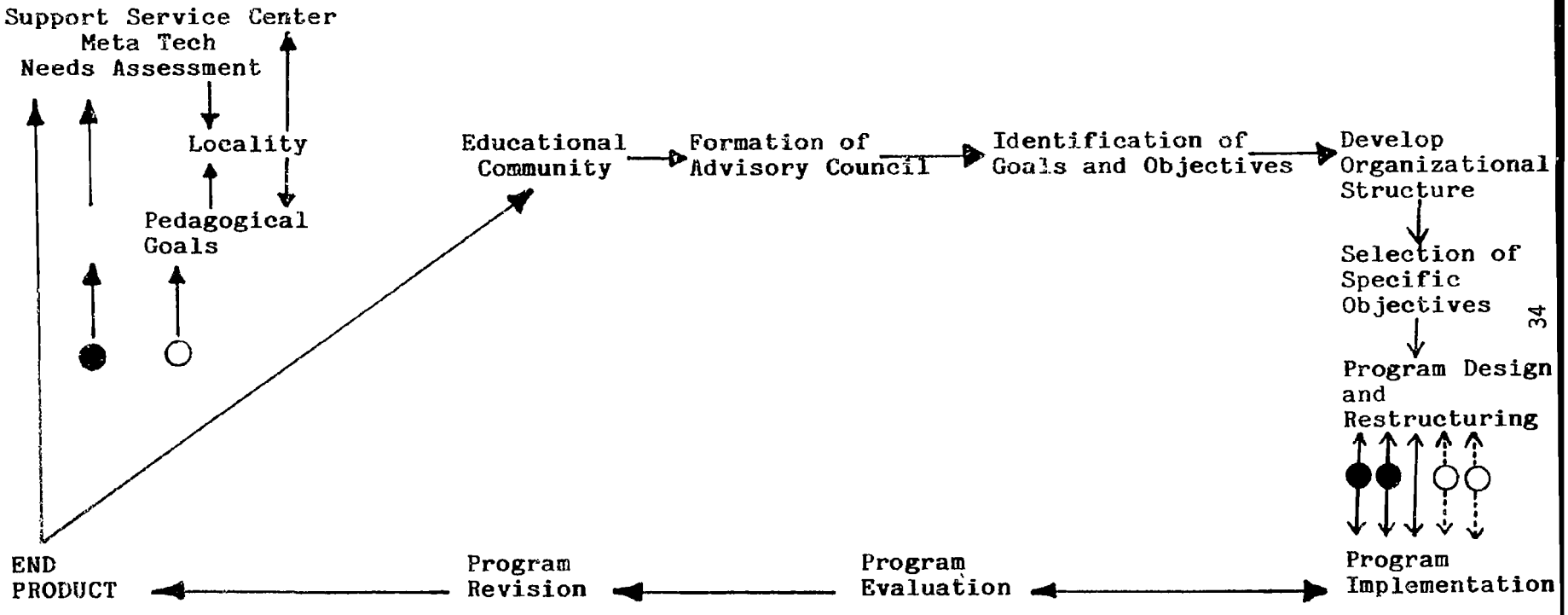
This curriculum model by itself is only appropriate at the intermediate grade levels for Lau category B students and at the secondary level for Lau category A and B students. Students in this program should already have prerequisite, basic skills in their primary language. English as a Second Language instruction should be provided by instructors with training in second language acquisition methodology. The program should be individualized and include groups for the various levels of English proficiency. Completion of an Individual Learning Program is also necessary for each student in this program.

PLANNING FLOWCHART

TRAINING AND TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE

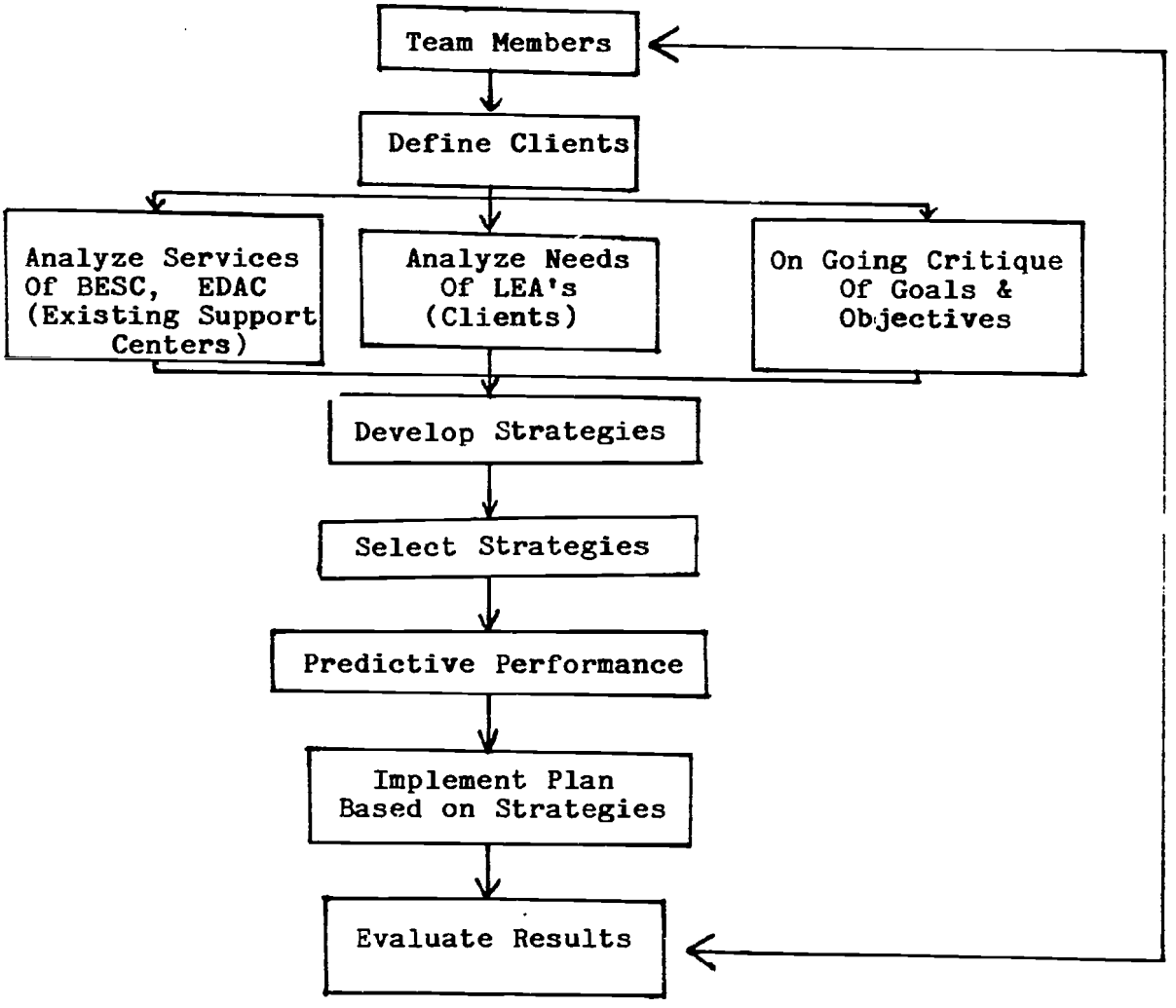


A RESOURCE GUIDE TO HELP SCHOOL DISTRICTS IN DEVELOPING BILINGUAL INSTRUCTIONAL AND TRAINING MATERIALS FOR LEP STUDENTS IN AN URBAN SCHOOL/PROCESS/APPROACH



PROCESS/APPROACH TO

MEETING NEEDS OF LIMITED ENGLISH PROFICIENT STUDENTS



THEORIES ON LANGUAGE LEARNING

THEORIES OF LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

There are many theories as to the relationship between cognition and language. Some psychologists believe that language and cognition are one and the same. They maintain that oral language is different to some extent but that thought and language are so closely akin that it is extremely difficult to attempt to separate them. However, others believe that thought occurs before language and that one can exist to some extent without the other.

Piaget believes that cognitive development determines the course of language growth. He argues that language ability is generally determined by the level achieved in cognitive development. In other words, you can only be as verbal as your cognitive ability allows you to be. Piaget maintains that the cognitive structures are just that, and that language enhances the function of thought but does not occur first. Once a child reaches the pre-operational stage and begins to use symbols to represent real objects and experiences--thought, thinking does not necessarily manifest itself verbally. Therefore, a deaf-mute is capable of performing a complicated task but is unable to speak or hear. Piaget further states "that language is structured by logic and that logic is thought."

Interpretations of Piaget's works by Americans such as Furth, say that learning is a combination of the operation of two processes--assimilation and accomodation. In other words, when presented with a stimulus the child will receive it through

one or all senses and this sensory impact moves through the structure of the mind which is in constant action. The process of taking in new information into our mental structure is assimilation. If the stimulus being received is a familiar one, then we assimilate this information into already existing structures. However, when it is a new stimulus and assimilation takes place, the mental structure must be changed to make space for the new information or the new information must be accomodated into the existing structure. Once the accomodation process is complete, one can say that learning has taken place. These two functions/processes happen simultaneously. It is interesting to note that these are mental processes which cannot be observed.

VERNACULAR LANGUAGE

An issue which should be considered is the communication barriers which may arise between the teachers and the children. These barriers, baffling and frustrating to both, result from the limited experience of each with the culture and language of the other. In many cases, children are bewildered by the effects of even sympathetic teachers to force on the unfamiliar language. The child may not understand why his own language is not considered good enough. In other cases, teachers blame their communication failure with black and bilingual children on underdeveloped speaking skills or limited learning potential on the part of the children. The fact is that black and bilingual children communicate quite well in their familiar surroundings.

Research has shown that black and bilingual children have considerable facility with the language of their own community. They verbalize and function best in friendly or nonthreatening situations. They understand more language than they speak, their non-verbal language skills are highly developed, and their imagination frequently leads to language that is rich and creative. A major problem is that the "school language" is often unfamiliar to them.

The teacher who takes time to become familiar with the basic communication styles of black and bilingual children will soon find that they are neither inarticulate nor nonverbal. Becoming familiar with a dialect does not mean the teacher has to learn to speak it, but she must come to understand it and

respect it as a different and useful linguistic form. To gain this insight she may need to overcome deeply imbedded notions about the relative status of various language patterns. She will have to repress any tendencies to be intolerant of non-standard language forms, including occasional bits of what she may consider to be profane or obscene language. "Profanity" and "obscenity" are relative terms and depend on the individuals and the environments involved. Words have a different communication value in various linguistic communities. The teacher may have to help the child learn to judge the appropriateness of the setting in which such words may be used.

It is important for teachers not to reject the child whose language patterns differ from those of the school. Teachers must learn to listen to children without reacting negatively and encourage the child to learn the many ways of saying the same thing, without rejecting the child's original way of saying it. To reject a child's language is to reject the child.

BILINGUAL/BICULTURAL

Although there is a tendency to equate bilingualism with biculturalism, it is all to often imprecise and sometimes incorrect. There is a tendency for persons who speak a second language to incorporate the culture of the second language group, thereby, becoming bicultural in their perspective, but it is possible to have a bilingual program which is not bicultural. "Biculturalism" has become an issue as important as bilingualism. It is recognized that if a child is to become a successful student and person, (s)he must have pride in his/her native language and culture.

The degree of bilingualism (increase or decrease) which the child exhibits is contingent on the attitudes of the community. Educators and administrators must concern themselves and be appreciative of the characteristics of those communities the child comes from, in addition to being knowledgeable of the linguistic patterns of that community which influence the child's speech patterns. Fishman and other linguists have pointed out that each language has a favorite setting and tends to be associated with specific roles.

The attitudes of the child's family toward the first and second language group in a community in which two languages are spoken affects the extent to which the child learns the second language and maintains his first. That is, if there is a positive attitude in the home which encourages and fosters the

second language learning, the child's attitude will reflect that. Conversely, if the only encouragement the child receives is toward second language learning and first language maintenance is not encouraged, this will also be reflected in the child's attitude.

The bilingual/bicultural programs should emphasize two cultures: the dominant American-Anglo culture and the minority culture which the child absorbs in his home and community. The program should be a comprehensive educational program which addresses itself to teaching all cognitive skills in the child's first or native language. Oral expression and reading are taught in language arts courses and English is taught in the second language classes. English or second language skills should be introduced orally first and then, gradually, reading skills can be introduced. However, some instruction in areas which do not require extensive use of language such as physical education, music and art may be taught in English for informal language practice and exposure only.

Instruction in English (which covers cognitive areas) begins when the child demonstrates his ability to function in that language and experiences no handicap due to insufficient knowledge of the language.

Another major aspect of bilingual/bicultural education is that the curriculum must reflect the child's literary, cultural and historical tradition for the purposes of strengthening identity and a sense of belonging. Piaget has found that a

positive self-image is directly related to the amount of learning which takes place. Children who view themselves in a positive light are motivated to learn because they approach learning with enthusiasm and confidence in their abilities. They approach life with openness and are more likely to incorporate new experiences to the fullest.

In order to provide relevant bilingual education programs, the teacher must meet the varying needs of each child in that program. However, this is not expected on the every day basis. Basically, what the teacher must consider is the life experiences of the various children in her classroom. There are certain variables to consider:

1. social-economic background (life style)
2. learning styles (preferred sense modes)
3. process of developing concepts and mental images
4. levels of ability for activities

The classroom procedures are suggestions for the teacher as (s)he begins to look at each child as a unique individual with an array of abilities to be tapped.

A. The classroom experience should encourage the child to feel good about himself, his family, neighborhood and ethnic background.

B. The experiences of the child in the classroom should reflect and reinforce his private images.

CURRENT RESEARCH

AN BE0074114

Title: BILITERACY, LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY, AND EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS

Author: CUMMINS, JIM.

AV Not Available Separately. See The Social Psychology of Reading (BE007413), available from Institute of Modern Languages, Inc. 2622 Pittman Drive, Silver Spring, Maryland 20910 (ISBN 0-88499-603-4).

AB The interplay between psychoeducational and sociopolitical factors is illustrated by the ongoing debate over bilingual education in the United States. Many educators have blamed bilingualism for the academic failure of minority language children; research findings have often been interpreted to mean that there is only so much space available in the brain for language. The Separate Underlying Proficiency Model of bilingualism focuses on obvious surface differences between first and second languages in terms of phonology, grammar, vocabulary, etc. and assumes that they reflect differences in the literacy proficiencies of both languages. Recent hypotheses point to independent variables such as social and educational discrimination as the cause of lower achievement among minority students. Data from evaluations of bilingual programs are examined in light of the Common Underlying Proficiency Model, in which the same basic proficiency underlies processing of both languages, and experience with either language can promote the development of that proficiency. Transitional bilingual education represents a compromise between faulty psychoeducational and soci political considerations, and has given rise to the mainstreaming of minority

children into English-only programs before they are ready. Research findings strongly suggest that true equal education will result only from programs that optimize minority children's potential by promoting literacy skills in both languages. Sixty-six references are cited.

AN BE007265

Title: EMPIRICAL AND THEORETICAL UNDERPINNINGS OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION. 81.

Author: CUMMINS, JIM.

SO Journal of Education, V163 n1 p16-29 Winter 1981.

AB Empirical research on the effects of bilingual education on minority language children is reviewed. Results show that bilingualism and native language development have beneficial effects on minority children's educational progress. A theoretical model is proposed to account for these findings. It is argued that Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) becomes differentiated and can be empirically distinguished from Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS) in both languages, and that native and second language CALP are interdependent. This framework, the Common Underlying Proficiency model of bilingual proficiency, applies to bilingualism in the home as well as in school. Thus, parents should be encouraged to develop the native language in the home. It is further argued that the exit criteria from a transitional bilingual program to an English-only program often emphasize BICS and ignore CALP, causing children to be transferred prematurely. A realistic exit threshold of English CALP is unlikely to be reached before grade 5 or 6 among language minority children. Sixteen references are appended.

AN EJ243364.

Author: CUMMINS, JIM.

Title: EMPIRICAL AND THEORETICAL UNDERPINNINGS OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION

SO JOURNAL OF EDUCATION; v163 n1 p16-29 Winter 1981.

AB Recent research and program evaluations show that the poor academic performance of many bilingual children was caused by by their bilingualism but by the school's attempts to eradicate that bilingualism. These findings demonstrate that bilingualism can positively affect minority children's development when their first language is promoted by the school. (Author/GC).

AN ED197606.

Author: STERN, H.H.: CUMMINS, JIM.

Title: LANGUAGE TEACHING/LEARNING RESEARCH: A CANADIAN PERSPECTIVE ON STATUS AND DIRECTIONS.

AV Not Available Separately; See FL 012 044.

YR 81.

AB The state of the art of research in second language acquisition is reviewed. A framework is first established for the examination of second language learning. The concept of proficiency is addressed with respect to its theoretical basis, rating scales, formal tests, and interlanguage studies. The social context of second language acquisition is examined with attention to social dominance patterns, preservation, and adaptation. The role of individual learner factors

(affective and cognitive, personality, and age) as it has been brought to light by research is reviewed. Of pedagogical importance is a discussion on learning conditions, natural vs. classroom learning, and varieties of classroom approaches, including immersion. The dilemma of identifying the language learning process is seen from the theoretical viewpoint and from the viewpoint of such research themes as the first language-second language connection, the explicit-implicit option, the code-communication dilemma, and the developmental question. A number of empirical studies are reviewed, and directions for future research are suggested.

AN EJ234933.

Author: CUMMINS, JIM.

Title: THE ENTRY AND EXIT FALLACY IN BILINGUAL EDUCATION.

SO NABE: The Journal for the National Association for Bilingual Education; V4 n3 p25-59 Spring 1980.

AB Elaborates on cognitive/academic language proficiency and basic interpersonal communicative skills. Discusses assumptions regarding bilingual program exit and entry fallacies and implications for U.S. bilingual education. Argues that failure to adequately conceptualize the construct of language proficiency and its cross-language dimensions causes problems with assumptions underlying bilingual education.

AN EJ233079

Author: CUMMINS, JIM.

Title: THE LANGUAGE AND CULTURE ISSUE IN THE EDUCATION OF MINORITY LANGUAGE CHILDREN

SO Interchange on Education Policy; V10 n4 p72-88 1979-80.

AB Language and culture programs for children speaking a minority language are discussed and outlined in terms of psycho-educational rationales, program options, and empirical and theoretical considerations of the appropriateness of such programs.

AN EJ228040.

Author: CUMMINS, JIM.

Title: THE CROSS-LINGUAL DIMENSIONS OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY: IMPLICATIONS FOR BILINGUAL EDUCATION AND THE OPTIMAL AGE ISSUE.

SO TESOL Quarterly; V14 n2 p175-87 Jun 1980.

AB It is argued that cognitive/academic language proficiencies in first and second languages are interdependent and empirically distinguishable from interpersonal communication skills. This analysis is applied to the interpretation of data on the effects of bilingual education programs and on the age issue in second language learning.

first language (L1) and second language (L2). (2) CALP proficiencies in both L1 and L2 are manifestations of the same underlying dimension. (3) Because the same dimension underlies CALP in both L1 and L2, older learners, whose proficiency is better developed, will acquire L2 CALP more rapidly that younger learners. The relevance of this analysis for the concepts of semilingualism, code-switching, and bilingual education is outlined. Semilingualism is a manifestation of low CALP in both languages. CALP will be less active and effective when the L1 and the L2 are very dissimilar. In the presence of negative affective variables such as low motivation, CALP will not be applied to learning L2. If motivational involvement and adequate exposure to an L1 or L2 exist, CALP will be promoted in both languages regardless of which is the language of instruction.

AN BE006723.

Title: CROSS-LINGUAL DIMENSIONS OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY: IMPLICATIONS FOR BILINGUAL EDUCATION AND THE OPTIMAL AGE ISSUE.

Author: CUMMINS, JIM.

SO TESOL Quarterly, V14 n2 p175-187 Jun 1980.

AB It is argued that a dimension of cognitive/academic language proficiency (CALP) can be empirically distinguished from interpersonal communicative skills such as accent and oral fluency in both first and second language, and that CALP's in both languages are

manifestations of the same underlying dimension. This analysis of language proficiency and its crosslingual dimensions is applied to the interpretation of data on the effects of bilingual education programs and on the age issue in second language learning. Forty-two references are cited.

AN BE001869.

Title: COGNITIVE/ACADEMIC LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY, LINGUISTIC INTER-DEPENDENCE, THE OPTIMUM AGE QUESTION AND SOME OTHER MATTERS. YR.79

Author: CUMMINS, JIM.

AV Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 252 Bloor Street West, Toronto, Ontario M5S 1V6, Canada. ERIC Document Reproduction Service, P.O. Box 190, Arlington, Virginia 22210 ($1.82, $0.83, ED184334).

AB The existence of a global language proficiency factor is discussed. This factor, cognitive/academic language proficiency (CALP), is directly related to IQ and to other aspects of academic achievement. It accounts for the bulk of reliable variance in a wide variety of language learning measures. Three propositions concerning CALP are reviewed: (1) CALP can be empirically distinguished from interpersonal communicative skills such as accent and fluency in first language (L1) and second language (L2); (2) CALP proficiencies in both L1 and L2 are manifestations of the same underlying dimension; (3) because the same dimension underlies CALP in both L1 and L2, older learners, whose proficiency is better developed, will acquire L2 CALP more rapidly than younger learners. The relevance of

this analysis for the concepts of semilingualism, code switching, and bilingual education is outlined. Semilingualism is a manifestation of low CALP in both languages. CALP will be less active and effective when the L1 and the L2 are very dissimilar. In the presence of negative affective variables such as low motivation, CALP will not be applied to learning L2. If motivational involvement and adequate exposure to an L1 or L2 exist, CALP will be promoted in both languages regardless of which is the language of instruction. A statistical table is included and 38 bibliographic references are listed.

Title: ASSESSMENT OF SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING SKILLS OF TEACHERS IN PUERTO RICO

Author: Medina, Eduardo Rivera

IN Southwest Regional Laboratory for Educational Research and Development 4665 Lampson Avenue, Los Alamitos, CA 97020

P To gather available information on teachers, their preparation, and the delivery of English and Spanish second language instruction; and to design and pilot test language proficiency assessment instruments.

Title: SPECIAL STUDIES OF BILINGUAL INSTRUCTION FEATURES: STUDY 1A— LEARNING ENGLISH THROUGH BILINGUAL INSTRUCTION

Author: Fillmore, Lily Wong

IN School of Education, University of California, Berkeley, Berkeley CA, 94720

P To describe and contrast two instructional approaches that affect language learning in bilingual classes, and to determine the extent to which other instructional practices and student characteristics interact to affect the outcomes of each approach.

Title: IMPROVING THE FUNCTIONAL WRITING OF BILINGUAL SECONDARY STUDENTS

Author: Henry Trueba, Luis Moll

IN Center for Ethnographic Research, San Diego State University, San Diego, CA 92182

P To conduct an ethnographic study of the values and functions of writing in a community in order to develop a curriculum designed to improve the writing skills of secondary Hispanic and Filipino students.

Title: IMPROVING THE FUNCTIONAL WRITING OF URBAN SECONDARY STUDENTS

Author: Richard Morris, Conan Louis

IN University City Science Center, 3624 Market Street, Philadelphia, PA, 19104

P To conduct an ethnographic study of the values and functions of writing in three low socioeconomic status communities (Hispanic, Black, and White) in order to develop a curriculum designed to improve the writing skills of secondary students in these communities.

Title: BILINGUAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS IN CLASSROOM CONTEXT PROCESSING

Author: Luis Moll

IN Center for Human Information, University of California, San Diego La Jolla, CA 92093

P To describe and analyze formal learning activities designed to promote the bilingual communication skills of Spanish-speaking students of varied linguistic abilities in fourth grade bilingual programs.

KEY

AN - Reference number

AV - Availability

AB - About

SO - Source

IN - Initiated by

P - Purpose

YR - Year

AN BE000171 8004.

Author: EPIE Institute, 463 West Street, New York, N.Y 10014

Title: SELECTOR'S GUIDE FOR BILINGUAL EDUCATION MATERIALS, Vol. 2: Spanish "Branch" Programs

YR May, 1976

AB This guide, designed to aid educators in the selection of instructional materials for the bilingual classroom, presents analyses in a structured, systematic manner using a materials analysis instrument developed by EPIE. About 1,200 Spanish instructional materials produced in the United States and other countries by commercial and noncommercial publishers were screened for inclusion. Some of the programs have 30 or more individual components. Included are analyses of 49 basic instructional programs, 28 supplementary instructional materials, and 11 professional materials covering mathematics, social sciences, science, and language arts. The descriptive and analytic information in each citation includes the following: identification and background, rationale, scope and sequence, methodology, means of evaluation, consistency, physical description, learner goals and objectives, source materials, teacher training and preparation, and an overall summary. Author, distributor, and publisher indexes and a list of the contents of Volume 1 are appended.

AN BE001269 8004

Author: NATIONAL DISSEMINATION AND ASSESSMENT CENTER, 7703 NORTH LAMAR BOULEVARD, AUSTIN, TEXAS 78752

Title: CARTEL: ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY OF BILINGUAL BICULTURAL MATERIALS, CUMULATIVE ISSUE, 1974.

YR December, 1974

AB This annotated bibliography is designed for educators, librarians, and others interested in materials for use in bilingual bicultural education. The main criteria for inclusion in the bibliography are the availability of the materials in the United States and the availability of a source address for orders and inquiries. Other criteria concern the language of the materials, ethnic groups or aspects of the culture of an ethnic group featured in the materials, the purpose of the materials, and contributions of the subject matter to staff training and to the success of bilingual bicultural programs. Subject headings under which entries are grouped include: (1) audiovisual materials; (2) bibliographies and resource materials; (3) biographies; (4) calendars; (5) career education; (6) children's literature; (7) cooking; (8) dictionaries; (9) early childhood; (10) English and Spanish as second languages; (11) European Americans; (12) evaluation; (13) holidays; (14) library readings; (15) mathematics; (16) music; (17) games and dances; (18) parental and community involvement; (19) teacher education; (20) science; (21) social studies; and (22) African, Afro-American, American Indian (Including Alaskan and Eskimo, Cherokee, Navajo, Pomo, and Seminole), Asian American, Chamorro,

Chinese, French, Hispanic, Portuguese, Puerto Rican, and Russian languages and cultures. The entries are indexed by title, author, and subject.

AN ED109902

Author: OFFICE OF EDUCATION (DHEW), WASHINGTON, D.C.

Title: PUERTO RICAN HISTORY, CIVILIZATION, AND CULTURE: A MINI-DOCUMENTARY

YR 1973

AB This publication was compiled from a number of smaller manuscripts dealing with various aspects of Puerto Rican history, civilization, and culture. The book is designed to: (1) provide teachers of middle school and high school students with instructional material which covers all these aspects in a related sequential manner; and (2) provide information that will stimulate further study and interest in Puerto Rico among both students and teachers. A historical review of the country is provided, with emphasis on the major historical points which determined the development of Puerto Rican culture and modern-day society. The major headings are: (1) economic development; (2) Puerto Rican culture; (3) Puerto Rican music (a number of songs are given here); (4) other typical pastimes (fiestas, holidays and sports); (5) cultural centers and related aspects of Puerto Rican culture; (6) Puerto Rican foods; (7) important dates and holidays in Puerto Rico; (8) Puerto Rican flora and fauna; (9) famous Puerto Ricans; and (10) architecture in Puerto Rico. The book

also includes a bibliography of publications divided into these areas: Puerto Rican authors, books in Spanish and books in English; children's books in Spanish; and related Puerto Rican studies.

AN ED077301

Author: OFFICE OF EDUCATION (DHEW), WASHINGTON, D.C. DIV. OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION.

Title: MATERIALES EN MARCHA PARA EL ESFUERZO BILINGUE -- BICULTURAL (Materials on the March for the Promotion of Bilingualism/ Biculturalism)

YR March, 1973

AB This newsletter is designed to promote the concept of bilingual-bicultural education. Included in this issue are articles on "Bilingual Education: Acceptance and Allocation," "A World History Reference," "History Teachers, Take Heart," "Social Studies Materials in Spanish," and "Pride of Aztlan." Articles appear in Spanish and English. (Included is a list of suggested U.S. distributors for educational materials in Spanish and Portuguese.)

AN ED142465

Title: NEW YORK STATE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT MATERIALS, PROGRAMS, SERVICES FOR MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION.

YR 1977.

AB This catalog contains descriptions of elementary and secondary curriculum materials, programs, and services for multicultural education, art education, bilingual education, and social studies, music, dance, drama, and literature classes. It is

intended to help New York State teachers motivate students to acquire knowledge, understanding, and sensitivity regarding the various ethnic and racial groups which comprise our society. Various ethnic groups are treated including Blacks, Puerto Ricans, and American Indians. The catalog begins with an annotated bibliography of multimedia materials including cassette recordings, 16 mm. films, filmstrips, slides, and videotapes. Bibliographies, handbooks and guides for teachers, and some student books are cited in the catalog's next section. Following this a few multicultural education programs are briefly described. The catalog concludes with a listing of various multiethnic services for New York State teachers including advisory and consultative services, and funding, supportive, and research services.

AN ED161595

Author: ASTACIO, RAMON; IRUEGAS, EFRAIN.

Title: LEARNING ACHIEVEMENT PACKAGES. MEXICAN AMERICAN STUDIES, ENGLISH-SPANISH.

SN Office of Bilingual Education (DHEW/DE), Washington, D.C.

YR 1978

AB Developed originally for grades 7-12, the three bilingual Mexican American studies curriculum units on the Pre-Hispanic cultures of the Olmecs, Mayas, and Aztecs present information for the teacher and for the student, a glossary, worksheets, an answer key, a test, and a bibliography in Spanish and English. The cross section of materials

AN BE007734

Title: SALIENT ISSUES IN MATHEMATICS EDUCATION RESEARCH FOR MINORITIES: PROCEEDINGS FROM AN NIE SPONSORED MEETING (SEATTLE. WASHINGTON, APRIL 19, 1980.

YR April 1980

Authors: CASTANEDA, ALBERTA M. GALLEGOS, TONY ALFREDO. SERNA, DORA A. SERNA, HILDA. TSANG, SAU-LIM. BRADLEY, CLAUDETTE.

AV Eric document reproduction service, P.O. Box 190, Arlington, Virginia 22210 (MF01 plus postage, ED191699).

AB In April 1980, the mathematics studies team of the learning and Development unit in the teaching and learning program at the National Institute of Education organized a meeting to discuss issues in mathematics education research for minorities. The focus was on Linguistically and culturally different students of Asian American, Chicano, and American Indian background. The six papers included in this volume cover topics in bilingual education, curriculum, teaching, ethnography, testing, and basic research. An outline by C. Bradley poses a series of questions on curriculum, mathematics learning, cognitive styles, and cultural factors specific to American Indians. The essay by A. Castaneda, "Research Questions In Mathematics Learning By Minority Group Children," advocates longitudinal studies to investigate the skills related to mathematical concepts. T.A. Gallegos claims that there does not exist a complete, coherent, and comprehensive bilingual elementary math program in language and culture in the mathematics curriculum of the 1980's. Issues Affecting Spanish Bilingual Students. The opinion that mathematics is the subject most independent from language and culture is expressed by D. Serna in "Issues Affecting Bilingual Education in Elementary Education." Comments by H. Serna cover the need to develop bilingual instructional materials which emphasize learning by active student participation. The final paper, "A Critical Review of Research on Mathematics Education of Chinese American Students" by S.-L. Tsang, discusses achievement, testing, Piagetian tasks, and curriculum in light of an obvious lack of mathematics research on Chinese Americans. (Author SI).

AN BE003186

Title: FOCUSING ON THE STRENGTHS OF BILINGUAL CHILDREN.

YR 1975

Author: BAECHER, RICHARD, E.

AV Not available separately. See Innovations in Education, available from Kendall Hunt Publishing Co. 2460 Kerper Boulevard, Dubuque, Iowa 52001.

AB In response to the Aspira decree and the Steiberg report, a growing concern has surfaced among New York City educators, administrators, and teachers on how to best educate their Spanish-speaking students. To partially meet the serious implications of the Aspira decree and the need for a new focus within bilingual education. This paper aims to do the following: (1) Describe the Educational Sciences framework for educating bilingual students, (2) Illustrate the technique of cognitive mapping, (3) Suggest assessment approaches, and (4) List the implications of cognitive style analysis for bilingual education. Cognitive style analysis, within the framework of the Educational Sciences approach, has the following advantages: (1) It provides a conceptual framework and common language for teachers to use in communicating about their students: (2) It presents a difference theory of individual strengths to which the educational system must adapt, rather than a deficit theory of remediation: (3) It concerns itself with the total child, not just the child's linguistic performance: and (4) it offers teachers direction in instruction and assessment. (PMJ/LB).

AN BE000418

Title: HUMANISTIC COUNSELING OF BILINGUAL STUDENTS: A CONTINUOUS PROCESS, K-12.

YR 1976

Author: HERNANDEZ, LEODORO. CARQUIST-HERNANDEZ, KAREN.

AV Eric document Reproduction service, P.O. Box 190, Arlington, Virginia 22210 ($3.32, Microfiche $0.83, ED174915).

AB The field independence, traditions, and assertiveness of counselors and latino students are explored to help counselors function more effectively with latino students. Latino students can be taught to be bicognitive, biaffective, and assertive. A model is offered to assist counselors in this effort. Six examples of counseling methods, using teacher-counselor teams, are presented and analyzed. Suggestions are offered for strong, innovative counseling teams to serve students. Eight references are cited: diagrams display the model. (BEF/SI).

AN ED194319

IN Creative Associates, Inc. Washington, D.C. (BBB18452).

Title: STATE-OF-THE-ART REPORT ON MATHEMATICS ACHIEVEMENT OF STUDENTS OF BLACK, HISPANIC, AND NATIVE AMERICAN ORIGINS. FINAL REPORT AND ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY--SELECTED RESEARCH STUDIES.

YR 1980

AB This two-part report reviews three major areas of influence in the

mathematics learning of minority children; (1) learning style, personality and self-concept influences; (2) linguistic effects; And (3) school influences. Low mathematics achievement and nonparticipation of Black, Hispanic, and Native American children have become concerns of administrators, teachers, curriculum directors, and parents. As our society becomes increasingly more technological, the ramifications of this educational situation become more drastic. This paper reviews results of general studies on achievement of minority students and draws on research in mathematics achievement of the general population to locate the impact of certain factors on the minority pupil situation. Each of the three major factors identified are reviewed in detail, with the many interconnected factors discussed, and separate and combination affects assessed where possible. The report concludes with a summary and recommendations for changes in educational practices and suggestions for further research. The appendix contains a list of additional references on other factors relevant to mathematics learning of minority students. Part Two of this report is an annotated bibliography of selected research studies in minority education. (MP).

AN ED164709

Author: RIVLIN, HARRY N.; AND OTHERS.

IN National/State Leadership Training Inst. On the Gifted and Talented. Los Angeles, Calif. (BBB11534).

Title: **ADVANTAGE: DISADVANTAGED GIFTED. PRESENTATIONS FROM THE THIRD NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON DISADVANTAGED GIFTED.**

AV Ventura County Superintendent of Schools, 535 East Main Street, Ventura, California 93003 ($6.00).

YR 1978

AB The presentations in this volume deal with various aspects of education for the gifted disadvantaged. Maija Blauberg's describes disadvantages experienced by gifted and talented girls in obtaining access to opportunities for achievement congruent with their potentialities. Some of the topics examined are sexist barriers, marriage, institutional and societal support, and motivation and self-concept. A paper by Moshe Smilansky and David Nevo presents a longitudinal study of gifted disadvantaged youth in Israel, and suggests the possibility of experimental programs for gifted disadvantaged young people and the importance of evaluating such programs through longitudinal studies. Harry N. Rivlin points out the roles ethnicity and cultural pluralism play in approaches to educating the gifted disadvantaged. Ed Dodson and Bruce Mitchell present a model that involves the participation of gifted and minority students in planning their educational planning. Lynn H. Fox discusses the role effective career education programs can play in helping girls overcome sociocultural pressures which often prevent them from seeking careers in science and mathematics. Mary M. Frasier examines the educational implications of different cognitive factors in culturally different children. Culturally different children and social barriers which restrict them is the subject of

Severo Gomez's presentation. A poem by Soon-Teck Oh describes the feelings and experiences of Japanese Americans during World War II. References and resource lists are provided for most of the presentations. (EB).

AN ED151253

Author: ANDERSON, KATHRYN M.

Title: "COGNITIVE STYLE" AND SCHOOL FAILURE.

YR 1977

AB Focusing on school failure among lower-class and minority children, the paper reexamines the relationship between "cognitive style" and school performance, and questions whether lower-class school failure really concerns cognitive performance at all. "Cognitive style" is defined as information processing habits which represent the learners' typical modes of perceiving, thinking, remembering, and problem solving. Review of the literature on educational achievement reveals two major categories of cognitive style, usually termed the analytic and the nonanalytic (or the abstract and the concrete). Most developmental psychologists and educators consider the analytic cognitive style as superior to the nonanalytic style. Because many lower-class and minority children manifest a nonanalytic cognitive style, they fail more often in school. Explanations for this failure, often contradictory, do not give sufficient consideration to the situation to which particular cognitive processes are applied. Cross-cultural research on learning characteristics indicates that

children demonstrate the same basic cognitive processes in some situations but that these processes are not necessarily reflected in cognitive performance tests in school. The conclusions are that cognitive performance is inextricably related to the social and cultural tradition which produced it, but cannot be directly correlated with cognitive style until further research is done on other variables such as social status, students' fear in test situations, and invalid tests. (Author/DB).

AN ED192582

Author: PATTERSON, JEAN SCARBOROUGH.

Title: THE INFLUENCE OF ENGLISH ON THE SPANISH SYNTAX OF EL PASO-JUAREZ.

YR 79.

AB The Spanish syntax of 36 English-Spanish bilingual students at the University of Texas at El Paso was examined to determine the variety and extent of English influence on Spanish syntax and to correlate the relative extent of this influence with selected extra-linguistic factors. The most significant finding was that the group of students having the highest rate of English-influenced Spanish syntax indicated that they spoke predominantly English with their peers; In contrast, the group of students revealing the lowest average of English-influenced Spanish syntax indicated that they spoke mostly Spanish with their peers. (Author).

AN EJ228043

Author: WHITE JANET A. FOWLER JOHN M.

Title: A PRACTICAL APPROACH FOR TEACHING ESL PRONUNCIATION BASED ON DISTINCTIVE FEATURE ANALYSIS.

AV Reprint: UMI

YR 80.

AB A distinctive feature analysis of consonant phoneme production in Arabic, Farsi, Japanese, and Spanish is reported. The analysis is based on a model incorporating psychometrics and on one producing a three-point system for the features of place, manner, and

voicing. Implications for teaching pronunciation are discussed. (PMJ).

AN EJ221857

Author: WALTERS, JOEL

Title: STRATEGIES FOR REQUESTING IN SPANISH AND ENGLISH: STRUCTURAL SIMILARITIES AND PRAGMATIC DIFFERENCES.

AV Reprint: UMI.

YR 79.

AB The same semantic strategies for requesting are available in Spanish and English. Bilingual children use more polite strategies in speaking Spanish and more neutral ones in speaking English.(PMJ).

AN ED182980

Author: ELERICK, CHARLES

Title: ON THE FORM OF BILINGUAL GRAMMARS: THE PHONOLOGICAL COMPONENT.

YR 79.

AB This research is based on the assumption that a Spanish/English bilingual is aware of the phonological and semantic relatedness of the many hundreds of pairs of transparently cognate items in the two languages. This awareness is linguistically significant in that it is reflected in the internalized grammar of the bilingual. The bilingual speaker of Spanish and English presumably handles pairs such as "Biology/Biología" by unconsciously positing a single compromise union lexical representation which is related to the language-specific manifestations by two sets of language specific

phonological rules. Some examples of pairs of Spanish/English items and their putative union phonological representation are "soup/sopa" and "nation/nación": /nasyon/. There are 17 rules presented for the English derivation and they include both standard English rules and many special rules that would only be posited for a union grammar. The nine Spanish rules are similarly distributed. Exemplary derivations make clear the effects of the interaction of compromise representations and language specific rules. A discussion of the possible significance of union grammars for understanding bilingualism and some additional areas of needed investigation put the model union grammar into a larger perspective. (Author).

AN ED174048

Author: HUGHES, ARTHUR.

Title: ASPECTS OF A SPANISH ADULT'S ACQUISITION OF ENGLISH.

YR 78.

AB A young Spanish woman was given 82 hours of individual instruction in English. Her exposure to and use of English were confined to these lessons. The subject acquired adjective-noun ordering and regular plural relatively quickly; possessor-possessed ordering and genitive relatively slowly; the definite article all at once after a period of omitting it; and third person "S" not at all. An analysis of the results indicates: (1) the importance of frequency in acquisition; (2) poorer performance when novel word combinations are attempted; (3) the unhelpfulness of the competence-performance distinction in the description of learners' language; (4) the

strength of interference even when error-free learning has taken place; (5) the interaction of various factors in the production of individual errors, which typical cross-sectional data would be unlikely to reveal; and (6) support for the notion that all untutored learners of a language will in the early stages pidginize it in order to communicate. Data are graphically presented. (Author/JB).

AN ED144369

Author: JOHNSON ed JOHNSON, THERESA H. DANIEL, C. O'CONNELL.

Title: TEMPORAL ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH AND SPANISH NARRATIVES.

YR 77.

AB In order to ascertain the effect of different demands on cognitive processes as reflected in speech rate, pause and hesitation phenomena, 90 young men, 45 native speakers of English (U.S.A.) and 45 native speakers of Spanish (Mexico), were asked to retell a story presented in one of three ways: (1) film plus narration; (2) film only; (3) narration only. Narrations were in subjects' native language. A certain parallelism in performance of both language groups was evident in the consistency of results across modes of presentation in articulation rate, speech rate, phrase length, and frequency and length of unfilled pauses. Language-specific differences were found in occurrence of parenthetical remarks and filled pauses. This analysis was found successful in differentiating some cognitive processes involved in retelling a story presented in various modes. Results support a theory of speech production which

includes cognitive activity concurrent with the act of speech production as one of the multiple determinants of hesitation. These aspects of speech generation are not necessarily evident in the semantic or grammatical structure of produced discourse. Cross-linguistic comparisons support reliability of paralinguistic measures to study relationship of thought and language. (Author).

AN EJ194286
Author: POLLOCK, SEYMOUR
Title: ENGLISH PROSODICS: A CONTRASTIVE APPROACH.

AVE Reprint: UMI.

YR 78.

AB Contrastive analysis of Spanish and English reveals the importance of giving as much attention to suprasegmentals as to segmentals in the teaching of pronunciation. (CFM).

AN EJ192625
Author: CLING, MAURICE
Title: A PROPOS DE L'ACQUISITION DE LA PLURALISATION EN ANGLAIS ET EN ESPAGNOL: EN A-T-ON FINI AVEC L'ANALYSE CONTRASTIVE? (CONCERNING THE ACQUISITION OF PLURALISATION IN ENGLISH AND SPANISH: HAS CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS HAD IT?).

YR 77.

AB Proposes a new theory of morphological acquisition in second language learning, based on the theory of contrastive analysis and on the notion of the "psychomorpheme". (AM).

AN EJ126031

Author: AQUINO, LUIS HERNANDEZ

Title: ARBOLES, POETAS Y ETIMOLOGIAS (TREES, POETS AND ETYMOLOGIES).

YR 75.

AB This article discusses the history of the Spanish word denoting a particular tree, "secoya," which found its origin in the name of the originator of the cherokee alphabet "sekwiyi," moving then into English and subsequently into Spanish. (Text is in Spanish.) (CLK)

AN ED057656

Author: MONTE VERDE, LUISA

Title: SEMANTIC AND SYNTACTIC ANALYSIS OF THE PATTERN "NP + BE + ADJ + TO + INFINITIVE" AND ITS EQUIVALENTS IN SPANISH (III).

YR 71.

AB This paper examines the semantic and structural characteristics of a basic pattern in English and discusses Spanish equivalents. A sentence-by-sentence analysis is made with consideration of transformations on the basic patterns in both languages. Translation and transformation complications in the two languages are illustrated. The equivalence types of the two languages are classified on the basis of the data presented here. Subclasses of the original English pattern are also listed. (VM).

AN ED039816

Author: Michigan University

In American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, New York, N. Y. (BBB00223). Michigan State Dept. of Education, Lansing. (BBB00374).

Title: DEVELOPING LANGUAGE CURRICULA: PROGRAMMED EXERCISES FOR TEACHERS. MICHIGAN ORAL LANGUAGE SERIES.

AV MLA/ACTFL Materials Center, 62 Fifth Ave. New York, New York 10011 (0509, $2.00).

YR 70.

AB This manual is designed to introduce teachers to basic principles of language analysis which can be immediately applied to classrooms populated by Non-English speaking or language handicapped children. Programmed exercises covering major units of study are included with follow-up discussion on: (1) nature of language; (2) attitudes toward language; (3) contrast in vowel sounds; (4) consonant sounds; (5) suprasegmentals, stress, pitch, and pause; and (6) the ordered forms of words. The exercises involve the teacher in a detailed analysis of language interference problems which can be anticipated when Spanish background youngsters try to learn English. The manual is intended for use in workshops or by individuals. (RL).

AN ED012149

Author: BERUNEN, ALFREDO.

Title: NOTES ON SPANISH INTONATION.

YR 68.

AB A study was made to confirm certain observations about Spanish intonation patterns, especially those that present a striking contrast with English intonation patterns. Twenty-five Spanish sentences illustrating particular intonation patterns were prepared, and 25 students, who had had an average of four semesters in Spanish, recorded them. The results of the experiment not only confirmed the initial ideas about Spanish intonation, but also made it possible to arrange by frequency the patterns that seemed to be less perceptible to American students. They failed to perceive, and therefore did not stress, such tonic elements as the forms of "SER," indefinite articles, the impersonal "HAY," the auxiliary in perfect tenses, subject pronouns (especially third person), and the adverbs "NO," "YA," and "MUY'. On the other hand they seemed to perceive as tonic such atonic elements as the first of two consecutive conjunctive pronouns, the adjectives "NUESTRO" and "VUESTRO," "MI" and "TU" implying contrast, and the first word in such phrases as "EL QUE" and "EL DE'. (Author).

SELECTED ARTICLE ON BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Formal English as a second language

Betty J. Matluck, PhD
Senior Researcher
Division of Bilingual and International Education
Southwest Educational Development Laboratory
Austin, Texas

Joseph H. Matluck, PhD
Professor
Department of Romance Linguistics and Education
Department of Spanish and Portugese
The University of Texas at Austin
Austin, Texas

EACH YEAR schools in the United States enroll thousands of children who come from homes where English is not the primary language spoken by the children and their families. For these children, who are generally referred to as bilinguals, English is a second language. They are not a homogeneous group. Culturally and linguistically, they represent one of the most diverse school populations in the world.

In California, students represent some 70 to 80 linguistic and cultural backgrounds (Wong-Fillmore, 1981). Elsewhere a single, large, urban district may identify as many as 79 different home languages spoken by children within its school population (Matthews & Fong, 1981). Conversely, school districts such as those in the United States/Mexico border area may serve large numbers of students belonging to minority groups (i.e., Mexi-

0271-8294/82 0024-0065$2.00

can Americans) sharing a single home language.

Regardless of the distribution of students or of the language or languages spoken, one may expect to find within any bilingual group children who reflect varying degrees of bilingualism. For example, some children may have reached normal development in their native language and be in an early stage in the learning of the second language. Others may have native-like control of both languages, yet others may have reached advanced stages in their second language but retained only limited knowledge of the early learning of their native language.

Not only do bilingual children differ in their degree of bilingualism, but they also differ (a) in the ways in which their languages have been acquired (e.g., languages acquired informally in a natural setting vs. those learned in school with formal instruction), (b) in the sequence of that acquisition (e.g., simultaneous acquisition in early childhood vs. acquisition of the second language subsequent to the relatively complete acquisition of the first), (c) in the ways in which both languages are used in various domains (e.g., home language is used primarily in the context of the home or neighborhood, whereas English is used in school and in the larger social context), and (d) in their life experiences, both in and out of school, particularly in those areas that are related to literacy and formal learning. This diversity of language and life experiences, while enriching society's cultural base and human resources, provides an interesting challenge for educators as they attempt to respond to the unique needs of these children.

EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS OF BILINGUAL CHILDREN

Over the past 15 years, American educators have become increasingly aware of the educational problems faced by children entering schools as nonnative speakers of English. The work of researchers and educators from various professional and governmental organizations has resulted not only in a better understanding of the educational needs of bilingual children but also in some positive changes in attitudes toward bilingualism and in the instructional practices employed in the education of children of limited English-speaking ability (e.g., various models of bilingual education, special English language programs).

Nonetheless, much still remains to be investigated and understood. For example, current understanding of how to define and assess language proficiency is at best only partial; the knowledge of how to identify and treat language disorders in bilingual children is limited essentially to evidence that disorders do exist. Recent estimates by the Council for Exceptional Children, the American Speech-Language-Hearing Association, and the United States Department of Education (American Speech-Language-Hearing Association, 1980) have indicated that 7% to 10% of the total school-age population exhibits some type of language-learning problem.

Estimates of such disorders among bilinguals are reputed to be as great or even greater. Kirk (1972) suggests that as with monolingual populations, up to 10% of the children of limited English-speaking ability in the United States may need special

education services across the full range of exceptionalities. Toronto (1972), in studying predominantly Mexican-American and Puerto Rican areas of Chicago, reported that approximately 20% of the Spanish-speaking children under the age of 6 years had inadequate language skills in their native tongue as well as in English, their second language. Others (Hoover, 1981; Jackson, 1980; Mace-Matluck, Hoover, & Dominguez, 1981) report similar findings when young children are tested with present-day, formal, language proficiency tests.

However, of these children who score so low on language proficiency tests as to be deemed incompetent in both languages, only a small percentage of them are judged by their teachers, on the basis of extended observation, to be incompetent in their home language (Mace-Matluck et al., 1981). Taped speech samples of these children, taken in a variety of settings and rated by language specialists, confirm the teachers' ratings. Such a contradiction raises many questions regarding language assessment and the identification of language disorders in bilingual children. To lack competence in any language whatsoever is surely the most profound language disorder. Accurate identification of such children depends directly on the ability of an assessment system that can distinguish between bilinguals who simply have not yet learned English and bilinguals who have deeper learning problems.

To lack competence in any language whatsoever is surely the most profound language disorder.

SOME CURRENT VIEWS OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

What constitutes language proficiency? This is perhaps one of the most critical and controversial issues in American education today. It is critical in the sense that major decisions about the educational treatment of thousands of minority language children in the United States are made on the basis of the child's language proficiency as measured by tests whose validity is highly questionable (Alderson, 1979; Bordie, 1970; De Avila & Duncan, 1980; Dieterich, Freeman, & Crandall, 1979; Mace-Matluck & Matluck, 1981; Rosansky, 1979; Texas Education Agency, 1979). To assess a child's language proficiency, it is necessary to know and to define precisely what constitutes the domain of interest.

Whether one ascribes to a behaviorist model (Miller & Dollard, 1941; Mowrer, 1960; Skinner, 1957; Staats, 1968), a transformational–generativist model (Chomsky, 1957; Katz, 1966), or one of a number of process models of language acquisition (Braine, 1971; Clark & Haviland, 1974; Ervin-Tripp, 1970), proficiency is believed to involve *knowing* whatever it is one must know to comprehend and produce grammatical and meaningful utterances. Except for the behaviorist, this involves knowing the rules underlying the linguistic components of a language (phonology, syntax, semantics, and lexicon). In the traditional view, it also involves skill in the written mode (reading and writing) as well as oral modality (listening and speaking).

In recent years sociolinguistics has added a third dimension; proficiency is now described by some in terms of function and variety of language as well as one's ability to comprehend and manipulate the structural features of a language (Hernández-Chávez, Burt, & Dulay, 1978; Shuy, 1979). The present controversy does not center on what constitutes the various dimensions of language but rather on how to conceptualize linguistic proficiency for the purpose of defining and measuring it.

A traditional view

A traditional view of language proficiency as offered by Hernández-Chávez et al. (1978) defines linguistic proficiency in terms of three distinct parameters of language: (a) linguistic components (phonology, syntax, semantics, and lexicon); (b) modality (oral and written); and (c) sociolinguistic variables (style, function, variety, and domain). It is argued that "given the complex interaction of the various linguistic, modality, and sociolinguistic variables, it is possible to construct a three-dimensional matrix representing sixty-four potential intersections of proficiencies, each of which, hypothetically at least, is independently measurable" (p. 42).

Thus, in this view, proficiency can be divided into sets of multiple contributing components, and these can be measured independently of the others. It is suggested by Hernández-Chávez et al. that ideally language proficiency testing should be carried out in all of the linguistic and sociolinguistic components and in all modalities. However, because of the impracticality of such an enormous task, it is necessary, they believe, to reduce the problem of measurement to more manageable proportions and to measure only those components that are more central and representative of others. They have identified the linguistic components in the oral modality as the most central aspect of an individual's linguistic skill, and they argue that the measurement of this dimension provides the most valid assessment of overall language proficiency.

Global language factor

In direct contrast to the above mentioned view, Oller (1978, 1979; Oller & Perkins, 1978) maintains that there exists a global language factor that accounts for most of the reliable variance on a wide variety of proficiency tests. This factor is measured about equally well by listening, speaking, reading, and writing tasks and has been shown to correlate strongly with school achievement and with verbal and nonverbal IQ scores (Streiff, 1978; Stump, 1978). In Oller's view, this global factor constitutes the central core of linguistic proficiency, and only a limited amount of the variance in measures of proficiency is attributable to factors associated with distinct language components (e.g., vocabulary vs. grammatical knowledge).

The BICS and CALP dimensions

Cummins (1980), in discussing the previously mentioned opposing views, has pointed out that the major issue is not which of the conceptions is correct but which is more useful for different purposes. Cummins has discussed two dimensions of linguistic proficiency. The first, which he refers to as *basic interpersonal*

communicative skills (BICS), is acquired in the first language by all children regardless of IQ or academic aptitude. The second he has labeled *cognitive/academic linguistic proficiency* (CALP). These two dimensions are defined as follows:

> CALP is defined as those aspects of language proficiency which are closely related to the development of literacy skills in L1 and L2. Basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) in L1 such as accent, oral fluency, and sociolinguistic competence may be independent of CALP for a variety of reasons and it is not being suggested that these latter skills represent a unitary dimension. For example, some of these linguistic skills are presumably universal across native speakers (e.g., phonology, basic competence in a Chomskian sense), while individual differences in others appear to be unrelated to cognitive and academic skills (e.g., oral fluency). (Cummins, 1980, p. 177)

Cummins maintains that the CALP dimension of proficiency can be empirically distinguished from BICS. He further maintains that cognitive/academic aspects of the first language (L1) and second language (L2) are interdependent and that the development of proficiency in L2 is partially a function of the level of L1 proficiency at the time when intensive exposure to L2 is begun. Since L1 and L2 CALP are "manifestations of the same underlying dimensions, previous learning of literacy-related functions of language (in L1) will predict future learning of these functions (in L2)" (Cummins, 1980, p. 179).

The exact composition of a CALP dimension in either L1 or L2 is unknown. However, certain language tasks appear to tap CALP: reading comprehension, dictation, and free writing as opposed to listening comprehension, free oral production, and pronunciation (Ekstrand, 1977); reading, grammar, and vocabulary as opposed to oral production and listening comprehension (Genesee, 1979); and oral cloze test versus fluency or subjective rating of oral skills (Streiff, 1978). Cummins suggests that pronunciation ability or syntactic development may also load on a CALP factor when L2 is taught as a subject in a formal classroom setting but not when it is being acquired through interaction with native speakers in an informal environment. Thus, a particular task undertaken in the context of the second language may load on CALP but would not do so in the context of first-language learning.

Natural versus formal language

Calfee and Freedman (1980) offer yet another conceptualization of linguistic proficiency. They argue that a user of language acquires skill in both the natural and formal domains of speech and thought. Formal language is characterized as highly explicit, context free, repeatable, memory supported, and logical–rational, whereas natural language is described as quite the opposite: highly implicit–interactive, context bound, unique, idiosyncratic, personal, intuitive, and sequential–descriptive.

To emphasize the distinction between these two forms of language, Calfee and Freedman (1980) use the contrast between utterance and text as elaborated by Olson (1977, 1980). Oral language, or the language of utterance, is described by Olson as the language of face-to-face, interper-

sonal communication; it is supported by contextual and paralinguistic information that provides a wide range of cues as to the intentions of the speaker. On the other hand, written language, or the language of text, is the language of abstract ideas. Of necessity it is highly conventionalized; contextual and paralinguistic cues are greatly reduced. The linguistic forms must, therefore contain all of the information relevant to the communication. Olson (1977) points out that the child comes to school with oral language; the school experience teaches the child to deal with written text: "Schooling, particularly learning to read, is the critical process in the transformation of children's language from utterances to text" (p. 278).

Style

Calfee and Freedman (1980) maintain that it is not writing versus speech that is the critical issue (since natural and formal language exist in both the oral and written modalities), but rather it is the style or level of formality in the message that characterizes two distinct modes of language and thought. They point out, for example, that "letters between lovers resemble natural language; a conversation between business associates is most often like formal language" (p. 5). Relating this concept to schooling, these two authors argue that children, having been raised in the informal, intimate language of the home, come to school with linguistic skills characteristic of natural language, but the formal language is, or should be, the content of education, since it is this form of language that is used in oral discourse in the classroom and in school textbooks.

Other scholars studying the relationship between language and thought have also discussed the use and interpretation of language in different contexts. They have drawn a distinction between, on the one hand, the use and interpretation of language in face-to-face communication and on the other, language that is used autonomously, without paralinguistic cues. Similar to Olson's utterance versus text and Calfee and Freedman's natural versus formal distinctions are those made by Bruner (1975) between communicative and analytic competence, by Donaldson (1978) between embedded and disembedded thought and language, and by Cummins (1980) between BICS and CALP. In each case language used in situations in which it is supported by contextual and paralinguistic cues is described as being "less dependent on the specific linguistic forms used for its interpretation than it is on the expectation and perception of the speaker's intentions and the salient features of the context" (Swain, 1981).

In contrast, language and thought that move beyond the bounds of meaningful interpersonal context are believed to make entirely different demands on the individual and require the user to focus on the linguistic forms themselves for meaning, since meaning is autonomously represented and contextual support is greatly reduced. The linguistic message must therefore be elaborated precisely and explicitly, whether in the oral or written form.

Language development

To a considerable extent, formal education is concerned with teaching the child

to process and produce the varieties of spoken and written language in which meaning is autonomously represented. Language development as described by Olson (1977) is "primarily a matter of mastering the conventions both for putting more and more of the meaning into the verbal utterance and reconstructing the intended meaning of the sentence per se" (p. 262). Learning to read and write facilitates this process, and in learning to read and write, the child is made conscious of the processes by which language is controlled and manipulated to explain, classify, generalize, abstract, gain knowledge, and apply that knowledge (Swain, 1981). The acquisition of formal oral language and literacy skills requires the child to gradually extend his/her ability to rely primarily on linguistic cues for meaning and less on situational and paralinguistic cues. Learning to deal with language in this manner is essential for success in reading and writing. Yet it is a development process, extending over a rather long period of time for some children.

A two-dimensional framework

Cummins (1981) has recently proposed a theoretical framework that appears to be useful in examining the acquisition of reading and writing skills in the first language and in interpreting the data on the performance of second-language learners of varying degrees of proficiency on tasks of speaking, reading, and writing in English. He postulates two dimensions relevant to the educational setting on which an adequate conceptualization of linguistic proficiency depends. Each dimension is portrayed as a continuum.

Context-embedded versus context-reduced language usage

One dimension is related to the use and interpretation of language in different contexts. This dimension involves the range of support available for expressing and receiving meaning. At one end of the continuum is context-embedded use of language (i.e., language that is supported by a wide range of meaningful paralinguistic and situational cues); at the other extreme is context-reduced use of language. At that end of the continuum, the participants must rely primarily or exclusively on linguistic cues.

Active cognitive involvement

The second dimension of Cummins's model of linguistic proficiency addresses the developmental aspect of communicative competence in terms of the degree of active cognitive involvement needed to carry out a particular activity or task. Active cognitive involvement is conceptualized in terms of the amount of information that must be processed simultaneously or in close succession in order to carry out the task. When linguistic tools are automatized (mastered), less cognitive involvement of an active nature is needed; thus, more energy is released for higher level tasks.

For example, when children are in the process of acquiring writing skills, much cognitive energy is involved in simply holding the pencil and forming the letters. As these skills are mastered, more energy is released for higher level discourse. Similarly, in the early stages of learning to speak a second language, much of the speaker's attention is given over to mas-

When children are in the process of acquiring writing skills, much cognitive energy is involved in simply holding the pencil and forming the letters.

tery of the basic forms of the language. At later stages, as linguistic forms become automatized, more cognitive energy is released for elaboration and refinement of the content of messages produced and received.

Cummins has proposed that communication tasks for which the individual has not mastered the linguistic tools will fall along the cognitively demanding portion of the continuum and that

> in these situations, it is necessary to stretch one's linguistic resources (i.e., grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competencies) to the limit in order to achieve one's communicative goals. Obviously cognitive involvement, in the sense of amount of information processing, can be just as intense in context-embedded as in context-reduced activities. (Cummins, 1981, p. 14)

As suggested above, a major role of the school is to teach children to read and write, to deal with abstract ideas, and to express their thoughts in a comprehensible manner. For the preliterate child, the task of learning to read and write (i.e., deal with context-reduced use of language) falls along the cognitively demanding portion of Cummins's continuum. For some children whose skill in using formal language is somewhat limited, the task of learning to organize and express their ideas in an oral report, to present an argument, or to understand and respond to the classroom instructions given orally by the teacher may also fall toward the cognitively demanding portion of the continuum even though these activities may move closer toward context-embedded use of language.

Similarly, for the second-language child, all tasks in English may well be cognitively demanding, depending on the level of the child's proficiency in English and the extent to which he/she knows how to deal with context-reduced language. Cummins (1980) has argued that the abilities on which the use and interpretation of context-reduced language depend are cross-lingual and that learning to gain and apply knowledge using language alone is not limited to use only with the language in which it was acquired but represents a linguistic resource that can be drawn upon when developing school-related skills in another language. In other words, learning to read and write in one language facilitates the development of literacy skills in another.

In summary, learning to read and write and to engage in the formal language of the classroom requires the development of language and thought that move beyond the bounds of meaningful interpersonal communication and its dependence on contextual and paralinguistic cues. In the acquisition of literacy and the spoken form of formal language, the child learns to assign meaning to the linguistic forms per se and is made conscious of the processes by which language can be controlled and manipulated to gain knowledge and to apply that knowledge in a variety of academic and social contexts. Learning to decontextualize language is initially a cog-

nitively demanding task for all children. For children whose stronger language is not English, initial instruction in their mother tongue, a language in which the basic linguistic tools of natural language have been mastered, may well provide the basis for gaining formal language and literacy skills in English. However, for children with genuine language disorders, it is not enough to merely use the child's mother tongue in the instructional process. Appropriate therapeutic intervention needs to be planned and implemented.

CURRENT PRACTICES IN THE MEASUREMENT OF LANGUAGE

Concern for the educational welfare of language minority children has resulted in legislation, both at the state and federal levels, which mandates that school districts define the language resources of each child and provide instructional programs commensurate with the language abilities of the children enrolled (Mace-Matluck & Matluck, 1981). This has resulted in wide-scale language testing for the purpose of classifying students on the basis of language status and for subsequent placement into appropriate educational programs.

Inadequate tests

Language status (i.e., language resources) is generally defined in terms of language dominance or proficiency. A number of measures, usually administered individually, have been used to determine each of these. They include standardized tests and observations, informal appraisals, self-rating scales, and reports from others. (For a discussion of specific tests, see Dieterich et al., 1979; Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1978; Oakland, 1977; Stolz & Bruck, 1976.)

There has been widespread dissatisfaction with tests presently available. This is probably due to the fact that the scores yielded by these tests do not reflect the totality of the language resources that these children actually possess, nor do they adequately predict the children's ability to perform in the school setting. The lack of adequate tests of language proficiency is undoubtedly due in part to the present state of knowledge, which at best is only partial or incomplete with respect to what constitutes linguistic proficiency.

At present, linguistic theory is in a state of change. No one theory is accepted by all; instead there are a diversity of language models, all of which have proponents. Under the circumstances, it is not surprising to find great diversity in the scope, content, scoring procedures, and interpretation of scores among the language tests. What *is* surprising, however, is that few commercially available tests espouse any particular theoretical view of language. Often there appears to be a variety of views (a so-called eclectic approach) represented within a single test.

An overwhelming majority of the present-day assessment procedures are built on a divisible model of proficiency with heavy emphasis on the structural aspects of language. By and large these instruments are discrete-item tests that primarily assess the child's use of surface-level syntax and morphology as an indication of language ability. Although these surface-level tests have been widely used,

their utility, as well as their validity, has been seriously questioned. It is argued that although it may be important to know what bits and pieces of language a child knows, the proof of the pudding undoubtedly lies in what the child can do with the language he/she knows. Therefore, language assessment that takes a global view of the child's language and focuses more heavily on the functional use of language may be more productive for school purposes.

A new approach

In recent years there has been a movement in the field of language testing away from what is seen as a disproportionate emphasis on structural features of language and toward a consideration of the assessment of language proficiency from the perspective of language use in a variety of contexts (Canale, 1981; Damico, Oller, & Storey, 1980). In this approach, generally referred to as *pragmatically oriented* (Bruner, 1975) or *integrative-sociolinguistic* (Spolsky, 1978), the focus of the assessment is "less on knowledge of discrete grammatical forms and more on overall skill in using language for natural purposes in realistic situations" (Canale, 1981, p. 1). It is commonly claimed that such tests have higher construct, content, and face validity than do grammar-oriented instruments.

Nonetheless, when used for identification, classification, and placement of students in academic programs, the predictive validity of such tests is brought into question. Cummins (in press) argues that the relationship between natural language proficiency in a given language and achievement in an academic program taught in that language is questionable. He maintains that there are differences between the linguistic demands of the school and those of interpersonal contexts outside of the school. He states, for example, that "reading a difficult text or writing an essay makes fundamentally different information processing demands on the individual compared to engaging in a casual conversation with a friend" (Cummins, in press, p. 19). He further suggests that "the amount of active cognitive involvement in the language activity may vary as a function of the degree of mastery of its constituent skills" (Cummins, in press, p. 19). Thus, Cummins contends that in the assessment of second-language students, the difficulty of the task will be a function not only of the inherent characteristics of the task but also of the level of proficiency of the language user. Failure to take into account the difference between relatively less cognitively demanding, face-to-face, interpersonal communication tasks and the more cognitively demanding, context-reduced tasks of the school often leads to invalid interpretation of second language students' test performance and classroom achievement.

Other scholars agree (e.g., Calfee & Freedman, 1980; Olson, 1977). Relating spoken language development to reading, Wells (1981) in his study of first-language acquisition concluded that

> while command of spoken language is indeed important for success in school, it is not in itself sufficient for a child to benefit from the more formal learning contexts of the classroom. What seems to be required is familiarity with the ways in which language can be used symbolically to represent remote, imaginary,

or even hypothetical, events and experiences, and these are particularly associated with written language. (p. 2)

Assessing CALP and BICS

If one ascribes to the view elaborated by Cummins that there are two dimensions of linguistic proficiency and that it is the CALP dimension that is closely related to the development of formal language and literacy skills in L1 and L2, then it is the measurement of CALP that will be of particular importance to educators. Among the procedures that are believed to assess CALP are (a) linguistic manipulation tasks, such as oral and written cloze tests and tasks of imitation, translation, substitution, and completion, and (b) measures testing reading comprehension, grammar, vocabulary, dictation, free writing, and L2 skills that have been taught in a formal classroom setting. In general, measures of natural communication appear to assess the BICS rather than the CALP dimension and as such may have little relevance to the educational performance of bilingual children under the linguistically different conditions of the classroom.

The assessment of the language of young children presents a different problem, however. Children entering school for the first time at around the age of 5 years bring with them natural language (i.e., BICS in the home language) that was acquired within a context-supported environment. Thus, any kind of testing of formal language or even the formal testing of any form of language may result in something less than a complete and accurate picture of the child's language resources. Language tests are most widely used for identification, classification, and placement at the kindergarten level, yet the tasks included in many of the standardized language tests heavily tax the linguistic and cognitive resources of many 5-year-old children.

Consider for a moment the task that requires the 5-year-old child to analyze the speech chain at the phoneme level, that is, to consciously distinguish between two sounds and to indicate whether the two are the same or different. In addition to trying to analyze minute units of the speech chain, a skill that many children encounter for the first time in the early years of schooling, they are expected to consciously make the same versus different distinction, a concept that is not clearly defined for some children on entry into school.

Similarly, 5-year-old children are often asked to retell a story that the examiner has presented via an audiotape; on the basis of the child's performance as indicated by a set of descriptors, the child is assigned a production score. This task is highly unrealistic as a measure of language proficiency for young children. Many 5- to 6-year-old bilingual children from low-income families are perfectly able to speak their native language for communication purposes and to carry out their daily needs, but they are not greatly familiar with the written form of language as found in texts, nor do they know how to restructure a text that they hear, nor do they know the rules that govern the selection and arrangement of elements of a text (i.e., story grammar) that are necessary to reconstruct a narrative text. The children, therefore, do poorly on that task in both of their languages, ending up with

very low scores. Those scores are then interpreted to mean that the children are semilingual (having no adequate language), since they are not able to perform the task successfully in either language that they speak.

Three measures of proficiency

In our research (Mace-Matluck & Matluck, 1980), we have used three measures of oral language proficiency with the children. As part of a larger study on the teaching of reading to bilingual children, we have been studying the language development of 120 Spanish–English bilingual children since their entry into kindergarten or first grade 3 years ago. We have obtained language data each year on these children from language tests, teacher ratings, and audiotaped speech samples taken once a month on a rotating schedule in the classroom, on the playground, and in the home. The teacher ratings and the ratings of the taped speech samples are almost identical, but there is little correspondence between the language test scores and either the teacher ratings or the tape ratings.

A number of studies have found only a weak relationship between children's performance on an oral language proficiency test given under controlled conditions and the ratings derived from spontaneous speech (e.g., Cummins, 1980; Wells, 1979). This suggests that the two procedures may be tapping different forms of linguistic proficiency. Most children seem to learn to use the natural language of interpersonal communication spoken in their home or community, but some children find it difficult to acquire the decontextualized, formal language of the classroom and textbooks. Present-day language tests do not make that distinction, nor are the developmental level and educational experience necessary to deal with the two registers of language taken into consideration in the assignment of age/grade level appropriateness. This is an area of language assessment that needs serious attention.

Psychometric qualities

The psychometric qualities of the available language proficiency tests pose an additional limitation. As indicated earlier, language tests in general have not demonstrated that they can meet acceptable test standards. Although some improvement has been noted in this area in the last few years, much more work is needed to produce adequate measures for use in language assessment.

Language tests in general have not demonstrated that they can meet acceptable test standards.

The characteristics of measurement devices used for language assessment must first of all possess those qualities that characterize any good evaluation instrument. They must be valid and reliable, practical to administer, acceptable to the population for which they were developed, and able to offer some potential for the improvement of education through feedback to students and educators.

For language assessment, however, there are some additional considerations

In terms of validity, one must be concerned with not only whether the instruments measure what they are intended to measure but also whether what they measure is relevant to success in school programs in a language minority setting. Similarly, certain factors that may reduce the reliability of an instrument when it is used with language minority children need to be considered (e.g., culturally relevant administration procedures, scoring procedures that minimize linguistic bias, selection of authentic and relevant items).

USING AND INTERPRETING AVAILABLE PROCEDURES

Given the present state of knowledge and the concomitant state of the art of language testing, results of language assessment should be used with caution. Use of multiple sources of information seems advisable. It is clear, however, that procedures tapping the kind of discourse that students will be expected to deal with in the instructional setting at their particular grade level will likely be the most useful for school purposes.

For the younger students, standardized observations, such as teacher ratings and informal appraisals, may provide a more accurate index of the student's language resources than do any of the formal procedures, primarily for developmental reasons and lack of skill in test taking. For the older students, procedures that examine the student's ability to process and produce those varieties of spoken and written language associated with academic learning (e.g., oral interviews, dictation, cloze procedures, and tests of reading and writing) may well provide the most useful information for decision making. When carried out in two languages, such procedures may assist not only in identifying children for special language programs (e.g., bilingual education, English as a second language) but may also assist speech–language pathologists and persons working in special education in distinguishing among bilinguals with genuine language disorders and those who simply need additional help in learning English.

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COGNITIVE STYLES AND RELATED DETERMINANTS: A REFERENCE FOR BILINGUAL EDUCATION TEACHERS

Atilano A. Valencia

Recent literature on cognitive styles has spurred an interest among educators who are searching for ways to classify students in terms of specific learning domains.

The purpose of this paper is to present four underlying features relative to cognitive learning styles. It outlines several positions expressed by contemporary authors and researchers on cognitive learning styles, provides a brief description of twelve cognitive learning styles as viewed by contemporary writers on the subject, and describes several recent research studies on the topic. Several criterion statements are suggested for readers to consider in reviewing research studies on cognitive learning styles. Several statements are made pertaining to cognitive learning styles and teaching that may be of interest to practicing teachers, especially those working with children from diverse cultural and language backgrounds. Finally, some directions for future research are suggested.

INTRODUCTION

Recent literature on cognitive styles has spurred an interest among educators who are searching for ways to classify students in terms of specific learning domains. The hypothetical premise that individuals tend to exhibit behavioral patterns in the form of preferential learning styles with some degree of consistency throughout life, offers an intriguing research field for research-oriented persons. Moreover, current research on cognitive learning styles has tended to stimulate and

Atilano A. Valencia is Professor of Bilingual Education and Director, Bilingual Doctoral Fellowship Program, College of Education, New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, New Mexico 88003.

enhance the interest of persons in several cognate areas of education and psychology, i.e., bilingual education, early childhood education, reading, and special education.

For some persons, particular findings of selected research studies serve to re-enforce preconceived notions on cognitive styles and they are therefore apt to give a higher credibility and generalizability to these findings than is actually intended by the researchers. For these persons, the selected findings are useful in substantiating any hypothesis they may have formulated. For others, recent research studies on cognitive learning styles serve as part of the total informational base on the subject. For these persons, the credibility and generalizability of the findings are viewed in tentative terms.

The purpose of this paper is to present four underlying features relative to cognitive learning styles. First, it presents several positions expressed by contemporary authors and researchers on cognitive learning styles. Second, it provides a brief description of twelve cognitive learning styles expounded by contemporary writers on the subject, plus a brief description of some recent research studies. Third, it offers several criterion statements for readers to consider in reviewing research studies on cognitive learning styles. Finally, it presents several statements pertaining to cognitive learning styles and teaching that may be of interest to practicing teachers, especially those working with children from diverse cultural and language backgrounds.

CURRENT PERSPECTIVES ON COGNITIVE LEARNING STYLES

Cognitive learning styles have been defined as ways in which individuals perceive, gather, and process information in order to solve problems or make decisions; they imply distinctive and relatively consistent behaviors across a wide variety of situations (Rice, 1979).

In conducting studies relative to cognitive learning styles, some researchers utilize a bipolar format based on two or more cognitive types. In reference to the bipolar design, some contemporary researchers tend to focus on two types of cognitive styles -- the field dependent and field independent. In some instances, several cognitive and personality attributes have been lumped under each of the two types. It is found, for example, that the field-independent type is often described as one who tends to think and operate independently of the surrounding field. This type is also described as having a

tendency to deal effectively with problems requiring logical and analytical thinking. Additionally, this type is envisioned as somewhat more impersonal and insensitive to social surroundings. On the other hand, the field-dependent type is frequently described as a person who tends to give greater attention to other persons and things in the social surroundings. In other words, this type is perceived as being more socially perceptive and subject to external influence. In turn, this type is depicted as being less analytical than the field-independent type (Rice, 1979; 38).

Some research studies tend to show cognitive disadvantages for the field-dependent type as compared to the field-independent type. It is apparent from the literature that some researchers are cognizant of the unfavorable perspectives found in reference to the field-dependent type and have attempted to extend favorable descriptions of the attributes associated with this cognitive style. For example, the following descriptions of both types are found in recent literature:

1. Field independent persons perform better than field sensitive persons on tests which involve separating a part from an organized whole or rearranging parts to make a whole.
2. Field independent children tend to be "task centered" in taking tests; field sensitive children tend to glance at the examiner and pay more attention to the social atmosphere of the testing situation.
3. Field sensitive persons appear to be more imaginative in verbally describing social situations. They are more influenced by expressions of confidence or doubt than field independent persons

Other researchers (Tyler, 1965) suggest several types of cognitive styles – often perceived on a parallel dimension. In this perspective, the field-independent/field-dependent types simply represent two of several types. While this perspective offers a greater number of plausible types, a detailed review of the different types reveals an overlapping in descriptions. Kogan perceives the cognitive style domain as an "ever-expanding vessel rather than a container with a fixed number of entries" (1979). However, he also suggests the necessity of large scale factor-analytical studies to eliminate redundancies within the domain. While some researchers have attempted to reduce redundancies by conveniently placing several cognitive attributes under selected types, this practice has proposed cognitive types that are overly broad and difficult to handle in research work.

Cognitive styles must be permitted to occur – to emerge in relationship with the interactive features in the educational setting. Where particular cognitive patterns surface among individual children, corresponding materials and learning approaches should be provided. For this reason, teachers in bilingual education classrooms must have a comprehensive knowledge of several cognitive styles and be ready to detect any new ones that may appear. In this light, too, the bilingual education teacher must refrain from permanently classifying groups of children from different cultural and language backgrounds in terms of selected cognitive styles. If cognitive learning styles are to be considered as one of the viable features in the learning process, teachers must view and interact with children as persons with individual interests and related talents. At best, cognitive learning styles must be treated as one of the information sources in studying the total profile of individual students in particular educational setting.

In reviewing literature on the subject of cognitive styles, one encounters the problem of distinguishing between cognitive tendencies envisioned as distinct learning styles, from abilities perceived as cognitive skills. If the researcher assumes the theoretical premise that cognitive *styles* represent cognitive talents that persons inherit and tend to exhibit throughout their lives, then cognitive *skills* may be viewed as mental processes or operations to be learned and developed through informal or formal educational activities.

It is noted that analyzing and synthesizing are among the cognitive processes frequently incorporated in the educational programs of technical societies; some researchers have identified these processes as cognitive skills. Yet, if analyzing and synthesizing are cognitive capabilities that are biologically inherited and favored by some individuals as compared to others, one may conceivably classify them as cognitive styles rather than cognitive skills.

Cognitive styles are viewed as relatively stable mental structures within a person that account for cross-situational or cross-task consistencies. To ascertain the validity of this premise, consider that a person is given a series of concepts to learn and certain problems to solve. Assume further that such a person possesses the flexibility to choose and apply any cognitive approach. If a consistent cognitive pattern is exhibited by the person in reference to the tasks at hand, one may surmise that the person's preferred style has been identified with respect to the given conditions. But one may also assume that the cognitive approach selected by the person may have been learned and re-enforced through formal educational activities. Based on this

analysis, one may conclude that the preferred cognitive style of the person is not necessarily related to heredity but to influencial features in the educational process, or one may propose that the preferred style is attributed to both factors.

The foregoing represents the dilemma that teachers and researchers encounter in attempting to understand the differences between cognitive styles and cognitive skills. Since one cannot be absolutely certain that the cognitive tendencies of the person are attributable to biological factors or to influential factors in educational and cultural experiences, it behooves the teacher to view the question as relatively insignificant and concentrate in furthering the cognitive development of students by accommodating, as nearly as possible, their immediate and apparent attributes.

From an academic frame of reference, one will find ample scientific evidence that all persons inherit certain universal characteristics. These attributes enable human beings to develop highly sophisticated communication systems. It enables persons to express joy and to relieve psychological tension through crying. These capabilities also make it possible for persons to conceptualize, predict, think, rationalize, and apply cognitive processes in solving social and scientific problems. Piagetian stages of development are based on this frame of reference. Thus, all normal children inherit the cognitive ability to identify and label concepts, and the ability to understand conservation processes involving liquids and solids (Bruner, 1967).

In Piagetian terms, too, children (age 7-11) have the potential to solve problems through transformation, reversibility, seriation, classification, and causality (Wadsworth, 1967). Moreover, it is also clear that these cognitive attributes are found across cultures. This was recently demonstrated through a series of mini-experiments in actual classroom settings with Mexican American bilingual children where the author (Valencia, 1979) discovered that cognitive processes, i.e., conservation and transformation, were comprehended equally by participating children using two different languages – Spanish and English.

Based on these observations, a series of longitudinal studies might be suggested, involving several selected samples, to identify early patterns of cognitive tendencies, and to trace persistent patterns of cognitive behavior under different environmental conditions and language systems. This will make it possible to ascertain, with a higher degree of precision, the relative effects of culture and languages on individual cognitive tendencies.

Cognitive Styles and Selected Research Studies

For the purpose of this paper, twelve types of cognitive styles have been selected as a reference base. This section simply provides a description of several types found in contemporary literature; the refinement of related descriptions to eliminate redundancies across different cognitive styles is yet to be realized. Table I presents a list of the twelve cognitive types, and includes a brief description of the related attributes.

TABLE I
DESCRIPTIONS OF TWELVE COGNITIVE STYLES

Cognitive Styles	Related Attributes
ANALYTIC TYPE	The analyzer tends to concentrate on details and will attend to separate parts of an object or situation. Thus, analytical persons tend to be more attentive to similarities in properties. Analytic types tend to learn analytic concepts quite readily (Tyler, 1965).
SYNTHESIZER OR NON-ANALYTIC TYPE	The synthesizer sees the field as an integrated whole, but may miss some of the details in a situation or problem. Non-analytic persons tend to respond in a thematic-descriptive or relational way. Non-analytic types tend to learn relational concepts most readily (Tyler, 1965).
CONVERGENT THINKERS	Convergent thinkers tend to reach logical conclusions based on conventional reasoning; they generally do well in scientific activities. Persons who favor convergent modes of thought prefer to work on problems that yield clear-cut answers. Specifically, convergent thinkers perform well on multiple-choice tests that require one correct answer (Kogan, 1979).
DIVERGENT THINKERS	Divergent thinkers favor the generation of alternative possibilities, problem solving, and imaginative thinking. Divergent thinkers tend to be creative — initiating original and novel responses.
COGNITIVE COMPLEXITY TYPE	Persons high in cognitive complexity tend to integrate information in a hierarchical fashion. Persons high in cognitive complexity tend to perform well in problems where vertical analysis of relations between dimensions is necessary (Kogan, 1979).
COGNITIVE SIMPLICITY TYPE	The cognitive simplicity type tends to use dimensions of difference in integrating information. This type shows preference in situations where only horizontal analysis along a dimension is necessary (Kogan, 1979).

TABLE I. (cont'd)

Cognitive Styles	Related Attributes
FIELD DEPENDENT OR FIELD SENSITIVE TYPE	Field-dependent persons tend to see complex perceptual fields as a whole. Field-dependent persons tend to give greater attention to persons and things in their social surroundings; they appear to be more socially perceptive and responsive to external directions. Field-sensitive persons tend to prefer lessons prefaced with supportive assurances from the teacher, problem solving strategies modeled by the teacher, and a humanized instructional setting.
FIELD INDEPENDENT TYPE	Field-independent persons tend to differentiate stimuli found within a perceptual field. Field-independent persons prefer tasks requiring factional information and problems based on analytical processes. Field-independent persons prefer individual and independent type activities in the learning process, with the teacher serving as a resource person rather than a model.
LEVELERS	Levelers tend to assimilate new stimuli to an already dominant cognitive organizations, but may be unaware of differences between the new and the old (Tyler, 1965).
SHARPENERS	Sharpeners tend to differentiate new instances from old ones and, therefore, are included to create new categories to hold information. Sharpeners tend to notice changes; therefore, they are apt to keep successive stimulating situations separate from one another (Tyler, 1965).
SCANNERS	Scanners tend to proceed meticulously through all details of a situation with uniform awareness — including incidental ones. When faced with a problem requiring identification of relevant as opposed to irrelevant information, scanners look for attributes of the situation in a broad to narrow fashion. When a scanner makes a mistake, he/she usually learns from the miscue.
FOCUSERS	Focusers tend to fix their attention on a few key details, ignoring peripheral cues that occasionally may be important. If all relevant cues are immediately perceptible, however, focusers tend to perform well. (Rice, 1979). Focusers may encounter difficulty in ascertaining which part of their hypothesis is wrong. Yet, it is possible that they will attain the solution to a problem faster than a scanner.

It is not the purpose of this study to present substantial evidence in favor of one or more cognitive styles for application with children in bilingual education. However, some work has been done by Duncan and DeAvila (1979) in describing the relationship between degrees of bilingualism and cognitive functions in terms of measured performance on a test of neo-Piagetian intellectual development and two tests of field dependence/independence (i.e., perceptual disembedding and figural drawing).

A review of research studies pertaining to the relationship of cognitive styles to major field selections and academic success was provided by Kogan (1979). His review also included selected studies dealing with the relative academic effects of matching cognitive styles between teachers and students. Some of the most noteworthy aspects of the studies are included below.

In a 1966 study, Hudson (cited by Kogan, 1979), provided some information of major field selections by convergent and divergent types. The findings in the study revealed a strong trend at the preuniversity level for convergers to specialize in the sciences and divergers to major in the humanities. However, in a 1970 follow-up study by Field and Poole (cited by Kogan, 1979), it was found that by the second year of study, there was no special academic advantage to being a diverger in the humanities and a converger in the sciences. In other words, the matching of cognitive styles to selected major fields did not necessarily result in higher academic performance for the participating students.

Similar results were found in a 1977 study conducted by Witkins and associates (cited by Kogan, 1979), where scores from the Embedded Figures Test were used to ascertain the relationship of cognitive tendencies in choosing an academic major. In reference to three major areas, Science (natural sciences and mathematics), Education, and Other (social sciences, and the arts and humanities), the results of the study showed that EFT scores can provide information about the choice of major field beyond SAT-M scores, but the size of the increment (in percentage terms) appeared insignificant (Kogan, 1979).

Of greater significance were the questions that the reviewer posed in reference to several features in the study:

> Does interest in and choice of careers in mathematics, science, engineering, architecture, etc., necessarily imply a disposition toward the analytic style of field independence, or does it rather reflect the possession of spatial abilities typically required to perform well in those disciplines? One cannot dismiss the question by asserting that high spatial ability rests on

> analytic competency, for numerous spatial tests do not have properties of embeddedness. At the very least, the spatial-ability hypothesis would appear to have as much credibility as the field-independence hypothesis (Kogan, 1979: 41).

The foregoing quotation is important in that it serves to illustrate particular pitfalls that researchers and teachers must avoid in interpreting cognitive variables based on selected instruments, as well as their relationship to areas of student interest and specialization.

Where favorable results have been found in matching cognitive styles to specific functions on a particular subject-matter area, questions have arisen on whether the cognitive style or other variables produced the effect. An example of this occurrence is found in a 1978 study by Packer and Bain (cited by Kogan, 1979), where positive results were indicated in matching teacher and student cognitive styles with mathematical network tracing. Specifically, field-dependent students appeared to perform better with field-dependent teachers and field-independent students tended to perform better with field-independent teachers. Yet, one of the questions relative to the study is whether the effects, in all of the situations, were attributed to student/teacher style matching or the relationship of the instructional material. In this regard, Kogan (1979) made the following observation:

> Mathematical tracing is likely to be so incongruent with a field-dependent style that only the teacher who shares that style can effectively communicate it. For field-independent students. . .mathematical network tracing is likely to be quite congruent with the spatial skill reflected by field-independence (45).

Thus, in the foregoing study, the nature of the arrangement in the subject-matter area component appears to be the determining factor for at least one of the styles (the field-independent type) rather than matching student and teacher cognitive styles.

Another noteworthy study on cognitively-complex and cognitively-simple styles was conducted by McLachlin and Hunt in 1973 (cited by Kogan, 1979). In this study involving eleventh grade students, two instructional methods, the lecture and discovery approach, were compared to ascertain the meaning drawn by two cognitive groups in reference to details of a painting by Picasso. The arrangements required that all of the students view a slide of the painting, plus eight slides of detailed components. Additionally, the lecture group was asked to hear a tape recording describing each

component with some interpretive comments, while the discovery group was not required to hear the lecture but was to view the slides in their own way. To ascertain any plausible differences between the groups, the study required that the students determine the meaning of the painting as a whole in response to selected questions presented by the examiners. The results of the McLachlin and Hunt study revealed that cognitively-complex students learned equally well from the lecture and discovery methods; on the other hand, the data indicated that while cognitively-simple students performed as well as cognitively-complex students on the lecture method, they performed poorly in the discovery condition.

The results of the McLachlin and Hunt study offer further support for the notion of selecting instructional approaches that capitalize on the strengths of the learner rather than relying principally in matching teacher and student cognitive styles. Additional studies are needed to determine the relative effects on learning when participating students, with particular types of cognitive styles, are provided with different types of instructional methods across various subject-matter areas.

The aforementioned styles suggest a message for bilingual educators and researchers to consider in their review of cognitive styles. It has been noted that research findings on cognitive styles and their relationship to culture and bilingualism are still too limited for one to draw any conclusive generalizations. Conceivably, future research studies may discover a variety of cognitive styles among bilinguals and cultural groups in the United States. It is suggested that future research on cognitive styles in the area of bilingual education focus on the relative effects of selected instructional strategies across various subject-matter areas, with particular reference to a variety of cognitive types. In the meantime, the observant teacher, with a sound background on cognitive modalities and personality patterns, should continue to develop individual profiles of her/his students. In the final analysis, these data may prove to be the most important in furthering the cognitive development of students in both monolingual and bilingual classrooms.

Criterion Features for Reviewing Research on Cognitive Styles

In reviewing cognitive studies of Hispanics in the United States, the reader must first be cognizant that this population group is not entirely homogeneous in cultural and bilingual characteristics. Many Hispanics have interacted with people from different cultures and

have seen regions in other parts of the world. The ancestry of Hispanics in the United States are traceable from one to four generations; many Hispanics are not recent immigrants. Many Hispanics live in urban areas and hold various types of occupations; their life styles are different from migratory farm workers in the rural areas. A number of Hispanics earn a lower income and hold nonprofessional (white collar) jobs as compared to middle-class Anglo Americans. The educational level of most Hispanics is still below that of middle-income Anglo Americans. However, the number of Hispanics with higher educational levels, including college degrees and those occupying professional positions, is relatively higher today than in past generations. In sum, researchers must continually up-date their demographic data on Hispanics in the United States and refrain from placing all of them in the same sampling pot.

It is important for those reviewing the literature on cognitive styles to identify the specific purpose of the research studies. In some instances, the purpose of a study is simply to describe particular types of cognitive styles. In other instances, the purpose is to show correlations between particular cognitive styles and other variables that may affect the cognitive development of the target groups in the study. In another instance, a study may be designed to provide teachers with information to assist them in understanding cognitive variances among selected (target) groups, coupled with proposed approaches for enhancing the cognitive development of students.

The appropriateness of tests used on the subject of cognitive styles must be examined to ascertain their degree of validity/reliability in terms of the variables selected for the study. The sampling groups must be clearly identified in terms of desired classifications and representations. The variables associated with the research design must be explicitly stated and treated through sound statistical analyses. Finally, the findings yielded by the research study should be interpreted with consideration to any limitations in the investigation. Sins of omission or commission are not always the fault of the researchers; in some instances, they are unintentionally committed by readers who fail to scrutinize the findings and, therefore, misinterpret and misquote the authors.

CONCLUSION

The results derived from one particular test should not be used as a singular reference in classifying students in terms of cognitive learning styles. In addition to any test data that are available, the class-

room teacher, in interaction with the students, may be able to observe and note particular cognitive talents among the participating students. In turn, the educational program must be designed with sufficient flexibility to accommodate a variety of cognitive approaches. It should provide activities to enable students to extend their preferred learning styles in a multitude of situations and problem areas. Yet it should be sufficiently comprehensive to enable them to explore and experiment with other types of cognitive modes.

Teachers need not limit the student's references to one or two cognitive styles. While provisions are available for students to apply their preferred learning styles in enhancing their intellectual development, the instructional program must also be designed to provide opportunities for them to attempt and develop other cognitive approaches that may be useful in various situations and conditions throughout their lives.

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