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ABSTRACT

The training manual is designed to accompany "The Story of California," a set of bilingual instructional materials for limited-English-proficient, native Spanish-speaking students in urban middle schools intended to ease their transition into comfortable use of English while maintaining Spanish language skills. The manual is to be used in training classroom teachers how to use the materials effectively with this population. The first section offers background information on language, immigration, and ethnicity in California, with a focus on acculturation movements and recent immigration and enrollment patterns. The second section looks more closely at the effects of bilingual education, including theory and research on why bilingual education works, affective education in the classroom, different bilingual instructional approaches, organization of classroom programs, and common myths about bilingual education. Section 3 outlines the development of federal and California state regulation of bilingual education since the 1960s, and the final section presents plans for a series of 5 teacher training workshops, the topics of which include cultural pluralism and bilingual education, the theory behind bilingual education, classroom strategies, legal bases for bilingual education, and how to teach with "The Story of California." A 38-item annotated bibliography is appended. (MSE)

TRAINING MANUAL FOR URBAN SCHOOL DISTRICTS: A MODEL FOR TRAINING TEACHERS TO USE BILINGUAL INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

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For
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TRAINER'S MANUAL FOR THE STORY OF CALIFORNIA

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of The Story of California is to introduce Spanish language middle school students who speak little or no English to California and to the English language. Accompanying the basic text are a Student Workbook and a Teacher's Guide. By alternating the use of Spanish and English in the text as well as in the classroom in ways we shall describe, the students should make a faster and less painful transition to the comfortable use of English than would be possible if they were simply placed in classes taught in English. Nevertheless, it is not our intention in any way to weaken the students' command of Spanish, their mother tongue, for, hopefully, we have progressed beyond the era in which ability in a foreign language was regarded as a handicap to be erased and forgotten as soon as possible.

Nevertheless, there are some specific problems to be dealt with in teaching Spanish language students. Most of them come from a culture in which there is more unquestioning respect for age and for authority. In classrooms in Mexico and Central America, for example, it is the custom for the entire class to rise and formally greet the teacher or school principal whenever such an important personage enters the room. The very

act of disagreeing ith an authority figure such as a teacher, as U. S. students are encouraged to do, would be considered a severe breach of etiquette or, even worse, a basic challenge to that teacher's authority.

Often teaching goes on in Latin American schools (except in the private schools reserved for the elite) by rote memorization and copying from a text dictated by the teacher, whose authority is unquestioned in countries where the distance between the social classes is even greater than in the United States. Latino children, on first exposure to the "bloomin' buzzin' confusion" that a U. S. classroom appears to be, may erroneously conclude that there is no authority and discipline, and that the teacher has lost control of the class.

Another difference between Anglo and Latino children is in their orientation to task performance. From the day they are born, Anglo children are taught the importance of thinking of themselves as individuals, with "certain inalienable rights". Anglo children begin to sleep alone in their own cribs, often in their own rooms, as soon as they return from the hospital. Latino children, from Mexico and Central America, particularly if they come from impoverished families, may be used to sleeping in their parents' bed at first, and then on the same bed with brothers and sisters, for simple lack of space. Coming from larger families, they are used to working together in

small groups, and to having decisions made in groups or by the most important authority figure, usually the father, without question. To take advantage of this cultural trait, we have emphasized the importance of group learning activities and group projects in task performance in the Student Workbook of the Story of California. This orientation is made clear in the Teacher's Guide. But the often stronger collective orientation of Latino students means that grading them individually is a more difficult matter, because they are not used to acting in isolation from the family and the peer group, from which they take direction. The teacher should explain to Latino students that in the United States it is okay to ask questions and to encourage them to do so — that is how we learn here. After a while they will get the message.

Finally, particularly in the case of children from Central America, it should be remembered that many come from countries torn by war. There have been internal wars going on for years in El Salvador, Guatemala, and Nicaragua, and many students are fleeing the carnage with their families. Some may have actually seen loved ones shot in cold blood, and most have probably known people to whom this has happened. The images of mutilated bodies by the side of the road, the trauma of being forced to flee war and starvation, when added to the stress of adjusting to a new country and new culture, cannot be forgotten and will haunt these children for the rest of

their lives. These children in many ways are tough, for they are survivors. We should not feel sorry for them, but treat them with simpatía, try to imagine what they are thinking and feeling, and learn from them, as we learn from any human being. They are truly messengers from another country.

I. LANGUAGE, IMMIGRATION, AND ETHNICITY - A SHORT HISTORY

English-language predominance in what is now the United States of America is a recent phenomenon. If human beings have lived in North America for 40,000 years, English has been the dominant language for just over 300 years in Massachusetts and Virginia, the oldest areas of permanent settlement by English speakers. If we think of that 40,000 years as a single year (365 days), then the Pilgrims stepped out onto Plymouth Rock on the day before yesterday!

In California, English language predominance, in the wake of the Mexican-American War and the Gold Rush, is a little over a hundred years old. Even so, the first Constitution of California and the first newspaper were written and published in both English and Spanish. To this day the motto of the city of San Francisco is a somewhat antiquated Oro en paz, fierro en guerra (In peace, gold; in war, iron). The Spanish-Mexican presence is all around us in the place names and the architecture, as well as the people. Today, driven from their homelands by poverty and war, the number of immigrants from Mexico and Central America is on the rise again, and with it the proportion of the population of California which speaks Spanish as a mother tongue.

Native American Languages

Between a million and 3 million native Americans speaking over a thousand different languages lived in what is the United States before the European conquests. Today only 300 of those languages are still spoken, most by a hundred people or less, so that many are at the point of extinction. The most widely spoken Indian language is Navajo, with over 100,000 speakers, and a few other groups are experiencing a rebirth of their ancestral tongues, under the influence of the Native American movement. Source: Cordasco, 1976, p. 23.

The African languages of millions of slaves brought to the United States over the centuries were systematically stamped out. Families were broken up and slaves with a common tongue were separated to lessen the probability of uprisings. Nevertheless, traces of African grammar and phraseology still persist in the languages of Black Americans and a couple of distinct African influenced dialects - including Gullah, spoken on the Sea Islands of South Carolina- have refused to die out. (Dreyfuss, 1978).

However, by historical standards in the United States, the large proportion of the population speaking a non-English language in California is not much different from that in many other states at different times in history. The proportion of foreign-born in the United States as a whole is now well under half of the historic peak of 14.7% recorded in the census of 1910.

Six countries had colonies at one time or another in what is

now the United States: Spain, Great Britain, France, and Holland, Sweden, and Russia; but of the languages spoken by those people, only English, Spanish, and French survive in some form in the areas of original settlement.

For centuries German was the major "second language" in the United States. In many towns and cities of the East, Midwest, and Texas, German colonists or immigrants created communities where German was the everyday language, where private schools (and sometimes public schools) were taught in German. Pennsylvania was a German stronghold before the American Revolution and it is estimated that 1/3 of the population of that state was primarily German-speaking in 1775. In 1863, a state law was passed requiring official notices to be printed in German-language newspapers in eight counties in Pennsylvania, and to this day "Pennsylvania Dutch" is still spoken, though its influence has waned. In Nebraska and the Dakotas a high proportion of the population is of German descent, and hundreds of community schools, both private and public, taught some or all of their classes in the German language. One author estimates that almost 10% of the U.S. population knew German in 1910. (Grosjean, 1982).

One of the most important elements in the perpetuation of the German languages and culture in the United States was the existence of a strong German community, often tied to fundamen-

talist religious sects. This community managed to support an integrated system of education at the elementary and secondary levels which taught primarily in German. Since the German communities usually could count on a number of leaders often partly educated in Germany and with a strong economic base in the United States, they often were able to resist the total elimination of the German language as a living, spoken tongue.

These closely-knit communities were severely tested during the wave of anti-German hysteria which accompanied U.S. entry in World War I. Many states banned the teaching of school--either public or private--in any language other than English. Even to learn German was considered to be anti-American, and the teaching of German in United States high schools practically disappeared (see Table 1).

Table 1

Percentage

Year	Num Sch (in
1951	
1922	
1960	

Source: J. Wesley (Center fo 1964)

A. "Americanization" Programs

American society has a long history of ambivalence in relation to immigration. Employers prized immigrants from poorer societies for their willingness to labor long hours at dirty and hot jobs at low pay, but often native-born Americans resented their presence. In the late 1840's, the Know-Nothing Party (so called because members were sworn to secrecy about the party) was formed in New England and New York. The party's chief plank was opposition to foreigners and Catholics (particularly the Irish) who were flooding into the United States, driven out by the potato famines of the 1830's and 1840's. In this case, language was not an issue since the native tongue of most of the Irish was English. After winning a few elections, including at least one for governor, the party died out before the Civil War.

In the 1870's, the character of immigration to the United States began to change. The total numbers began to rise, and the origin of the immigrants began to change, with more and more immigrants arriving from Southern and Eastern Europe--countries such as Italy and Russia--and even from China and Japan. The majority of these immigrants were non-Protestant--usually Roman Catholic, Eastern Orthodox, or Jewish--but they were avidly recruited by the owners of industry as an "inexhaustible" source of cheap labor and as a means to divide the working class dur-

ing an era in which the trade unions were beginning to flex their muscles. In many cases, the trade unions opposed new immigration on the grounds that the "new" immigrants were unorganizable and would "undercut" wages and labor standards.

Chinese immigration to California began with the Gold Rush. Many became merchants; and then miners, railroad laborers, and farm laborers; but their presence was bitterly opposed, both legally and illegally, by white workers and owners of small businesses. White small business owners and workers were able to prevent the Chinese from working in many occupations, often through vigilante action or by state ordinance. The federal Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882 finally made it extremely difficult for Chinese and their families to enter the United States (McWilliams, 1938).

With the flood of new immigration, the proportion of foreign-born residents slowly rose, until it reached a peak of almost 15% in the first decade of this century (see Table 2). The increasing foreign presence led to demands that the tide be stemmed or restricted to immigrants of Anglo-Saxon or Nordic background.

The "new" immigration beginning in the late 19th century coincided with the height of imperialism, as the rest of Africa and Asia were divided up between the Great Powers of Europe,

the United States, and Japan. The United States got into the act with the conquest of the Philippines, Cuba, and Puerto Rico, the seizure of the Panama Canal Zone from Colombia, and the maintenance of de facto protectorates over a number of Caribbean and Central American countries. This expansion abroad, following upon the closing of the western frontier, was justified as a part of the "White Man's Burden" and duty to rule the entire world as a natural consequence of a supposed racial superiority.

It is not surprising that the "Americanization" programs of the first decades of this century took the attitude that the native culture of most "hyphenated-Americans" was a problem to be eliminated along with their native languages, hopefully in a generation. After passing through the "melting pot," immigrants and their descendents were supposed to emerge indistinguishable from white citizens of Anglo-Saxon origin.

World War I, with its fear about the possibly divided loyalty of the strong German-American community, crystallized anti-foreign sentiments. Under the Immigration Act of 1924, all Asian immigrants were effectively excluded (except for Filipinos, whose country was a U.S. colony). The total number of European immigrants from each country could not exceed 1/6 of 1% of the estimated number of people of that national origin residing in the United States in 1920. Total immigration

was supposed to be limited to 150,000 per year under normal procedures. The immediate effect was to cut new immigrants from 702,896 in 1924 to 294,394 in 1925 (for more detailed information, see Table 2).

Table 2

Immigration and Foreign-Born Population in the United States: 1850 - 1981

Year	Total Documented Annual Immigration (in thousands)	Percent of New Immigrants from Northwestern Europe and Germany	Percent from Mexico	Percent from Asia	Percent Foreign Born in Total Population
1850	315	83.0%	0.2%	0.0%	10.0%
1870	387	82.3%	0.1%	4.1%	14.4%
1890	445	62.9%	-	1.0%	14.6%
1907	1,285	17.6%	1.1%	3.1%	-
1910	1,041	19.4%	1.8%	2.2%	14.7%
1920	430	20.2%	12.2%	4.1%	13.1%
1930	242	40.2%	5.2%	1.9%	11.6%
1940	71	53.0%	3.3%	2.9%	-
1950	249	65.7%	2.7%	1.8%	6.9%
1960	265	30.0%	12.3%	8.1%	5.4%
1970	373	9.5%	12.0%	24.2%	4.7%
1981[a]	597	11.2%[b]	17.0%	44.3%	6.2%[c]

Source: Historical Statistics of the United States, Colonial Times to 1970 (U.S. Dept. of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1975).

Notes to Table 2:
a. For 1981, the source is 1981 Statistical Yearbook, U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service.
b. Figure for 1981 is for all of Europe.
c. This figure is for the year 1980 from the U.S. Census.

B. "Americanization" and the Schools

The public school has always been the most important public agent for educating and assimilating immigrant children, just as the workplace has been the prime social agent for assimilating adult immigrants into the "American Way of Life." Between 1882 and 1921, 20.0 million of the 23.6 million immigrants to the United States were from countries in Southern and Eastern Europe, and many established authorities regarded them as a potential threat to the established way of doing things. The attitude of Ellwood P. Cubberly, the educational historian, in relation to the immigrants is a typical turn-of-the-century opinion:

> Everywhere these people (immigrants) tend to settle in groups or settlements and to set up their own national manners, customs, and observances. Our task is to break up [Cubberly's italics] their groups and settlements, to assimilate or amalgamate these people as a part of the American race, and to implant in their children, so far as can be done, the Anglo-Saxon conception of righteousness, law, order, and popular government, and to awaken in them reverence for our democratic institutions and for those things which we as people hold to be of abiding worth (Cubberly, 1909).

The problems faced by New York City in dealing with immigrants were not different in nature from those in other cities, though the total involved was larger. By 1890, tens of thousands of children simply were not attending school. The Compulsory Education Act of 1895, requiring that most chil-

dren between eight and 16 attend school, made the problem worse, because they lacked appropriate clothing and shoes, or had to work in order to contribute to family budgets.

The high schools were also faced with the problems of building a relevant curriculum for students who found little use for the academic programs then in vogue.

The failure of the schools was exemplified by the extremely high number of overage students consistently held back as "retarded" because they were not learning to read and write. As a result, children as old as 14 were found in every grade from the first through the eighth. The U.S. Immigration Commission's Report The Children of Immigrants in Schools (1911) found that 36.4% of the pupils in the New York City public schools were thus "retarded" because of slow learning skills, and though a higher degree of "retardation" was found among children where a language other than English was used in the home, students from some ethnic groups were found to perform better than native-born white Americans. The Immigration Commission concluded that the generally higher "retardation" rate of foreign-born and foreign stock children could be caused by environmental factors which could be expected to be resolved in a generation, and were not attributable to heredity (Cordasco, 1976).

The response of the public schools in New York City to the

peculiar problems created by the schooling of many foreign-language students was minimal. Students were derided and punished by teachers for using their native tongues in school and were shamed or physically intimidated into leaving their languages and customs behind when they crossed the schoolhouse threshold. Lacking a consistent city-wide policy for the problems of immigrant children, individual district superintendents, principals, and teachers were left to deal with the students as best they could (Cordasco, 1976).

Some of the most interesting experimental work on the problems of immigrant children was done in Manhattan south of 14th Street, around the turn of the century, where Julia Richman was the district superintendent of schools. This was an area with large contingents of southern Italian (Greenwich Village) and Jewish (Lower East Side) immigrants. She concluded that there were a variety of reasons for the high proportion of foreign-born students who were held back, including:

1. inability to understand English, the language of instruction,
2. need to work for wages,
3. poor classification and grading methods for non-English speaking students,
4. frequent expulsion of students from the schools for misconduct,
5. lax enforcement of truancy laws,

6. excessive use of part-time substitute teachers, particularly in afternoon classes, and
7. overlooking of individual needs of the children (Cordasco, 1976).

In Richman's district, the problem of immigrant "retardation" was attacked by setting up classes where instruction was individualized and where the curriculum consisted of only the most basic instruction. In these classes, the immigrant children were placed in first or second grade no matter what their age, and were transferred to appropriate school grades in the regular public schools as they made their transitions to English. Special classes in English were created for the following groups in New York City public schools:

a. classes for non-English-speaking foreign students,
b. classes for those students approaching 14 (the minimum age at which it was possible legally to obtain a work certificate) who were still in elementary school,
c. special classes for those who expected to graduate from the eighth grade, but who needed special attention to be able to reach the seventh grade (Cordasco, 1976).

These changes were part of a continuing political effort to

improve the public schools, an effort which was initiated and supported by the Public School Association of New York, founded in 1894. Another innovation was the founding of "trade schools" in the manual arts, for children who expected to work at blue collar jobs. But for the most part, the schools dealt inflexibly, in New York City and elsewhere, with the special problems created by immigrants. With the exception of cities (such as Milwaukee and Cincinnati) where the German language community was relatively wealthy, well-entrenched, and powerful, and comparable small towns, the public schools did relatively little to adapt themselves to the needs of immigrants; and in few cases was there experimentation with the use of languages other than English.

In general, the public schools followed the attitudes of the broader society in regard to immigration. The immigrant "problem" was held to be a problem that would be resolved in a generation, without consulting the wishes and desires of the parents and the immigrant groups themselves.

Proponents of "Americanization," despite occasional disclaimers of respect for the cultures and values of the "new" Americans, regarded foreign cultures and languages as a threat to social stability and even potentially subversive. (Thompson, 1920). Often "a blame the victim strategy" (see Table 3) be-

came the standard operating procedure for educating non-English speaking children.

Table 3

Blaming the Victim in Minority Language Education

A. Overt Aim	Covert Aim	D. Outcomes	
Teach English to minority children in order to create a harmonious society with equal opportunity for all.	Anglicize minority children because linguistic and cultural diversity are seen as a threat to social cohesion.	Even more intense efforts by the schools to eradicate the deficiencies inherent in minority children.	The failure of these efforts only serves to reinforce the myth of minority group deficiencies.
B. Method	Justification	C. Results	"Scientific" Explanation
Prohibit use of L1 in schools and make children reject their own culture and language in order to identify with majority English group.	1. L1 should be eradicated because it will interfere with the learning of English. 2. Identification with L1 culture will reduce child's ability to identify with English-speaking culture.	1. Shame in L1 language and culture. 2. Replacement of L1 by L2. 3. School failure among many children.	1. Bilingualism causes confusion in thinking, emotional insecurity, and school failures. 2. Minority group children are "culturally deprived" since they are not Anglos). 3. Some minority language groups are genetically inferior (common theory in the U.S. in the 1920s and 1930s).

* This table reflects the assumptions of North American school systems in the first half of this century. However, similar assumptions have been made about minority language children in the school systems of many other countries

(Cummins, 1981).

C. Bilingual Education and the New Immigration in California

"In class one of my biggest problems was the language. Of course, we bitterly resented not being able to speak Spanish, but they insisted that we had to learn English. They said that if we were American, then we should speak English and that if we wanted to speak Spanish, we should go back to Mexico.

"If we spoke Spanish, the teacher swooped down on us. I remember the ruler whistling through the air as the edge came down sharply across my knuckles. It really hurt.

"Even out on the playground, speaking Spanish brought punishment. The principal had a special paddle that looked like a two-by-four with a handle on it. The wood was smooth from a lot of use. He would grab us, even the girls, put our heads between our legs, and whop us with it."

Cesar Chavez, discussing his early schooling in rural California, from J. Levy's Cesar Chavez (W. W. Norton, New York, 1975), as quoted in Francois Grojean: Life with Two Languages (Harvard University Press, Cambridge Mass., 1982).

Experiences like those of Cesar Chavez, the farmworker leader, were extremely common, particularly for former LEP citizens of at least 30 years of age today. In the United States, there has always been a substantial minority of people who speak Spanish as a native tongue. It was estimated, in 1976, that of the 27.9 million people in the United States who are part of a non-English-speaking household or who grew up in one, almost 11 million are Spanish speakers. According to one estimate, Spanish speakers residing in the United States rose from 2 to 11 million between 1940 and 1976. The total number may be up to 15 or 20 million today if immigrants with-

out i gal residence documents are included in this total. The main concentrations of Spanish speakers are in the Southwest (where Hispanics and Mexicans predominate); in southern Florida (with a Cuban majority); and in New York City where Puerto Rican and other Caribbean nationalities are dominant, among Spanish speakers.

In California, the main factors leading to the beginning of Mexican immigration after 1920 were the revolutions and poverty in Mexico and the use of Mexicans for hot, dirty and unskilled labor in the fields and factories of the entire Southwest. Until fairly recently, the 3,000 mile frontier between Mexico and the United States was almost totally open, and people from either country could move with relative freedom across the border. The Great Depression of the 1930s led to widespread demands to deport Mexicans back to Mexico to release jobs for native-born white Americans. The outbreak of World War II, with its gigantic demand for labor, once again pulled hundreds of thousands of Mexicans back across the border to work in agriculture. These Mexicans, when combined with the Hispanics who had lived in the Southwest for at least 200 years following the first Spanish conquests, have begun to constitute a very substantial proportion of the students. This is particularly true in the public schools in the large cities as well as in the countryside, and Los Angeles is now the second largest "Mexican" city in the world, after Mexico City.

Other Southwestern States

The State of New Mexico has always been something of an exception in regard to the persistence of Spanish and Mexican culture. Most schools in the state, because of the majority Hispanic composition of the population, were conducted in Spanish, and as late as 1912, the year New Mexico became a state, an appropriation was approved to create a Normal School for Spanish-speaking elementary school teachers, for employment in counties where the overwhelming majority of the people spoke little or no English. But until recent years, little has been written about the specific successes and problems of educating children in Spanish in the United States (For an older reference, see Cordasco, 1975, pp. 13-16. L.S. Tireman, in Teaching Spanish-Speaking Children, (U. of New Mexico Press, Albuquerque, 1951 [revised edition]); In the late 1940s, L.S. Tireman presented a detailed program for teaching Hispanics in all levels of the public schools, based on his New Mexican experience. He believed that the most efficient way for Spanish-speaking children to read English was to teach them in English from the beginning, though he acknowledged it was possible to make a good case for teaching in Spanish in the first years of school.

Other scattered attempts to teach Spanish-speaking children in their native tongue were begun in Tuscon, Arizona, and in San Antonio, Texas, in the 1920s and 1930s, but with few exceptions neither the State nor Federal governments did much to support that work and to devise teaching methods which might be appropriate to native Spanish-speaking children (See Cordasco, 1976).

But almost all commentators agree that schools of the U.S. Southwest, including California, have largely failed to provide adequate education tailored to the needs of Spanish-speaking students. Mexican-Americans, for example, are much more likely to drop out of school than white Americans. According to Census data (cited in A Better Chance, p. 17),

while the median school years completed for Mexican-Americans in 1970 was only 8.1, compared with 8.6 for Puerto-Ricans, 9.6 for Native Americans, 12.0 for whites, and 12.4 for Asian-Americans. Throughout the school learning process, dropout rates for Mexican-Americans are higher than for most other groups. Test scores and reading and other skills tell a similar story. The purpose of the new bilingual education programs as they developed in the 1960s was to try to break through this cycle of educational mediocrity through the use of bilingual education programs. Non-English speaking children would be taught first in their own language and both as a bridge to competence in the English language, and to preserve and develop skills in the native tongue (Carter and Segura, 1979).

The wars and upheavals in Central America since the late 1970s and the continuing economic recession in Mexico (coupled with social policies in Mexico which tend to keep most Mexicans poor) have incited an increase of migration from Spanish America into California. Hispanics have supplanted Blacks as the largest racial/ethnic minority group in California, and their number continues to grow, along with the importance of bilingual education tailored to their needs.

There has been an even greater <u>percentage</u> increase in Asian Limited English Proficient (LEP) pupils, as the data in Table 4

show. In the five years from 1979 to 1984, the total proportion of LEP Children in the California schools increased 73% (compared to a 16% increase in total students) and by the latter date over a tenth of all public school students had only a limited command of English.

Table 4

California: State Summaries of Limited-English Proficiency Enrollments: 1979 and 1984, by Language *

Language	Spring 1979 No.	Percent of Total LEP	Spring 1984 No.	Percent of Total LEP	Percent Increase 1979-84
Spanish	235,073	81.5%	355,650	72.9%	51.3%
Vietnamese	7,426	2.6%	29,535	6.0%	297.7%
Cantonese Chinese	7,219	2.5%	18,139	3.7%	151.3%
Korean	6,054	2.1%	8,993	1.8%	48.5%
Pilipino/ Tagalog	5,979	2.1%	10,941	2.2%	83.0%
Portuguese	2,246	0.8%	2,483	0.5%	10.5%
Mandarin Chinese	2,244	0.8%	6,342	1.3%	183.6%
Japanese	2,199	0.8%	3,355	0.7%	52.6%
Cambodian	---		8,399	1.7%	---
Lao	---		8,748	1.8%	---
Ilocano	808	0.2%	---		
Samoan	1,260	0.2%			
Native American	399	0.2%	---		
All Others	17,520	6.0%	35,250	7.2%	101.2%
Total LEP Students:	288,427		487,835		69.1%
Total LEP (1984)			475,203		
Total Non-English Mother Tongue (1984)			963,038		
Grand Total of All Students Enrolled:	3,974,377[a]		4,628,978[b]		

* Source: California State Department of Education.

[a]Enrolled in October, 1978; [b]Enrolled in October, 1983.

The statistics show that there are a tremendous number of children in the school system from homes where English is not the first language spoken. In California public schools, these children from non-English-speaking households comprise over 20% of the school enrollment. As we have seen, many of these students are failing to learn. Bilingual education is one of the techniques which promises to break through the linguistic and cultural barriers that make the teaching of non-English speaking students so difficult. The next section of this manual will discuss the different theories of bilingual education and the research upon which they are based. Section three will then outline the legal and practical imperatives for bilingual education in the U.S. and in California. The final chapter will suggest specific strategies for teaching with the Story of California.

II. PRINCIPLES OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION

A. Why Does Bilingual Education Work?

To many people it is just "common sense" that the best way to ensure that pupils learn to speak English is to teach them only in English, and let them "sink or swim." There is even a tendency, expressed more or less frankly, similar to the suspicions expressed at the time of World War I against the teaching of German, that there is something unpatriotic about teaching in any language other than English. Thus, for example, the following example from Harper's, in an article entitled "Against Bilingual Education: Why Johnny Can't Speak English," (Feb., 1979):

> "Bilingual education is an idea that appeals to teachers of Spanish and other tongues, but also to those who never did think that another idea, the United States of America, was a particularly good one to begin with, and that the sooner it is restored to its component "ethnic" parts the better off we shall all be. Such people have been welcomed with open arms into the upper reaches of federal government in recent years, giving rise to the suspicion of a death wish."

Another misperception is that in fact bilingual programs have no interest in teaching their pupils English at all. According to Congressman John Ashbrook:

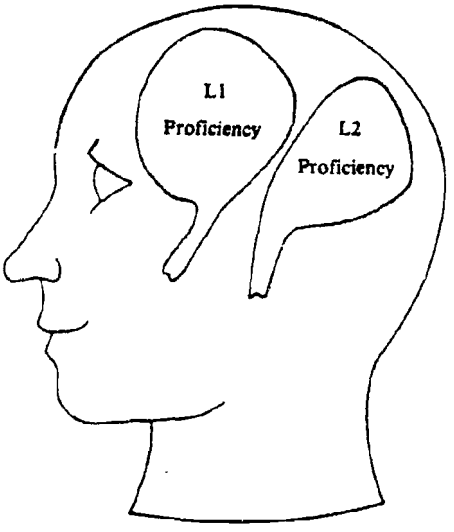
> "The program is actually preventing children from learning English. Someday somebody is going to have to teach those

> young people to speak English or else they are going to become public charges. Our educational system is finding it increasingly difficult today to teach English-speaking children to read their own language. When children come out of the Spanish-language schools or Choctaw-language schools which call themselves bilingual, how is our educational system going to make them literate in what will still be a completely alien tongue? (Cummins, 1981)."

A tremendous amount of research has been carried out in the area of applied linguistics and bilingual education, and a number of points are becoming clear. In this section we will summarize the findings of recent research, which underlie the bilingual education policies in the State of California. Much of this research is now being used to make it easier and possible for language minority students to learn English faster and better.

It used to be thought that the human mind was divided into compartments, that skills such as reading learned in one language were not transferrable to other areas. In theoretical terms this has been called the "Separate Underlying Proficiency" (SUP) Model of Language Learning. According to this argument, if children were deficient in English, they should be taught English in English, and any attempts to teach them in the primary language (L_1) that they learned at home was a waste of time. This theory can best be summarized by Figure 1 — "The Separate Underlying Proficiency (SUP) Model of Bilingual Proficiency."

Figure 1 - THE SEPARATE UNDERLYING PROFICIENCY (SUP) MODEL OF BILINGUAL PROFICIENCY



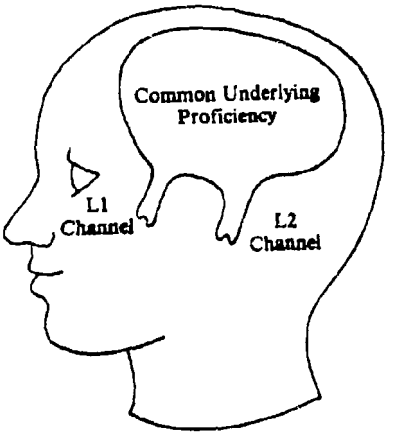
Source: Cummins, 1981, p. 23.

An accompanying presumption of the SUP theory of learning was that skills learned in the primary language (L_1) could not be transferred to English, the second language learned (L_2), or as Cummins puts it:

"In terms of the balloon metaphor illustrated in Figure 1, blowing into the L_1 balloon will succeed in inflating L_1 (Spanish) but no L_2 (English) (Ibid., p. 23)." The 2-balloon theory most closely expresses the common sense belief that, "If they're gonna learn English, you gotta teach 'em in English."

The opposing theory, illustrated in Figure 2 is the "Common Underlying Proficiency" CUP theory of language learning. According to this theory, the proficiency of a bilingual person is "common or interdependent across languages." The CUP model of learning argues that learning to speak and read in either language can help to attain competency in both languages, "so long as there is adequate motivation and exposure to both languages both at school or in the wider environment (Ibid., p. 25)."

Figure 2- THE COMMON UNDERLYING PROFICIENCY MODEL (CUP) OF BILINGUAL PROFICIENCY



Source: Cummins, 1981, p. 24.

A number of studies carried out in the United States and abroad prove that there is "not one shred of evidence" to support the "Separate Underlying Proficiency" (SUP) model of language learning. Professor James Cummins, the most prominent theorist of the "Common Underlying Proficiency" (CUP) model, cites a number of studies which show that the most efficient way to teach students to learn effectively in a second language (such as English) is to teach them first in their own language, as follows: (all evidence is from Cummins, 1981, pp. 25-29).

(For more recent evidence on the success of bilingual approaches, see "Implementing Theoretically Sound Programs: Do They Really Work?" by Fred Tempes, Laurie Burnham, Marilyn Pina, Jim Campos, Sandy Matthews, Eunice Lear, Charles Herbert, presented at the California Association for Bilingual Education, 9th Annual Conference, Jan. 12, 1984, San Francisco.)

Rock Point Navajo Study -- Before the bilingual Navajo/English program at Rock Point, Navajo students were 2 years behind national reading levels by the 6th grade. Navajo was employed as the main instructional language until the mid-2nd grade, once reading ability in Navajo was well established. By the end of the 6th grade, students were slightly above overall U. S. reading norms.

Santa Fe Bilingual Program -- In schools involved in this program, Spanish was used 30 to 50 percent of the time. Children studied were able to catch up with U. S. reading norms by the

6th grade, and their math scores surpassed the national averages. In all scores these students surpassed their peers in Santa Fe of Hispanic background who were educated in an English-only program.

Legarreta Study -- In a 1979 California study, Legarreta directly compared English-only teaching with three kinds of bilingual education of Spanish-background children in kindergarten. All three bilingual treatments were found to be superior to the two English only classes in terms of the development of English language skills. She found that the most effective method was to teach in Spanish half the time and in English the other half.

Nestor School Bilingual Program Evaluation -- In the Nestor program in San Diego, with both English-background and Spanish-background pupils, a team-teaching approach was used in which each group was taught in its native language, to start with, and the proportion of L_2 (either English or Spanish) was increased to 50% of total class time for each group until the 4th grade. According to the evaluation, "Spanish-background students gained an additional 0.36 of a year's growth in English reading for each successive year they spent in the bilingual program, performing slightly better than similar students who had been educated in the English language alone. It was found that English-language students performed better than their peers, but the researchers believe that the effect may have

been caused by selection bias -- that perhaps a bright, well-motivated group of primary English speakers began the program.

Colorado Bilingual Programs Evaluation -- In most of 39 programs studied in Colorado, "LEP students more than attained levels expected of the students as a whole, including their use of the English language."

Sodertalje Program for Finnish Immigrant Children in Sweden -- Finnish children in Swedish-only programs in Sweden were found to underscore 90% of Finns in Finland on Finnish language proficiency, and similarly to underscore 90% of Swedes in Sweden on Swedish language proficiency. The Sodertalje program employed Finnish as the beginning language of teaching throughout elementary school, and only began to introduce Swedish in the 3rd grade. By the 6th grade, students had almost caught up with national norms in both Finland and Sweden in each language respectively. Social class was controlled for in the research.

Manitoba-Francophone Study -- A large study carried out with minority Francophone (French-speaking) students in Manitoba, a predominantly English-speaking province in Canada, showed that the amount of French used in the curriculum of 3rd, 6th and 9th grade students made no difference to the

children's performance in English. On the other hand, these children from French-speaking households performed much better in French where the amount of French in class was greater.

The overall conclusion, once again, is that minority children's primary home language can be used as a teaching medium in school at no cost, and frequently as a spur to the development of the majority language. In addition, these programs have been superior to English-as-A-Second Language (ESL) programs in the development of English skills (Tempes, et. al., 1984).

Why is this so?
Experts in applied linguistics, such as James Cummins, have identified two kinds of language skills:

Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS) -- The basic ease in communication developed by all normal native speakers of a language. This skill, learned as a child, is "cognitively undemanding contextualed" language. That is, there are not high demands for involved abstract thinking and much of the success in understanding the language depends on the immediate face-to-face environment and non-verbal cues, such as body language, the immediate surroundings, and facial expressions.

Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) -- This theoretical construct refers to language proficiency "strongly related

to literacy and academic achievement." According to James Cummins, who invented the term, CALP is the opposite type of ability from BICS proficiency and is "cognitively demanding decontextualized" language proficiency, which must be developed in order for a child to learn how to read with understanding. "Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) is most effectively developed, according to Cummins and other theorists, in the primary language (L_1), through the teaching of reading, for example, but once it is developed in the primary language, it is easy to transfer this proficiency to another language.

The implications for teaching in general and for the teaching of English to "Limited English Proficiency" (LEP) pupils are obvious. Pupils should be taught reading, writing and academic subjects such as arithmetic and social studies in their native tongue, while they are being taught English simultaneously in the classroom, and by constant exposure to the media, the street signs, their English-language friends and by the whole experience of living in the United States. Even if the student is later transferred to academic programs which are taught partially in English, as is likely to happen in most bilingual education programs, the ability to read and think in abstract terms will "catch" in the second language and the student will benefit a great deal more than if an attempt had been made to force initial instruction in the primary language.

With a sound basis in applied linguistics research and classroom practice, the bilingual education in the State of California is based on the following five principles: (from manuscript of Serving Limited English Proficient Students, a Bilingual Instructional Management Handbook, Bilingual Consortium, San Jose Unified School District, to be published Jan. 1985).

1) Linguistic Threshold -- for bilingual students the degree to which proficiencies in both L_1 (Spanish, in this case) and L_2 (English) are developed is positively associated with academic achievement.

2) Language proficiency is the ability to use both "Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS) and Cognitive/ Academic Language Proficiency (CALP).

3) "Common Underlying Proficiency" -- for language minority students the development of the primary language skills necessary to complete academic tasks (CALP) forms the basis for similar proficiency in English. There is a direct transfer of cognitive skills learned in L_1 (the primary language) to L_2 (English).

4) Acquisition of basic communicative competency in English (L_2) depends on the use of understandable input in English and a friendly supportive school environment.

5) Student status -- achievement is based on how the language minority student is treated in the schools.

The 5 principles of bilingual education have a number of very practical implications for the schools:

a. LEP students should be provided with a great deal of instruction in Spanish or other primary language.

b. Initial reading training and other difficult subjects should be taught in Spanish or other L_1.

c. Sufficient texts and supplementary material in Spanish (or other L_1) should be made available.

d. Sufficient teachers with high levels of Spanish (or other L_1) proficiency should be available for instruction.

e. Teachers should avoid mixing English and Spanish during instruction. (Research has shown that it is better, for example, to avoid concurrent (simultaneous translation) for a number of reasons:

- it is boring to the students and tiring to the teachers
- it allows students to become lazy; to simply wait until the simultaneous translation occurs, instead of being obligated to learn the unfamiliar language. A better method is to teach in one language in the morning and in another language in the afternoon. Where concurrent teaching is used, the class, usually following the

teacher's cue, tends to slip back into English. One study showed that in classes using the concurrent approach, English was utilized 72% of the time, compared to 52% in classes taught by the alternate approach. By using an audio tape recorder during classes and monitoring the recording afterwards with a stopwatch, it is possible to make a detailed study of language use in any classroom.

f. Teachers accept regional and non-standard uses of Spanish (or other L_1).

g. There is a need for positive interactions between minority and majority students and between teachers and minority students, so that there is a friendly learning environment and students feel at ease in the school. Research has shown, for example, that even within classrooms, language minority students are less likely to be called on, and when they are addressed by the teacher within a classroom, it is more likely to be an interaction in which the teacher is giving directions or criticizing the pupil (Legarreta-Marcaida, "Effective Use of the Primary Language in the Classroom", in A Theoretical Framework, 1981).

h. There is a need for cooperative learning strategies in which groups of students work on problems together.

i. Majority students should be taught the minority language, both for its own sake and to give prestige to the language so that the minority children will not feel ashamed of it.

j. As many people as possible in the school:(administrators, teachers, students) should be encouraged to use Spanish as much as possible in non-institutional settings (source: Dorothy Legarreta-Marcaida, 1981).

A few examples of classroom behavior noticed by one observer illustrate the kind of problems endemic in a classroom taught by a monolingual teacher which would presumably be avoided by sensitive bilingual instructors, and would not create a sentiment of rejection on the part of the minority-language pupil.

"In this class, each child is expected to participate in sharing." Maria Elena is chosen; she goes up next to the seated teacher, holding a small calendar in her hand.

Teacher: What is it you have?

Maria Elena: Boy. A girl. (The calendar has a picture of a boy and a girl on the front.)

Teacher: No. What is it, class?

Class: A calendar!

Teacher: Yes, a calendar. Sit down Maria Elena

* * *

Luis, a monolingual Spanish-speaking child comes in and joins the circle. He is dressed as he would for church; plaid suit, white shirt, bow tie, and new shoes. He is carrying a permission slip written in English for a field trip.

Teacher: Oh, oh, your mother thinks it's today that we're going on the trip. And you didn't bring any lunch (The group was going to buy lunch on the trip). And you brought the lunch money already, too. I'll have to call her if I get time. Don't lose the money - the trip isn't until Wednesday (Luis has to keep his new clothes clean all day at school, go without lunch, and not lose his money, plus explain what happened -- if he understands -- to his mother).

* * *

* * *

Teresa is wiggling in circle time and raising her hand: "Permiso, permiso."

Teacher: Where's Karen?

Children: She has to pee (i. e., Teresa has to).

Teacher: Oh, did Karen use the bathroom? Go down and wait for her, Teresa (The teacher misunderstands, thinking the children are referring to her question about Karen).

Teresa wets herself. She is sent to the office with an aide and her mother is called by a Spanish-speaking secretary.

Teacher: Well was that what you were trying to tell me?

* * *

Languages and Foreign Relations

Thomas Jefferson (1818)..."French is the language of general intercourse among nations...Spanish is highly interesting to us, as the language spoken by so great a portion of the inhabitants of our continents."

As quoted in Otto I. Kiedke, "A Historical Review of the Controversy Between the Ancient and the Modern Languages in American Higher Education," from newmark, Twentieth Century Modern Language Teaching.

* * *

"Interestingly, the reports on American education have all spoken to this nation's lack of foreign language skills. We have been called "Tongue-Tied American" by Congressman Paul Simon; our lack of foreign language skills is impeding this nation's ability to market our products abroad; we are currently importing more than we are exporting. In the face of this obvious need, bilingual education programs whose goal it is to develop fully bilingual American citizens, continue to be maligned and looked upon with suspicion.

However, in late February, the U. S. House of Representatives passed a $450 million Foreign Language Bill to promote foreign language education. The National Association of Bilingual Educators (NABE) and the California Association of Bilingual Educators (CABE) joined with the Joint National Committee on Languages (JNCL) to support passage of this bill..."

Dr. Aurora Martinez Quevedo, Dir. of Bil. Education, San Jose Unified School District, Human Relations Commission, Santa Clara County, April 24, 1984.

B. The Classroom and Affective Education

Underlying all the specific techniques of bilingual education is the overall attitude in the classroom. The teacher, the didactic materials, the exercises and games should all combine as much as possible to create an aura of equal, respectful, and positive attention to all students of all cultures. The whole notion of "cultural democracy" is that "a person has a legal and moral right to remain identified with his own ethnic group, values, language, home and community as he learns and accepts mainstream values."

For teachers themselves, involvement in bilingual education -- even where it has created conflict within the schools between supporters and those who would just rather see the whole issue blow away - has had the effect of forcing teachers and administrators to confront their own values and prejudices, and to understand more profoundly their own backgrounds and cultural biases, rather than taking the mainstream Anglo-Saxon values for granted. The attempt to teach children of different languages and cultures with an attitude of empathetic understanding, rather than with a sink-or-swim philosophy has no doubt enriched the lives of many teachers who might have become bored with conventional approaches. And if nothing else, a certain number of teachers who otherwise might not have done so, have learned Spanish or some other language besides English!

C. Bilingual Instructional Approaches

Alternate Language Approach (Back-to-Back) -- The primary objective of a "back-to-back" bilingual program is the development of two languages. Each lesson is carried out in a single language.

The student may experience ½ day in English (L_2) and ½ day in Spanish (or another primary language L_1), with classes in English-as-A-Second Language (ESL) for students with a minority mother tongue. There is no mixing of languages in a given class with this approach. This type of approach is very effective when it is correctly planned, and results in faster learning of all subjects than other methods. However it also requires teachers fluent in Spanish or some other primary language.

Immersion -- In this model a language other than English (L_2) is used for instruction in academic areas with concentrated English-as-A-Second Language. This approach has been widely used in Canada by English-speaking children of comfortable circumstances who choose (with their parents' consent) to be taught in French. It has proved to be very effective in teaching academic subjects, English, and French. The positive results of immersion programs have often been used by opponents of bilingualism in the United States as an argument

for the status quo, for teaching all courses in English and ignoring the primary languages of Limited English Proficiency (LEP) students. But the parallel between "immersion" programs and what some would call "submersion" programs does not hold up on close inspection. For one thing, "immersion" programs are voluntary, and they are usually taught in a minority language to children of families secure in their majority identity. It has been found, in the Canadian "immersion" programs, that the French language, a "minority" language in the Canadian context, can be learned with no threat to the ethnic identity of the children. Stephen D. Krashen has provided a chart of the differences between "immersion" and what he calls "submersion" programs (in "Bilingual Education and Second Language Acquisition Theory," in Schooling and Language Minority Students, A Theoretical Perspective, op. cit.).

Table 5 - Comparison of Submersion and Immersion Programs

Submersion	(Majority child) Immersion
Children are mixed with native speakers of L_2.	Children are linguistically segregated.
Language of instruction is the majority language.	Language of instruction is a minority language.
Instruction in L_1 language arts is not provided	Instruction in L_1 language arts is provided.
Obligatory	Voluntary

Preview-Review -- Students are taught in two languages in any specific lesson or subject area. A preview is presented in

one language followed by a lesson in the second language. Finally, a review may be done either in both languages or only in the language of the preview. Usually two instructors, one in Spanish (or other primary language) and the other in English are used.

Concurrent -- Both languages are used simultaneously in the instruction of any specific lesson. All material presented in one language is also presented in the other. Usually one teacher gives the lesson in one language and then translates. This is very tiring for the teacher, and too "easy" for the pupils, who are not forced to fight to understand the language they don't know, but tend to wait for the translation. It is often used with an English monolingual teacher and a bilingual Spanish-speaking aide, who does the translation. With the "concurrent" system English has a tendency to dominate the class, since there are no clear boundaries as to its use, as there are with the "alternate" (back-to-back) approach.

Skills-Mastery -- Students are grouped for instruction by their dominant language. Concepts are presented in the primary language of the students. Vocabulary development of these same concepts will occur during the use of either language. When students have mastered the concept, that same concept will be presented in English-as-a-Second-Language format so that students have several experiences with the concept in the second language.

Eclectic - As its name implies, this method is a potpourri of all the different methods reviewed so far.

D. Setting Up Instructional Programs for Bilingual Classrooms

In setting up a teaching program or giving a course in a bilingual classroom, it is important to know what kind of program in bilingual education exists in the district and the school.

Some reference to the statewide legal distinctions would be useful. A number of places to check for information might be:

1. school principal
2. district policy manuals
3. district proficiency guide
4. school handbook
5. home language survey for the school
6. lists of "non-English proficiency" (NEP, "Low English Proficiency," "Fluent English Proficiency" students for your class
7. academic scores on reading, math, language, ESL, for the making up of class study groups
8. you might want to set up sample schedules, including all components of a bilingual instruction program
9. work with grade level teacher colleagues to team up for instruction.

Myths of Bilingual Education -- (All "Myths" quoted from Testimony from Human Relations Commission, Santa Clara County, April 26, 1984).

1. "Bilingualism promotes "cultural apartheid.

Bilingual education called 'un-American'

San Jose Mercury News, April 25, 1984, Page 8B

SAN DIEGO (AP) — A report issued Tuesday by the San Diego County Grand Jury recommended the elimination of bilingual education in both area schools, saying the practice is "impractical, expensive and, in a sense, un-American."

Hispanic leaders called the grand jury's findings "racist" and "bigoted."

The report, which was issued following a grand jury investigation into San Diego County schools, said, "Bilingual education promotes a type of cultural apartheid in that it encourages a dual society."

Specifically, it rejects the "melting pot" concept, which has been the basis of our country's success over the past 200 years."

In a bilingual program, students are taught a variety of subjects in their native language. It differs from English as a Second Language programs, in which the emphasis is on teaching English.

According to state law, if there is a certain percentage of students who speak one language, the schools have to provide bilingual instruction for those students. If the school district does not provide the bilingual education, it loses state funds.

In San Diego County, about 278,600 people, or 14.8 percent of the population, is of Spanish origin, said Herman Baca, president of the Committee on Chicano Rights.

The report recommends that the county seek an amendment to the U.S. Constitution declaring English as the official language of the United States.

"I recognize some of the names on that grand jury. They are all extremely conservative, right-wing, reactionary," said Jess Haro, president of the Chicano Federation, a Hispanic civil rights group.

"I try to treat them with some degree of respect. But it's bigoted and racist and not indicative of a grand jury that's open, objective and fair."

The grand jury also recommended that the superintendent of schools seek legislation eliminating the requirements for bilingual education, and that the county registrar of voters change laws that require multi-lingual ballots.

"Public funds are expended to promote and encourage ethnic institutions, which in turn delays the assimilation of young students into the American mainstream," the report said.

HUMAN RELATIONS COMMISSION
April 26, 1984

Susan Sartor
Bilingual Resource Teacher
San Jose Unified School District

"I would like to take this opportunity to try to dispel two common misconceptions held by the public regarding Bilingual Education. Both of these are seen in an article printed yesterday, April 25, in the San Jose Mercury News. If you would bear with me, I will quote a portion directly from this article which is entitled, "Bilingual Education Called Un-American." (Please see attached copy of article for quoted sections.)

"Let's look at the first issue of cultural apartheid. Based upon my experience as a bilingual teacher for San Jose Unified School District the past seven years, I believe schools that have strong bilingual programs promote and encourage participation and interaction among the various ethnic groups, rather than separating them. For example, students are grouped heterogenously with English-proficient students during most of the school day. They are not separated in their own small world within the school or classroom. Secondly, the

limited-English students are given the opportunity to develop skills in reading, math and language at a similar rate as their English-proficient peers by working in their native language. Thus, they are given the confidence and ability to interact and participate in group activities.

"Finally, multicultural activities in bilingual classrooms help to dispel ethnic stereotypes. Bilingual teachers promote understanding between ethnic groups by providing multicultural activities that the limited-English students share with their English-proficient counterparts and vice versa. This is to the advantage of all the students since they are able to experience cultural groups, customs and activities up close; not solely from a social studies text or film.

2. "Bilingual programs have different goals than English-as-a Second-Language.

"As to the second misconception, that bilingual programs differ from English-as-a-Second-Language programs, I would like to emphasize the fact that the primary goal of Bilingual Education is to teach children to read, write and speak in English. Bilingual programs must provide articulated English-as-a-Second-Language instruction as an integral part of the Limited-English Proficient student's curriculum, in addition to the activities in their native language. These students receive instruction in ESL on a daily basis. This continues until they can participate in English-only reading, writing and language lessons. At my particular school this is usually in the second or third grade for students who have been in bilingual programs since kindergarten. Many schools provide additional ESL instruction in a lab setting with trained aides for students who are having difficulty developing their English skills.

"Heterogenous grouping in the bilingual classroom also provides the limited-English student the opportunity to hear his/her peers speak in English during the school day. They interact with the English-proficient students in the classroom and playground, as well as at home in the neighborhood.

"To illustrate what I have said, for those who have not actually visited a bilingual classroom, I would like to describe what might be a typical day for a limited-English student, in the second grade, for an imaginary student I have named Miguel.

Sartor Testimony, cont'd...

"Miguel's day would probably begin with the whole class doing opening activities in English, such as the calendar, monitors and flag salute. He would then begin his reading lesson by working with his bilingual teacher in his native language. This would also be true for his language and math lesson. When he is not working with the teacher, he might be placed in a heterogenous group for listening skills, library time, or computer lab. His ESL lesson would be presented on a daily basis and might include other students of different ethnic backgrounds who are also limited-English proficient.

"His lessons in science, social studies, art and music might also be presented in English, with the bilingual teacher previewing and reviewing the lesson in the child's native language for better understanding. Miguel would have recess, lunch, and P. E. with the entire class.

"As you can see, Miguel is not separated from the rest of the class in a cultural apartheid system, and he is receiving ESL lessons and practice on a daily basis.

"In conclusion, I hope I have helped dispel at least two of the more common misconceptions regarding Bilingual Education. I feel it is the most effective tool we have as educators to help limited and non-English-proficient students become literate, active members of our society."

"Bilingual education that is merely compensatory, merely transitional, is not more than a desperate attempt to fight fire with fire. If a non-English mother-tongue is conceptualized as a disease of the poor, then in true vaccine fashion this disease is to be attacked by the disease bacillus itself. A little bit of deadened mother tongue, introduced in slow stages in the classroom environment, will embrace all-American vim, vigor, and vitality.

"Bilingual education is patronizing if it assumes that non-'ethnics' do not need to know a second language. In Canada, economically comfortable English speaking parents are voluntarily sending their eager youngsters to primarily but not entirely French schools. 'Immersion schools' for societally favored youngsters also exist in France, Germany, Latin America, the USSR and other countries. Our own opinion is that 'enrichment' or

'immersion' bilingual education is the best way of demonstrating the academic and societal advantages of bilingual education."

Professor Joshua A. Fishman, 1976, "Bilingual Education and the Future of Language Teaching and Language Learning in the United States," in Francesco Cordasco, (ed.) Bilingual Schooling in the United States (McGraw-Hill, New York, 1976).

3. "Bilingual education retards the development of English as a Second Language-Testimony by Dr. Allan Seid,(Human Rel.Com. 1984)

"Accordingly, the "sink or swim program" in which the language minority student is simply mixed in with native English speakers is felt to be superior. The facts state to the contrary. In fact,copious research shows that learning is effectively delayed until English is acquired, by which time the student has fallen far behind, if he hasn't already quit school altogether. Studies by educational researcher, James Cummins, indicate that it takes from six to seven years for immigrant students who arrive here after age six to approach their school grade level in English academic skills. Yet, the same students pick up verbal daily living skills appropriate to their age level within two years. Cummins also found that literacy skills such as reading, writing and vocabulary usage are interdependent across languages. That is, a student who knows how to read, spell, punctuate, write a paragraph, and do a long division problem in Spanish or Asian languages can readily transfer these skills to English. Taken together, these findings indicate that a good bilingual education program ought to teach subject matter in the language he understands best over a period of six years, so that the student doesn't fall behind academically. At the same time daily instruction in English should be offered perhaps 20% of each day in the first grade, increasing up to 80% by the sixth grade. Ideally, the student is not transferred to an all English program until he or she tests at grade level in his own language and can compete adequately on academic tests in English."

4. "Bilingualism handicaps intellectual development

"This theory suggests that the brain has room for only one language. If that limited space is divided between two languages, intellectual confusion will result. Studies conducted in the United States, Sweden and Canada demonstrate that on standard academic tests, language minority

students in bilingual programs actually perform as well or better in the second language than native speakers do. In effect, literacy skills in one language appear to enhance academic proficiency in a second language. What is more, studies by Cummins, Wallace Lambert, and other researchers show that bilingual children have more mental flexibility, seem to be better able to understand the full range of meanings of words and can use that knowledge to advantage in figuring out math concepts as well as in solving word problems. It is important to note that these findings apply to bilingual children who acquire a second language without sacrificing the first. They are not children who because of "sink or swim" programs or inadequate language training have nothing more than limited proficiency in two languages. Such semi-lingual children, in fact, have been found to score lower on I. Q. tests and on academic tests than mono-lingual children do.

5. "Use of the minority language at home slows down a child's progress at school

"Many a misinformed teacher or administrator has urged language minority parents to speak only English at home in order to help their children advance faster in school work. Besides weakening a child's ties to his family and his culture, this tactic usually backfires educationally. Since research suggests that the child's grasp of English relates to how well he or she uses this native language, it makes sense for parents to use the native language at home. In this way, parents can help their children develop larger vocabulary and expose them to reading and writing opportunities, skills that may then be transferred to English.

6. "Generations of immigrants made it without bilingual education

"This argument is a distortion of history. Waves of European immigrants who arrived here in the early part of this century did not make it on the basis of education. The most common road to success was through the pooling of family resources to buy a small plot of land or a store. Studies indicate that first and second generation immigrants were usually unable to take advantage of the educational system and the opportunities that it offered for skilled jobs and professional occupations. Unfortunately, the myth rather than the fact has been accepted by politicians and the public alike. "Here again," notes Dennis Parker, a consultant to the California Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education, "we have politics or economics or patriotism, rather than educational research dictating our policy. It's education by political vote which has nothing to do necessarily with what actually works or doesn't work with students.

Seid Testimony, cont'd...

"And at what cost? How often do we hear the phrase "I wish my mother (or grandfather) had taught me to speak (fill in any foreign language); not realizing the powers of direct and social coercion and shame their forebears had to suffer for speaking a foreign language or for speaking English with an accent.

"In conclusion, I want to draw attention to studies that have been highlighted particularly by economist Hank Cohen of Los Angeles of the Security Banking Institution, in which in his book entitled 2010 he points out that by the year 2010, the nations of the Pacific basin which encompasses the nations of Asia, Australia, New Zealand, and coming around to the other side of the coast of the Pacific, the South American countries, Mexico, California and the western parts of Canada. That these countries which rim the Pacific basin will be at its peak in terms of economic development and trade. In his book, he points out that if the United States is to continue to be pre-eminent in the economic sphere as well as in the military and political arena, it must develop a citizenry that will be multilingual and among the languages that will indeed be of utmost importance will be the languages of the Hispanic, the Spanish language and the Asian-Pacific languages. In the economic sphere again, economists and business people know the direction that the United States must take. It is important that the general public and particularly educators not be taken advantage of by the political rhetoric which appeals to patriotism, meaning that patriotism only means speaking English. Patriotism in the true sense means one who loves America, one who advocates for the welfare of the United States. And indeed, for us already approaching the year 2000, for the welfare of our country in terms of our security as a nation, our continual pre-eminence in the economic, political and international sphere, it behooves us to have visionary politicians who will advocate for a multilingual citizenry. And it is those who would argue for a mono-lingualism and a continuance on Euro-centric focus, they are the ones who are taking America back to the cavemen and women days, so to speak.

"So in conclusion, I want to thank the Commission for allowing this opportunity for me as President of the Asian-Pacific American Advocates of California, to share with you our organization's, our coalition's stand on bilingual education. We do feel that a multi-lingual citizenry is what we need here in the United States of America. Thank you."

Human Relations Commission
Public Hearing on Bilingual
Education, Santa Clara County
Testimony of Dr. Allan Seid,
April 26, 1984

III. THE NEW BILINGUALISM: HISTORICAL AND LEGAL BACKGROUND

In decisions made in the 1920s, the U.S. Supreme Court dismissed World War I prohibitions on the teaching of foreign languages in a number of contexts:

1. rejected a Nebraska statute prohibiting all pre-eighth grade language instruction in private schools (Meyer vs. Nebraska 262 U.S. 390 [1923]). The Nebraska statute which was invalidated was found to violate the "equal protection" clause in the Constitution.
2. rejected a Hawaiian territorial law which had restricted, among other items, foreign language instruction to only one hour per day, six days per week.

The modern rebirth of bilingual schooling in the United States is generally thought to have occurred to meet the educational needs of the thousand of Cuban families settling in Dade County (Miami), Florida. Most of these families were from educated middle-class and professional backgrounds and were seeking to escape the new restrictions placed on them in Castro's Cuba.

To meet the challenge of educating these children, a bilingual program in grades 1-3 was set up, where half of the instruction was in Spanish by Cuban-born teachers, and half in English, by American teachers. The Cuban and American teachers formed a

cooperative team and conferred frequently to decide on what teaching methods and directions they intended to take the class. In all Dade County schools, Spanish was offered as a subject in grades one through twelve. In the Coral Way School where the program started, the influx of new refugees from Cuba progressively "Cubanized" the student body and reduced the number of "Anglo" students. According to Dr. Mabel Richardson, evaluator of the program:

> "It must be noted that as well as performing as well as the control group in the regular curriculum, the English-speaking pupils were learning a second language and the Spanish-speaking pupils were learning to read and write their native language." (Cordasco, 1976).

Other pioneer programs were started in the early sixties in Nye, Texas, and in San Antonio, Texas.

These programs from the early and mid-1960s became models for subsequent federal policy in the area.

A. Federal Programs: The Bilingual Education Acts of 1968 and 1974

The chief Federal legislation in the area of bilingual education are the Bilingual Education Acts of 1968 and 1974, responding to the felt need of Hispanic-Americans and other language minorities for a means to make the schools more responsive and more efficient in educating people whose native tongue was not English. (Cordasco, 1976).

The Bilingual Education Acts of 1968 and 1974 (also called Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Act of 1965, as amended) provided extra funds for school districts with "large numbers of children of limited English-speaking ability." Under the Federal laws, the beneficiaries of the program had to be from low income families. Programs which could be funded included:

1. training programs for teachers and educators,
2. early childhood education,
3. adult education,
4. programs for early school leavers,
5. vocational training programs,
6. courses in the history and culture of the language minority group being served (U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, 1975).

In the first four years of the program, over $100 million was expended under the 1968 Title VII programs, according to the report of the United States Commission on Civil Rights. The greatest criticisms of the Title VII (also called the Bilingual Education Act of 1968) were that:

1. it providedno mechanism for assessing the success or failure of the programs. (See Cordasco, 1976.)
2. it made the supplemental funding contingent upon low income, which robbed programs of their potential prestige with the majority of parents, making them

into what became in effect remedial programs. As Professor Joshua A. Fishman, perhaps the foremost American expert on bilingualism, put it:

> Populations that would present well-nigh insuperable problems to our schools...even if they were monolingual English speakers, will not cease being such... because they are offered a year or two of introductory education in the non-English mother tongues." (Joshua A. Fishman, "Bilingual Education and the Future of Language Teaching and Language in the United States," in Cordasco, 1976.

The Bilingual Education Act of 1974 was written to meet those criticisms and lifted the income restrictions on eligibility. And for the first time the Federal government explicitly defined bilingual education as "the study of English and of the native language to the extent necessary to allow a child to progress effectively through the educational system." Instruction was supposed to encourage "appreciation for the cultural heritage of such pupils and was to be in the native tongue, where necessary, in all courses except for art, music and physical education. There was also provision made for research on the most effective methods for teaching "limited English proficiency" (LEP) children, and for the development of bilingual instructional materials. In 1974, the first year of the Act, Congress appropriated $85 million to carry out the programs specified in the Act.

B. Bilingualism and the Courts

On May 25, 1970, the Department of Health, Education and Welfare (now the Department of Health and Human Services) issued a memorandum which required that school districts with more than 5% language minority students be required to equalize educational opportunity for those children. But in the next four years only 4% of such school districts had been surveyed for compliance with that memorandum. In any case, the memorandum never made explicit what was meant by an acceptable program. (U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, pp. 178-179.) The basis for most bilingual educational programs around the nation, however, had to wait until 1974 and the Lau vs. Nichols decision, which was based on that memorandum.

Lau vs. Nichols was the result of a suit by a group of Chinese parents against the San Francisco Unified School District. The suit charged that denying instruction in their native tongue to the 2,856 non-English-speaking students of Chinese ancestry was in violation of the 14th Amendment--the "equal protection" amendment--which stipulates that "no State shall. . .deprive any person of life, liberty, or property without due process of law."

But in its decision the Court ignored the 14th Amendment and

based its decision on Section 601 of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which bans "discrimination based on the grounds of race, color, or national origin" in "any program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance." Under regulations promulgated under that Act in 1968, it was found that the San Francisco Unified School District, though no "purposeful design" to discriminate was present, had nevertheless denied a meaningful opportunity to participate in the educational program" by refusing to make available programs which allowed a "reasonable opportunity to participate."

> It seems obvious that the Chinese-speaking minority receives fewer benefits than the English-speaking majority from the respondents' school system which denies them a meaningful opportunity to participate in the educational program--all earmarks of the discrimination banned by the regulations."

The court also refused to specify any remedy, holding that this could be handled by a bilingual education program or by a special English language program directed at the Chinese language students under question.

By basing its decision on Section 601 of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 rather than the 14th Amendment of the Constitution, the Supreme Court in effect weakened what some had conceived to be a "right" to a bilingual education where the pupil had a limited proficiency in English.

In response to the Lau decision, the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare (HEW) established a task force which set up guidelines by which school districts receiving federal aid could meet the requirement of the Lau decision. While allowing for the use of different educational methods, the Lau Remedies (as they came to be called) enunciated a number of principles which have become the closest things to mandatory Federal guidelines, though they were never acquired official status by publication in the Federal Register. The Lau Remedies clearly called for:

1. transitional bilingual educational programs,
2. bilingual bicultural programs,
3. multilingual, multicultural programs.

Under the HEW Task Force's Lau Remedies, any district with 20 or more language minority students speaking the same language had to have a plan to deal with those students, but there was also a presumption that the purpose of the special instruction was to facilitate transition to English. The Lau Remedies also insisted that it was not sufficient to simply set up English-as-a-Second-Language (ESL) programs in the elementary schools; students had to be taught, at least for a while, in their primary language. The Lau Task Force Remedies regarding student language identification, assessment, achievement, placement and parent communication, eventually became the basis for the California program which acquired the force of

state law in 1980 with the passage of AB 507, (Eugène J. Brière, 1979) especially Part One, "Legal Aspects of Bilingual Education," and the Appendix, which contains the text "Task Force Findings Specifying Remedies Available for Eliminating Past Educational Practices Ruled Unlawful under Lau vs. Nichols, U. S. Dept. of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of the Secretary, 1975, pp. 191-201.)

C. Bilingual Education in California

In 1974, the California State Department of Education defined bilingual education as "a process that uses the student's native language to teach him the basic skills and concepts appropriate to his developmental age, while increasing his ability to function in English." (from "Bilingual Education Act of 1972 - Evaluation Report, 1973-74," California State Department of Education, 1974, p. 21). A report published four years after the Bilingual Education Act of 1972, however, still found the State of California far from meeting the need for bilingual education, as the following facts indicate:

1. only 5% of the 22,500 limited and non-English speaking students between kindergarten and the 12th grade in the California public school system were enrolled in identifiable bilingual educational programs,
2. only 11% of limited English proficiency kindergarten

students were enrolled in bilingual educational programs.

Between 1970 and 1980, the proportion of racial and national original minority students in the California public schools rose from 20% to 31% (Blacks, and others, of course, speak English as a primary language), and a substantial number of them began to be enrolled in the bilingual programs of one kind or another into the public schools. Between 1979 and 1983, for example, the number of "Limited English Proficiency" (LEP) students in the California State census rose from 288,427 to 457,542. Almost 3/4 of that group were of Hispanic origin, a fifth of Asian-Pacific background, and the rest miscellaneous, mostly European. Throughout California, the kindergarten population is expected to be less than 50% Anglo by 1985.

To deal with this influx of LEP students in the schools and to fulfill the requirements of the federal law and the Lau Remedies, the California State Legislature passed the Bilingual Education Act of 1974 (AB 1329) and later the Bilingual Education Improvement and Reform Act of 1980--AB 507. The provisions of AB 507 provide the basis of most bilingual education programs in the California public schools.

D. AB 507 - The Bilingual Education and Reform Act of 1980

AB 507 requires that the following steps be taken with all pupils:

1. initial identification of the primary language of all students new to the district (to be completed within 30 calendar days of enrollment),
2. diagnostic assessment determination of the English language proficiency of those pupils who have a primary language other than English (to be completed within 90 calendar days of enrollment),
3. provide an 507 "appropriate" bilingual program for each LEP pupil in the schools. Under AB 507, there are a number of allowable program options with which to serve LEP pupils (who, if possible are expected to be taught in classes in which the LEP pupils are between 1/3 and 2/3 of the class (for a program flow chart, see Figure 3, pp. 66 - 68).
   a) basic bilingual education (K-6) - for "sustaining achievement" until transfer to English is complete instruction in the primary language of LEP group,
   b) bilingual bicultural education (K-6) LEP: development of both English and

the primary language;

*FEP: instruction of students in the primary language of LEPs.

c1a) innovative bilingual program (K-6) - must meet the requirements of either a "basic bilingual" or a "bilingual bicultural" program in an innovative fashion, using team teaching techniques,

c1b) planned variation programs (K-6) - for schools with a shortage of licensed bilingual bicultural teachers - a great deal of individual tutoring,

d) secondary level language learning program (7-12) LEP: to promote English language proficiency and academic achievement through use of the student's primary language in nonelective courses and to teach FEPs the language of the LEP students,

e) secondary level individual learning program - (7-12) provides individualized instruction in the primary language designed to sustain "normal academic achievement" and promotion of the English language. Not normally offered to FEP pupils.

Any school with ten or more LEP pupils of the same primary

* "Fluent English Proficiency" students

language background in the same grade is required to establish an LEP class meeting one of the six "program options" spelled out above. (For more information, see Legal Requirement for the Implementation of State Bilingual Programs [as contained in the California Education Code and the California Administrative Code, Title 5, Education]) and Figure 3, flow chart, pp. 66 - 68).

Other requirements of AB 507 programs include:

1. carrying of a diagnostic assessment of each LEP pupil and determination of the language of basic skills instruction by conducting a parallel assessment in the primary language of the student,
2. assessment, once a year, of the academic achievement of each LEP student in English and/or the primary language,
3. reporting the number of LEP students and other related information in the annual language consus,
4. establishment of a "bilingual advisory committee" when there are at least 51 LEP pupils in a district and a "Bilingual School Advisory Committee" where there are at least 20 LEPs in a school.

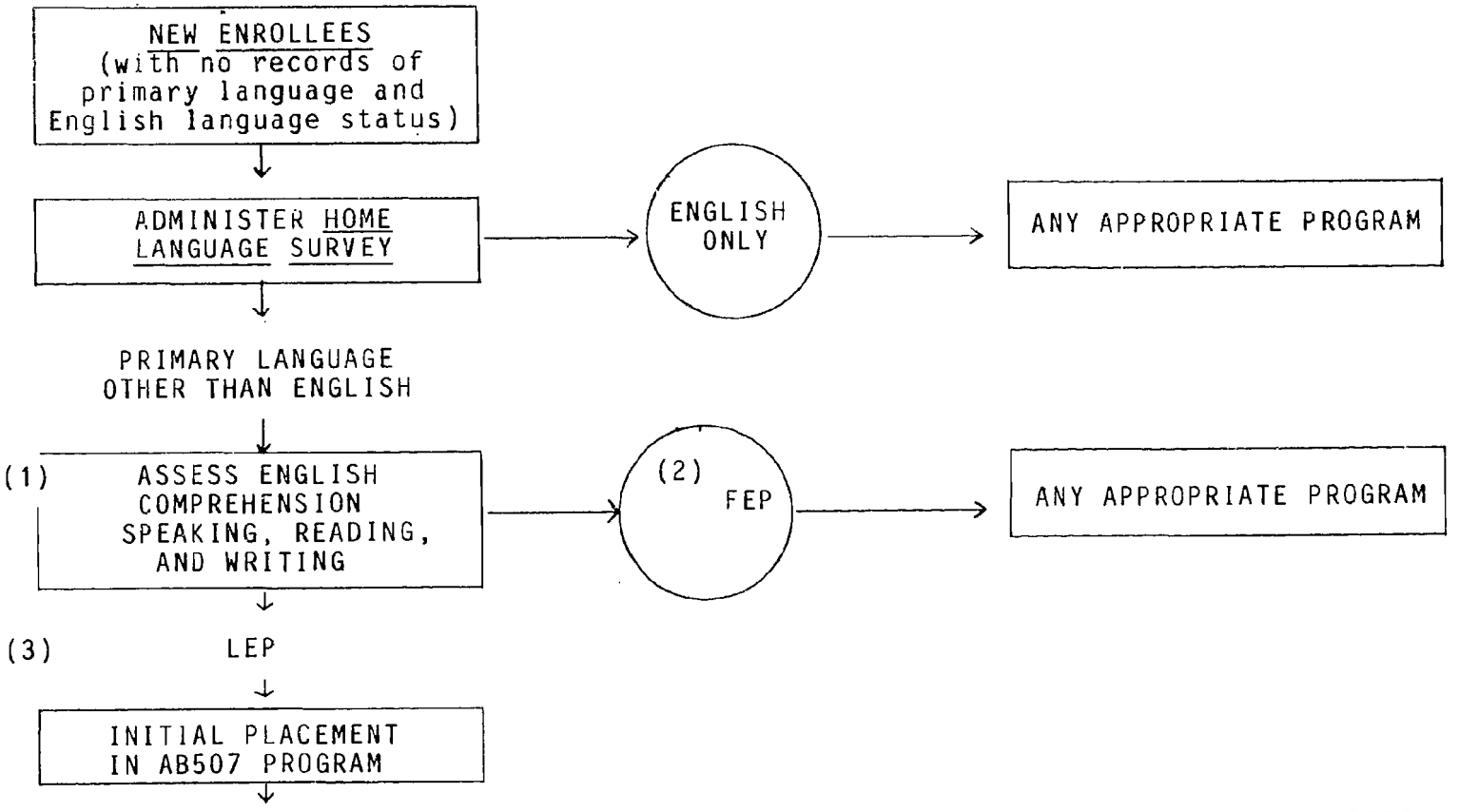
5. adoption of criteria and procedures to reclassify LEPs,
6. the staffing of bilingual classrooms with appropriately credentialed bilingual teachers and aides,
7. the development of training programs for bilingual teachers, aides, and parents.

(Guidelines, 1984.)

Figure 3

FLOW CHART OF AB 507 REQUIREMENTS

Initial Identification
(Complete within 30 school days of enrollment)

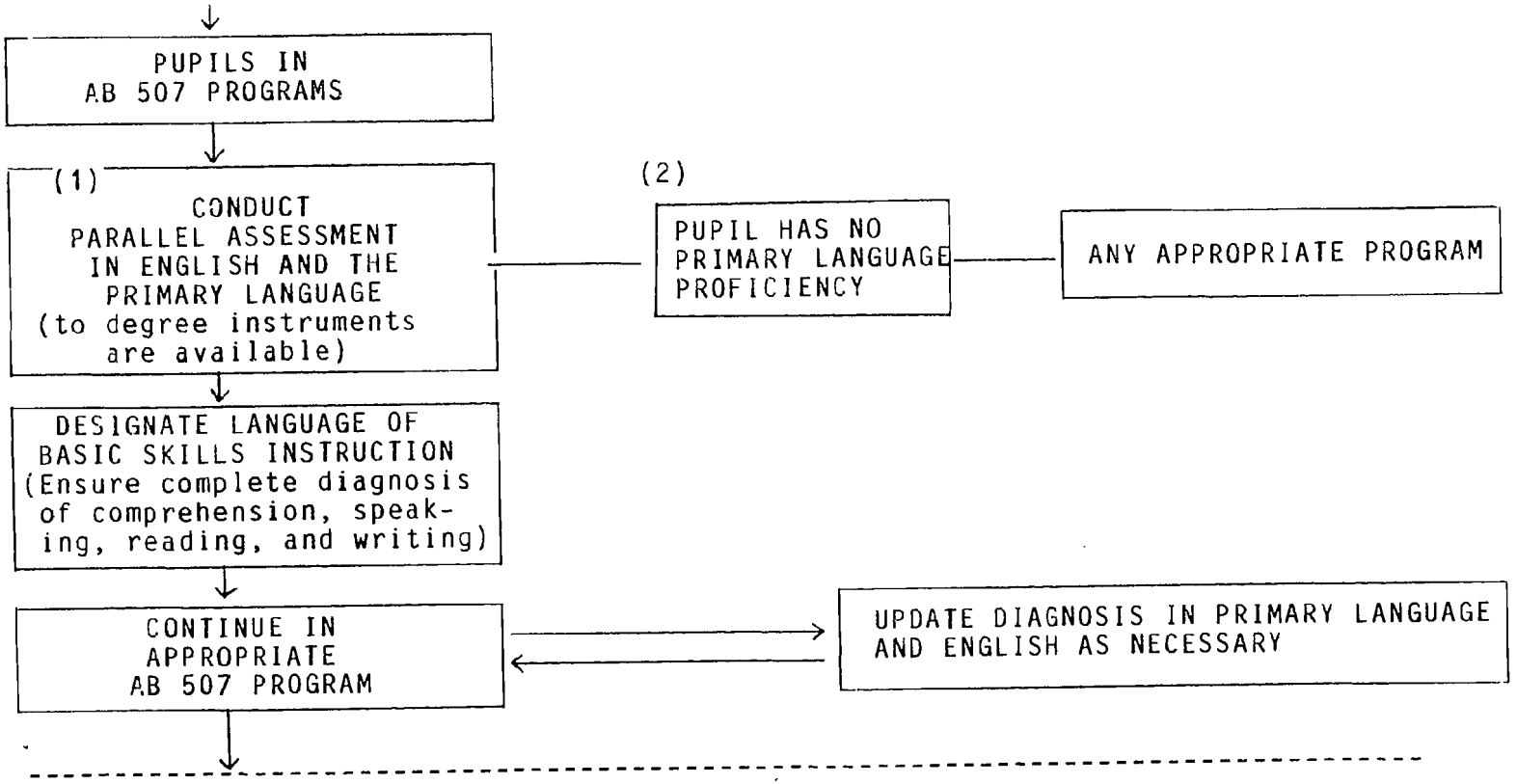


(1) Oral English proficiency must be assessed using a state-designated instrument. For purposes of initial identification, English reading and writing assessments are optional for all pupils in kindergarten through grade two, and for pupils in grades three through twelve who are LEP on the basis or oral skills alone. The reading and writing skills of other pupils must be assessed. Each district shall establish a process by which reading and writing assessments are to be made, including specification of criteria, instruments, procedures, and standards appropriate to each grade level, to be used for identification of pupils as LEP.

(2) Pupils in kindergarten through grade two scoring fluent on an oral proficiency test in English are designated FEP unless the optional reading and writing assessments are given, and they score below district-established standards. Pupils in grades three through twelve scoring fluent on an oral proficieny test in English are classified as FEP if they score at or above the district-established standards in both reading and writing.

Figure 3 (cont'd)

DIAGNOSTIC ASSESSMENT
(Complete within 90 days of enrollment)



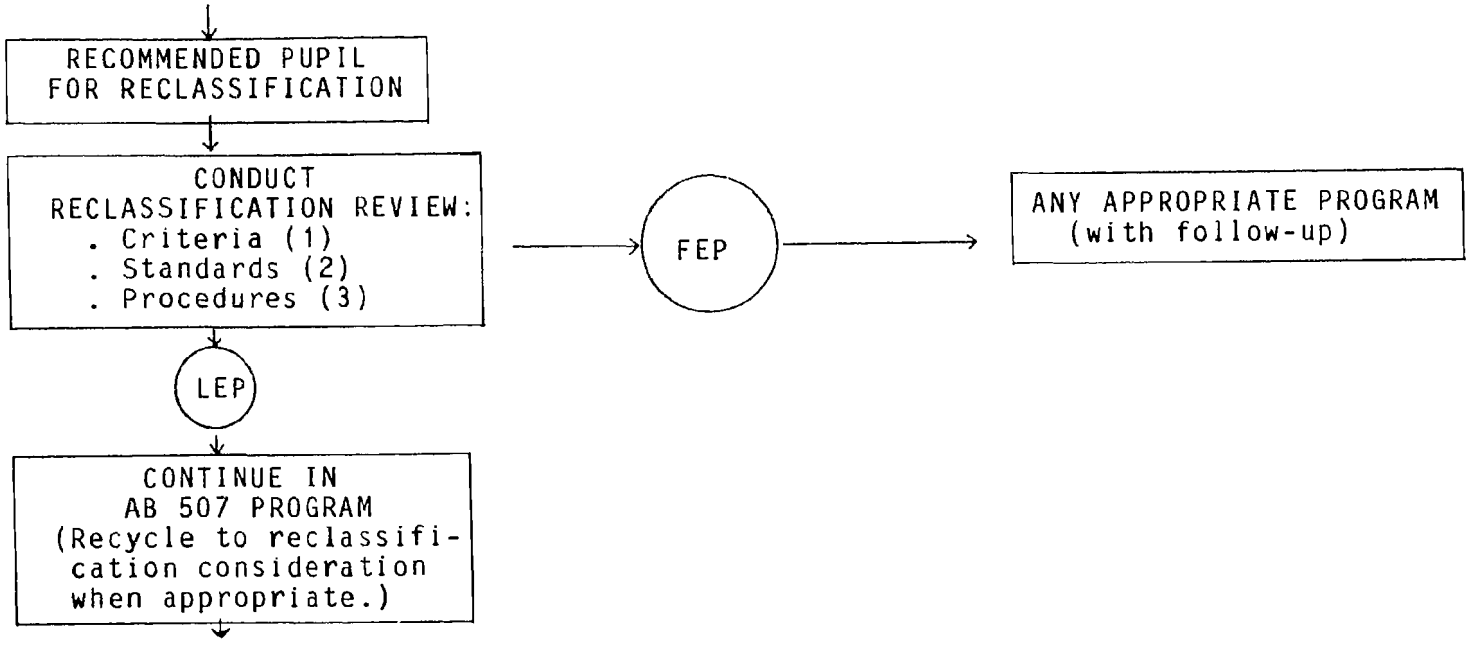
(1) The results of the English assessments conducted for purposes of initial identification may be used here. In the absence of formal instruments for assessing proficiency in languages other than English, an informal assessment of the pupil's language proficiency must be made.

(2) A pupil who scores at the lowest level of a designated oral language proficiency assessment instrument based on his or her primary language skills shall be further assessed by means of consultation with the pupil's parents or guardians, the classroom teacher, the pupil, or other who are familiar with the pupil's language ability in various environments. If this assessment shows no primary proficiency, and the parent concurs in writing, the pupil need not be cosidered LEP. (EC § 52164.1 and CAC § 4305).

(3) Pupils in kindergarten through grade two scoring not fluent on an oral proficiency test in English are classsified as LEP. Pupils in grades three through twelve scoring not fluent, and those scoring fluent who also score below district-established standards for reading and/or writing, are classified as LEP.

Figure 3 (cont'd) LANGUAGE RECLASSIFICATION

(Complete at any time evidence is presented that pupil may be able to pass district's reclassification criteria)



(1) District-specified criteria must include: teacher evaluation of English language proficiency, including mastery of English language curriculum; assessment of English oral proficiency; parental opinion and consultation; English writing skills; and objective assessment of reading, language arts, and mathematics.

(2) District must establish standards for determining when the pupil is no longer LEP. Base standards on an empirically established range of performance in basic skills of nonminority English proficient pupils of the same grade and age.

(3) District-specified procedures must include: a responsible administrative mechanism such as a language assessment team; provision for assessment, documentation, and recordkeeping; provision for pupil follow-up; provision for notification of parents in advance of reclassification review, and of results; and reasonable efforts to ensure parent participation in the process.

(4) See page for how to report the number of pupils reclassified on the Annual Language Census.

The passage of AB 507 led to a mushrooming of the effort throughout California in bilingual education, though of course there were and continue to be many critics of the programs. In many districts school administrators and teachers have implemented the programs with reluctance, a reluctance compounded of lack of knowledge about the positive effect a bilingual program can have on the students' learning of the English language, to what can only be called simple prejudice against foreigners or the use of any language other than English. (See above, pp. Myths of Bilingual Education.) Yet, despite the opposition, the number of children in California schools receiving some form of bilingual education has risen from around 10,000 in 1973 to 457,000 ten years later. Over 6,500 teachers have acquired credentials in bilingual education statewide, 4,400 are studying for a credential. Even so, the present demand in Califoria for bilingual teachers is estimated to reach 24,000 in the next five years, by 1991, according to the State Department of Education.

IV. IN-SERVICE TRAINING FOR TEACHERS ON HOW TO USE "THE STORY OF CALIFORNIA"

The goal of this section is to acquaint classroom teachers with the theory and practice of bilingual education and how to use "The Story of California." We devote a great deal of time to the general issues of bilingual education, because there has been a great deal of misunderstanding about its means and goals. There are five Workshops in this section:

Workshop 1 - Cultural Pluralism and Bilingual Education

Workshop 2 - How Bilingual Education Works: The Theory

Workshop 3 - Classroom Strategies in Bilingual Education

Workshop 4 - Legal Basis for Bilingual Education

Workshop 5 - How to Use "The Story of California"

Workshop 5 is the only one that is totally indispensable, and with care, workshops 1-4 can be collapsed into a single workshop when the participating teachers are bilingual teachers themselves with a good background and experience in the field.

A. Workshop 1 - Cultural Pluralism and Bilingual Education

Purpose: To use interactive and participatory techniques to review the historical causes for cultural pluralism and ethnic diversity and show the need for bilingual education -- which is really "as American as apple pie."

Fact: In 1984, 20.8% of California public school students came from homes where a language other than English is spoken.
Issue: How do we teach these students?

1. Icebreaker (whip). Go around room, especially if it is a predominantly Anglo group, and ask them their ethnic background --write them on the board and then ask if any of the group grew up in a house with a non-English mother tongue? Did they still speak that mother tongue? Would they still like to speak that tongue? What about their parents? Their grandparents? Talk about specific experiences involved in language extinction. What role did the schools, the workplace play in these attempts to wipe out the mother tongue?

2. Read quote from Cesar Chavez (p. 22). Does this statement reflect some of trainees' personal or family experiences? At this point we are trying to elicit reactions such as:

"Gee, I wish I could still speak Polish,(Russian, Spanish,) like my grandma, but in school the teacher told them to speak English with me as much as possible, etc. etc ; Or I was forbidden to speak Spanish (Polish, whatever) at school or on the job.

3. Language retention or hostility to specific languages or peoples is closely related to the historical situation: Explain the following figures:

Fact: Percentage of high school students studying various languages, by year:

	French	Spanish	German
1915:	8.5%	2.7%	24.4%
1922:	15.5%	11.3%	0.6%

Does anyone remember the movie East of Eden with James Dean, in which the property of an old German man is trashed by super-patriots during World War I? The movie was based on the Steinbeck novel of the same name.

4. Place of German language in American life: very strong. We are talking about German to illustrate that often foreign languages are spoken by peoples very close to the dominant American values.

Fact: In 1910, 10% of the United States population spoke German in the home or had grown up speaking German. One-third of Pennsylvania population was German-spekaing in 1775, the

year the revolution started. Many communities had German-language schools.

5. Discuss the following statement: "The role of immigrants has always been great in United States life."
Fact: According to the United States Census, 6.2% of the population was foreign-born in 1980 (see Table on page). Discussion questions related to role of immigration:

a) Has this percentage been rising or falling, compared to 1970? 1950? (See Table on page).

b) for what year do you think the percentage of foreign-born was highest? (Discuss this.) (Answer: 1910): 1910 - 14.7%. Between 1850 and 1930 inclusive, the proportion of foreign-born into the population was never lower than 10.0%!

6. But, for the most part, there was no attempt at the turn of the century modify schools to accommodate foreign-language kids. Reasons given for "retardation" of students in lower Manhatten in 1910 by Julia Richman, Dist. Superintendent of that school district, with lots of Italian and Jewish children:

a) inability to understand English,

b) need to work for wages,

c) poor classification and grading methods for non-English speaking students,

d) frequent expulsion of students from schools for misconduct,

e) lax enforcement of truancy laws,

f) excessive use of part-time substitute teachers, particularly in afternoon classes,

g) overlooking of individual needs of the children.

Question: Does this sound familiar today?

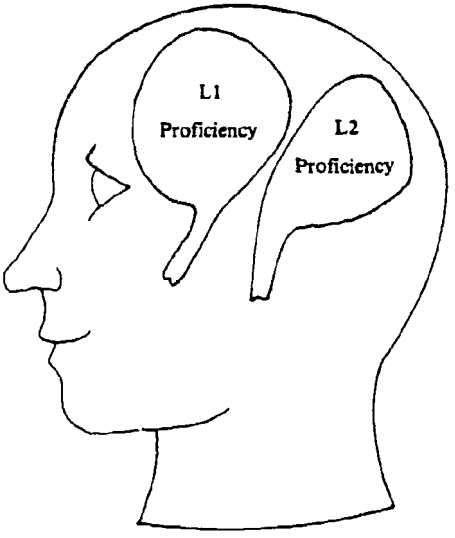
B. Workshop 2 How Bilingual Education Works: The Theory

Purpose: To introduce the classroom teacher to the Cummins "common underlying proficiency" (CUP) theory of bilingual education, which explains why bilingual education works.

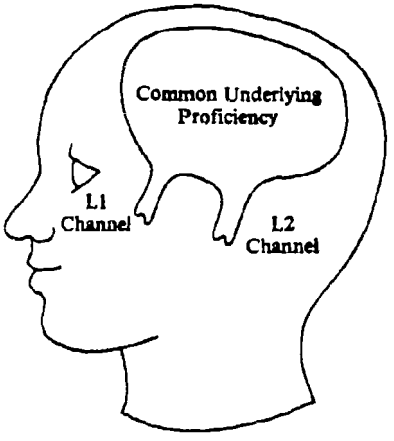
1. Show two pictures from Cummins representing the CUP theory of bilingual education and the "separate underlying proficiency (SUP) theory of bilingual education. Discuss, based on our account of the two contrasting concepts in Part II (pp. 29 - 32 above) in this Trainer's Manual.

2. Pictoral representation of SUP and CUP.

THE SEPARATE UNDERLYING PROFICIENCY (SUP) MODEL OF BILINGUAL PROFICIENCY



THE COMMON UNDERLYING PROFICIENCY MODEL (CUP) OF BILINGUAL PROFICIENCY



Source: Cummins, 1981.

According to metaphor pictured in SUP with 2 balloons, blowing in the proficiency with L_1 will not fill up L_2 (English). The contrary theory is the CUP theory of language learning, which learning to speak, read, and write in one language helps prepare for reading, speaking, and writing in other languages.

Secondly, it is easier to learn to read in a language you already know, (in our case, this will be Spanish), especially when it is such a phonetic language, "so long as there is sufficient motivation and exposure to both languages, both at school and in the wider environment."
Facts: See studies cited on pp.).

3. Types of Communication Skills

Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS) -- this is the kind of language learned at the mother's knee, -- what is called "cognitively undemanding contextualized" language, with no demand for abstract thinking and high reliance on context, facial and body language, the scene (home or kitchen), or the actions of people around (whether Mom is cooking, etc.). Usually the first language learned, particularly if it's non-English, exemplifies tnis kind of capability.

Cognitive/Academic Language proficiency (CALP) -- the kind of language "strongly related to literacy and academic achievement," an opposite kind of proficiency than BICS.

Learning to read, particularly if it is of a phonetically written language, best occurs in a language that people already can speak, so they can sound out the words. People learn to read fastest in their native speaking language, but in fact that ability is transferrable to another language, such as English. For example, children who have learned to read and write well in their native tongues, such as Mexicans who come to the United States at 10 years or 12 years of age are usually father ahead than Mexicans who have been taught in English, here in the United States, if they are native Spanish speakers. Since reading is basically a form of abstract thinking, a bridge for going from Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS) to Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), it is best to teach reading in the native tongue and transfer it to the new tongue.

The purpose of alternating English/Spanish back and forth in The Story of California is to get people reading in Spanish AND in English. The Spanish text is written at 7th grade level and the English text is at 3rd grade level. There are 5 implications of all this:

a) there should be lots of teaching in Spanish, which will end up helping English proficiency,

b) initial reading and other hard subjects should be taught in Spanish,

c) many supplementary texts should be made available in Spanish,

d) good Spanish-language instructors should be made available,

e) teachers should avoid mixing Spanish and English during the same class.

At this point, to illustrate some of the problems for discussion, trainer should read from three case studies of typical interactions (pp. 40, 41) and get the class' reaction, as to the problem in communication.

C. Workshop 3 - Classroom Strategies in Bilingual Education

Purpose: To review the methods for teaching using bilingual methods. How do you teach children that don't know English? Do you have an aide who understands the language if you don't? How many of you know

other languages besides English? How many have taught with an aide who speaks English in addition to the mother tongue of the children?

1. What types of classroom strategies exist?

a) alternate (back-to-back) - best, if teacher is bilingual or if class can alternate between English-speaking and Spanish-speaking teachers.

b) preview-review - good, particularly if there is a bilingual aide in the class,

c) concurrent - not good, leads to the dominance of the English language in class,

d) skills-mastery - teach them first in their native tongue, then discuss it in English, once the skill is mastered,

e) mish-mash - more formally known as the "eclectic" method. A mixture of all of the above.

D. Workshop 4 - Legal Basis for Bilingual Education

Purpose: To briefly discuss the provisions of AB 507, wich lay the lagel groundwork for the present bilingual education policies in California.

1. There are three distinct types of operations forseen by

the law: (See flow chart on pp. 66 - 68)

a) identification of "limited English proficiency" (LEP children) (to occur within 30 days of enrollment),

b) diagnostic assessment of their ability in English (to occur within 90 days of enrollment),

c) reassessment - to occur at any time.

Options:

3(a) basic bilingual education

3(b) bilingual bicultural education

3(c1a) innovative bilingual program

3(c1b) planned variation programs

3(d) secondary level language learning program - use of L_1 in non-elective courses

3(e) individualized instruction to sustain "normal language achievement."

E. Workshop 5 - How To Teach with "The Story of California"

The Story of California is a Spanish-English bilingual social studies unit, primarily designed for middle school students with limited English proficiency (LEP). The Spanish reading level is about grade 5, the English reading level is about grade 3, and the cognitive level of the materials is generally appropriate for 13 year olds. [The unit was specifically written for recent immigrants to California from Mexico and

Central America whose education has been interrupted for varying periods of time.]

1. We will be discussing a number of issues in this Workshop, including:

a) written and oral exercises,

b) new information vs. reinforcement of the text,

c) how Spanish and English are used,

d) chosing the materials to use,

e) deciding on the sequences of using various materials,

f) daily lesson plans.

Where possible, we will suggest exercises to carry out with the teachers in order to drive home the message on how to use The Story of California.

2. What are the materials? The Story of California includes a textbook about California geography and history, a Student Workbook, and this Teacher's Guide. Each chapter in the textbook naturally divides into several sections. There is one worksheet in the Student Workbook and one classroom activity in the Teacher's Guide to reinforce and/or expand on each section of the text. In addition, there is a worksheet and/or activity to review the whole chapter in most cases.

a) Written and Oral Exercises

The exercises on the worksheets are, of course, written. But, since most teachers review worksheets with the whole class after students have completed them, some oral practice is involved too.

b) New Information vs. Reinforcement of the Text

Most worksheets and activities simply reinforce the content in the text. However, some do present new information, elaborating on particularly interesting or important points. For example, activities and worksheets for Chapter 3 (The First People) present additional information about people migrating across the Bering Strait and a map of Indian tribal territories in the San Francisco Bay Area. The amount of new information is kept small.

c) How Spanish and English Are Used

Worksheets and activities use both Spanish and English, since this is a bilingual unit. Any given worksheet may be all in Spanish, all in English, or with some exercises in Spanish and some in English. About a third to half of the classroom activities are in Spanish and the rest are in English.

Spanish is used when the exercises would be too difficult in English (e.g., in Chapter 3, a structured class

discussion in which the migration of the first people to California is compared with the students' experiences). Spanish is also used to prepare students for a new language skill in English. For example, speaking complete sentences in Spanish should be relatively easy for most students; but this exercise is used in Chapter 2 to prepare them linguistically and cognitively for speaking complete sentences in English in Chapter 3.

3. How to use the materials - We recommend making a general lesson plan for an entire chapter at a time, because this will help you get the "big picture" on which skills are to be taught in that chapter. This general plan will include: which materials will be used; why; how; and in what order.

Such a plan need not be written, but rather can come from a careful review of the materials and the Scope and Sequence Chart found at the beginning of each chapter in the Teacher's Guide. The first step, of course, is to become familiar with the materials by reading the chapter in the text, reading the activities for that chapter in the Teacher's Guide, and glancing through the worksheets for that Chapter in the Student Workbook.

a) Note to curriculum specialist: develop a general lesson plan for a week with the class. To do this, it will be necessary to review the Scope and Sequence charts in the

Teacher's Guide and let them figure out how the Scope and Sequence Chart in the Teacher's Guide coordinates the lessons in each chapter.

b) Decide Which Materials Will Be Used and Why

The second step is to carefully look at the Scope and Sequence Chart for that chapter. This chart summarizes each worksheet and activity, showing which pages of the textbook each one covers, the topics covered, and the skills taught in each. Decide which materials will be used and which will not be used, depending on the skills that you want to emphasize and the students' abilities and interests. If you decide not to use a worksheet or activity, make sure that the skills taught in it will be taught somewhere else in the chapter or in the next chapter, since later materials build upon the skills taught before.

c) Decide Sequence and How Materials Will Be used

Based on our teaching experience and field testing of these materials, we recommend that students mostly do their initial reading of the textbook and their initial work on the worksheets as homework, since these are solitary activities requiring concentration and a fair amount of time. Class time should be spent: reviewing the textbook; working on any worksheet items that students could not figure out by themselves (they can work either in groups or individually with help from teachers, aides, or peer tutors); reviewing the worksheets as a class; and

doing classroom activities from the Teacher's Guide. This division of work between the home and the classroom is obviously only a general rule of thumb, with many possible exceptions. You, of course, know what will work best with your class.

The farthest left column in the Scope and Sequence Chart (i.e. "sequence") shows our recommended order for using the materials. It assumes that any section of the textbook will always be read before the worksheet and classroom activity for that section are done. Sometimes it is better to do a worksheet before an activity for a section and sometimes the other way around; the Scope and Sequence Chart reflects this.

d) Daily Lesson Plans

After a general plan for the chapter has been made, then writing daily lesson plans will be fairly quick and easy. The objectives for the lesson plan (if you use objectives) will be the skills to be taught in the worksheets and activities for that day. The events in class will be very straight-forward (e.g., class review of section "X" in the text, class work on worksheet "Y" with teacher's help, class review of worksheet "Y", and begin activity "Z"). The Teacher's Guide will show what materials must be prepared ahead of time for the activity. The time set aside for each event will, of course, be based upon your experiences

with your class.

e) Note: Divide the teachers in two or three-person groups and have each develop a daily lesson plan and justify how they did it.

4. What students can learn from these materials - The Story of California is designed to help students learn three concepts:

1) the main themes in California geography and history,
2) the geography skills of map reading, graph/chart reading, and researching information;
3) language skills in Spanish and English.

a) Main Themes in the Text

A few main themes tie each chpater together. These major forces in California geography and history will give students a "feel" and appreciation for the subject matter long after they have forgotten many of the names, dates, and places they encounter during this unit. Therefore, the exercises on the worksheets reinforce these main themes. The classroom activities -- many of which are structured class discussions -- also do this, but they focus even more on having students analyze the main events about which they have learned.

b) Geography Skills: Maps, Graphs, Charts, and Research

Since maps are an essential component of geography, students must learn to read them. Not only are maps fun and

interesting, but the ability to read them will always be useful to the students.

The same is true of graphs and charts, which can visually summarize large amounts of information. Newspapers, magazines, and books are full of graphs and charts.

Research skills mean being able to find information that you want to know, organizing it well, and (usually) presenting it to someone else, either orally or in writing. This important set of skills includes everything from looking up a word in the dictionary to preparing a class report.

c) Language Skills

Although social students is the content of this unit, it also necessarily teaches students language skills in both Spanish and English. The exercises are both oral and written. Since the exercises focus on the language dimensions of vocabulary, comprehension, and grammar, there are 12 possible kinds of exercises, aimed at teaching language skills in 12 areas.

Table 1 shows the learning objectives for each of these language skill areas. It can be seen in the Table that the skills are all defined in terms of language "production"

(i.e., speaking and writing), because these skills are observable by the teachers. The "reception" skills of reading and listening are, of course, involved in all the worksheets and classroom activities respectively, and improvement in these will partly underlie improvement in the associated but observable skills listed as objectives.

The ultimate objective for written vocabulary is to give a definition for a word, whether in Spanish or English. From these written exercises, as well as from their reading and listening, students are expected to learn the new vocabulary in the unit. Thus, the objective for oral vocabulary is to use the new words properly in class discussion.

The objective for oral comprehension in both English and Spanish is to present an oral report to the class, because this skill requires that students master the information involved. (It also requires that they have the skills to gather the information for the report and organize that information in a coherent way; for this reason, the skill of presenting an oral report to the class, in Spanish or English, is also one of the learning objectives in the research skills area.)

Table 6

Learning Objectives for Language Skill Areas

Language/ Mode	LANGUAGE DIMENSION		
	Vocabulary	Comprehension	Grammar
Oral/ English	Use a vocabulary word in class discussion.	Make an oral report to the class.	Answer a question with a complete sentence, substituting subject or object pronouns.
Written/ English	Write a definition for a word.	Write a complete sentence Locate the main idea of a paragraph.	Answer a question with a complete sentence, substituting subject or object pronouns.
Oral/ Spanish	Use a vocabulary word in class discussion.	Make an oral report to the class.	Answer a question with a complete sentence, substituting subject or object pronouns.
Written/ Spanish	Define a word with a sentence.	Make a written report.	Write a complete sentence about a topic from the book.

Making a written report is the corresponding written comprehension skill, but these materials require this in the Spanish language only. It seemed that students with an average of a third grade reading level (i.e., the reading level of the English materials) should instead focus on learning to write a complete sentence *in* English. During the last few chapters of the materials, they begin locating the main idea of a paragraph as preparation for learning to write one, but actually

writing a good paragraph is probably beyond the English abilities of most of the students.

The grammar exercises in all modes focus on learning to produce a complete simple sentence, because that is the fundamental building block of good writing and speaking. The exercises take the students one step further by teaching them to substitute pronouns for the subject or object of the sentence, because this capitalizes on their sentence-writing skill and gives them a tremendous flexibility in constructing gramatically correct, flowing sentences. It is also the essential ingredient for the transition to "stringing" sentences together into a gragraph. The ultimate objective for written Spanish is a little more advanced than for English; in this case, the students are required to write a complete simple sentence about a designated topic, without the grammatical structure of a question to guide their sentence formation.

5. How the materials teach these skills - Such skills as defining a word, writing a complete sentence or making an oral report are not learned all at once. Rather, each is the culmination of several steps (or lower-level skills) aimed at teaching that skill.

Imagine a set of skills listed in increasing order of difficulty -- a "skills ladder." Figure 1 shows a skills ladder

for written English vocabulary, with the objective of writing a definition for a word as the highest skill on the ladder. "Climbing" the ladder requires students to master increasingly sophisticated skills until at last they can write a definition for a word. (It can also be seen that this skills ladder could continue upward into even more sophisticated skills, which could be taught in subsequent units.)

Now imagine skills ladders for all 12 sets of language skills and for all three sets of geography skills. There would be 15 skills ladders in all! That is how the master plan for skills to be taught during this unit was made -- learning objectives were established for each skills area and all the skills ladders were constructed. These skills ladders are shown in Figure 2 and give a feel for where students are headed during the semester.

It can be seen in Figure 2 that only ten language skills ladders, rather than twelve, were actually constructed. A skills ladder was not constructed for "oral English vocabulary" or "oral Spanish vocabulary," because the only skill involved here is for students to use the new vocabulary words, which will be learned from listening and reading in their discussions in class. Therefore, these two ladders would be "one-rung" ladders and thus need not be shown visually. The skill of using new vocabulary words when speaking is exercised in the many

classroom activities which require class discussion.

The skills for "oral English grammar" are handled somewhat differently in the instructions for the activities than are the other language skills. Most activities specify which skills to emphasize. However, since the second rung of the "oral English grammar" skills ladder calls for students to "use a complete sentence in class discussion," it seemed unnecessariiy redundant to specify this for every activity, because all involve some class discussion. Rather, you should be aware of this objective and always encourage the class to articulate complete sentences, especially after they have been introduced as a focal point in Chapter 2 in Spanish and Chapter 3 in English. Likewise, once pronoun substitution has been introduced in Spanish and English, you should encourage students to use pronouns in their class discussion during chapters 7-10.

Note: There are 14 skills ladders in all. Have each teacher in the seminar choose a skills ladder and suggest an example of an exercise similar to the one described in the skills ladder which would illustrate the same point. Present your argument to the class. Are the higher rungs in the skills ladder truly a step up over the lower rungs?

In constructing the Student Workbook an Teacher's Guide, one, two, three or even four skills from each ladder were carefully

chosen and built into the worksheets and activities for each chapter. With each succeeding chapter, new, harder skills are added and the easier ones are dropped, as students master them. Any given skill may be exercised for a chapter or two or three (depending on how hard it is to learn) before it is dropped. The specific skills chosen for each worksheet and each chapter are shown in the Scope and Sequence Chart for that chapter.

This scheme means that the type of exercises on the worksheets and activities will change from chapter to chapter as new skills are introduced. It also means that in any given chapter, the exercises have a fairly wide range of difficulty. This guarantees that every student, regardless of his or her abilities on any ladder, will be able to do some exercises well (thus building confidence) and will be challenged by other exercises to build new skills.

Figure 3

SKILL LADDERS BUILT INTO WORKSHEETS AND ACTIVITIES

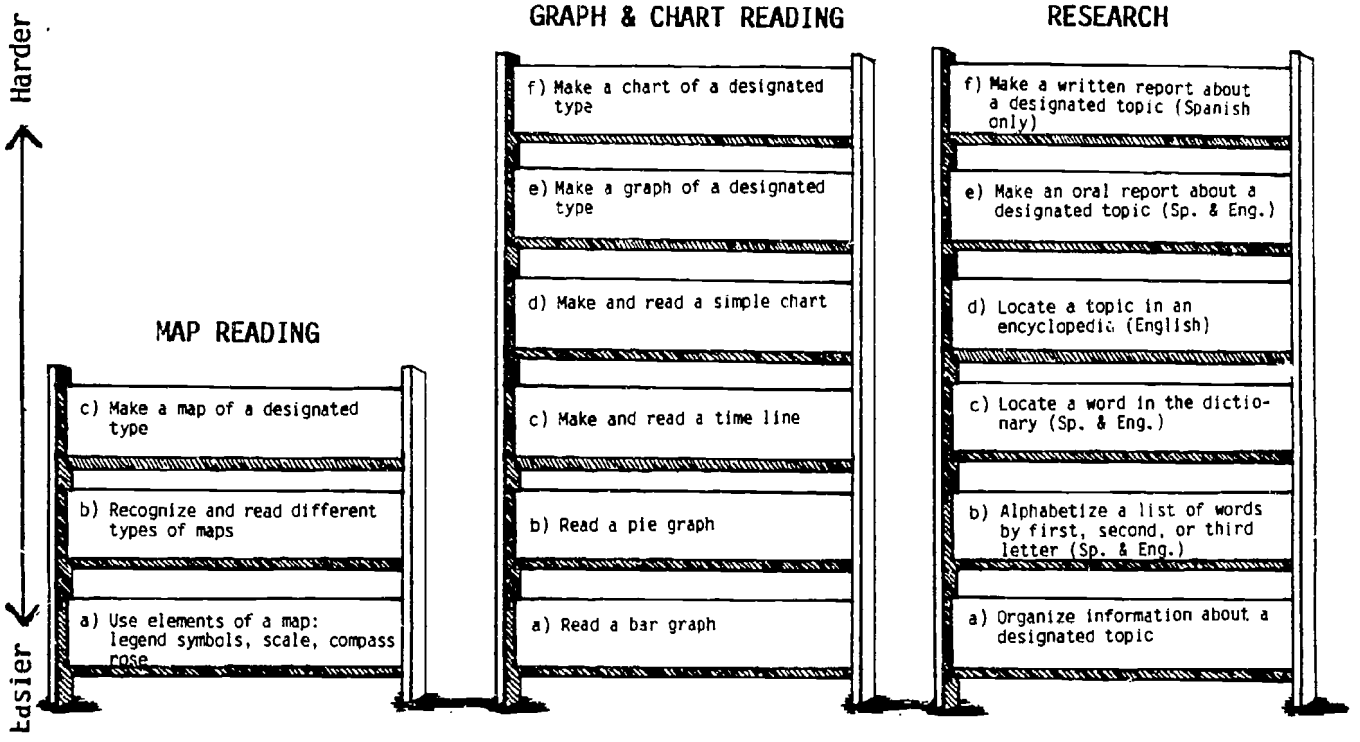


FIGURE 4

A "SKILLS LADDER" FOR
WRITTEN ENGLISH VOCABULARY

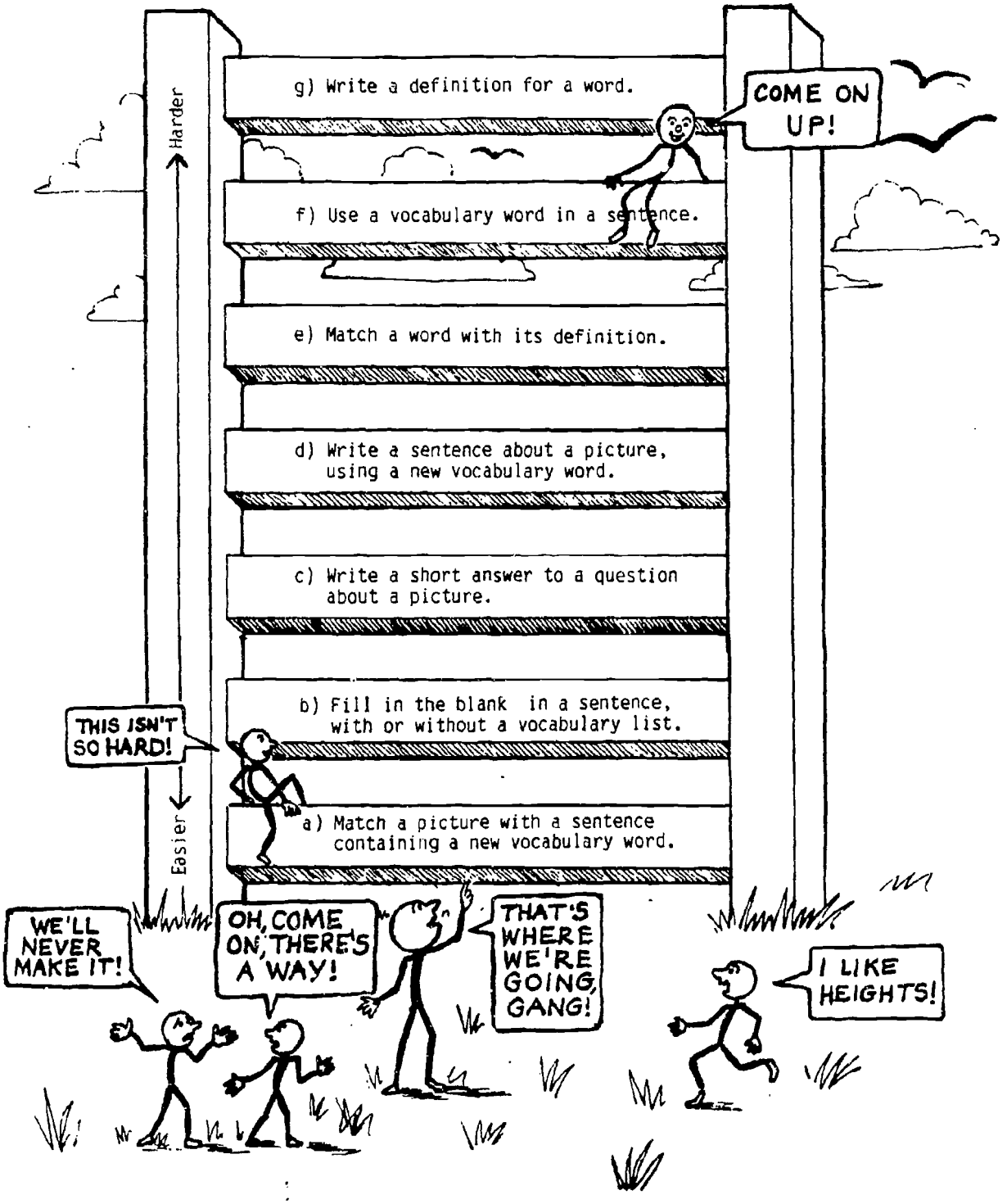


Figure 4 - continued

SKILL LADDERS BUILT INTO WORKSHEETS AND ACTIVITIES

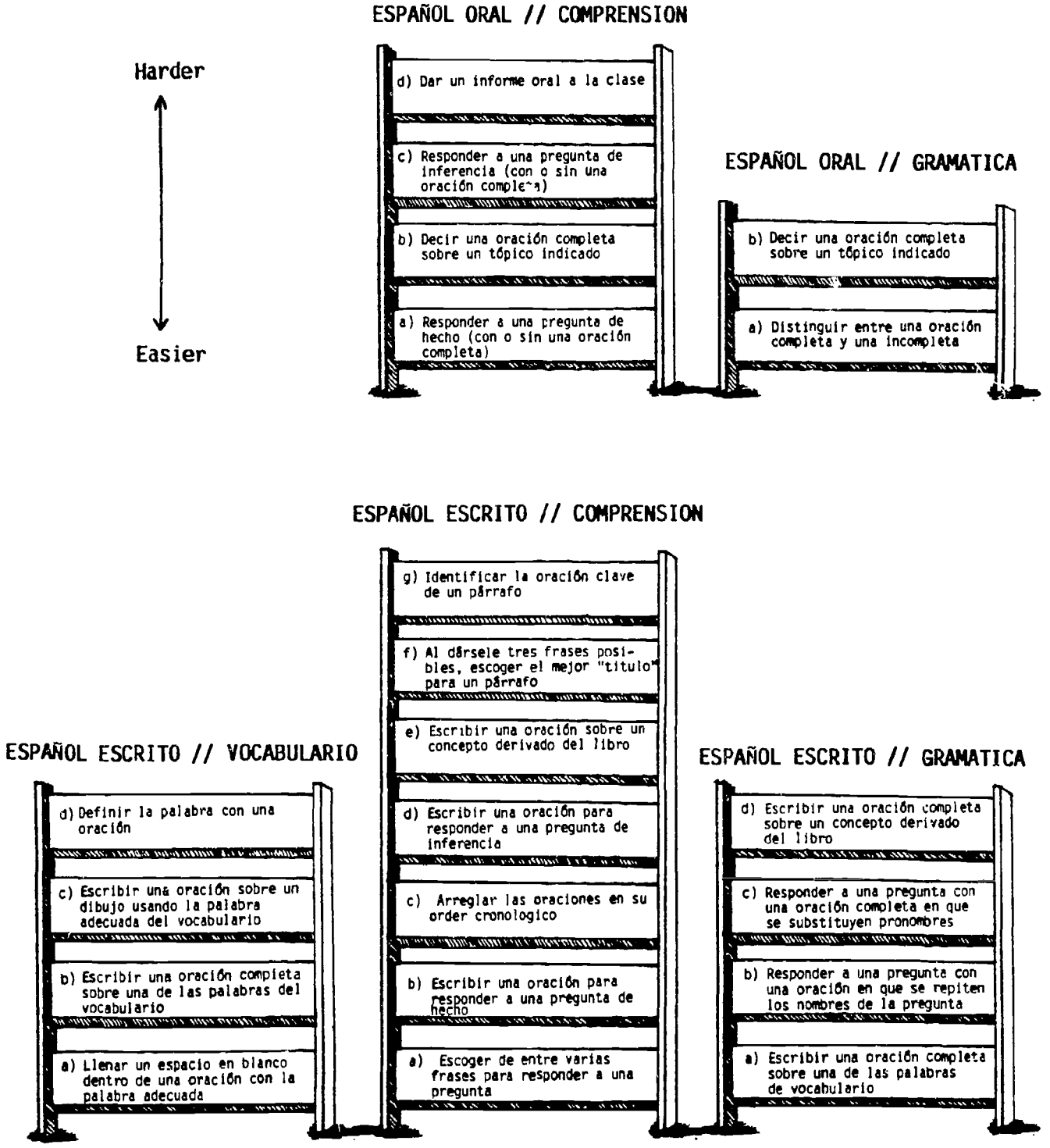


Figure 4 - continued

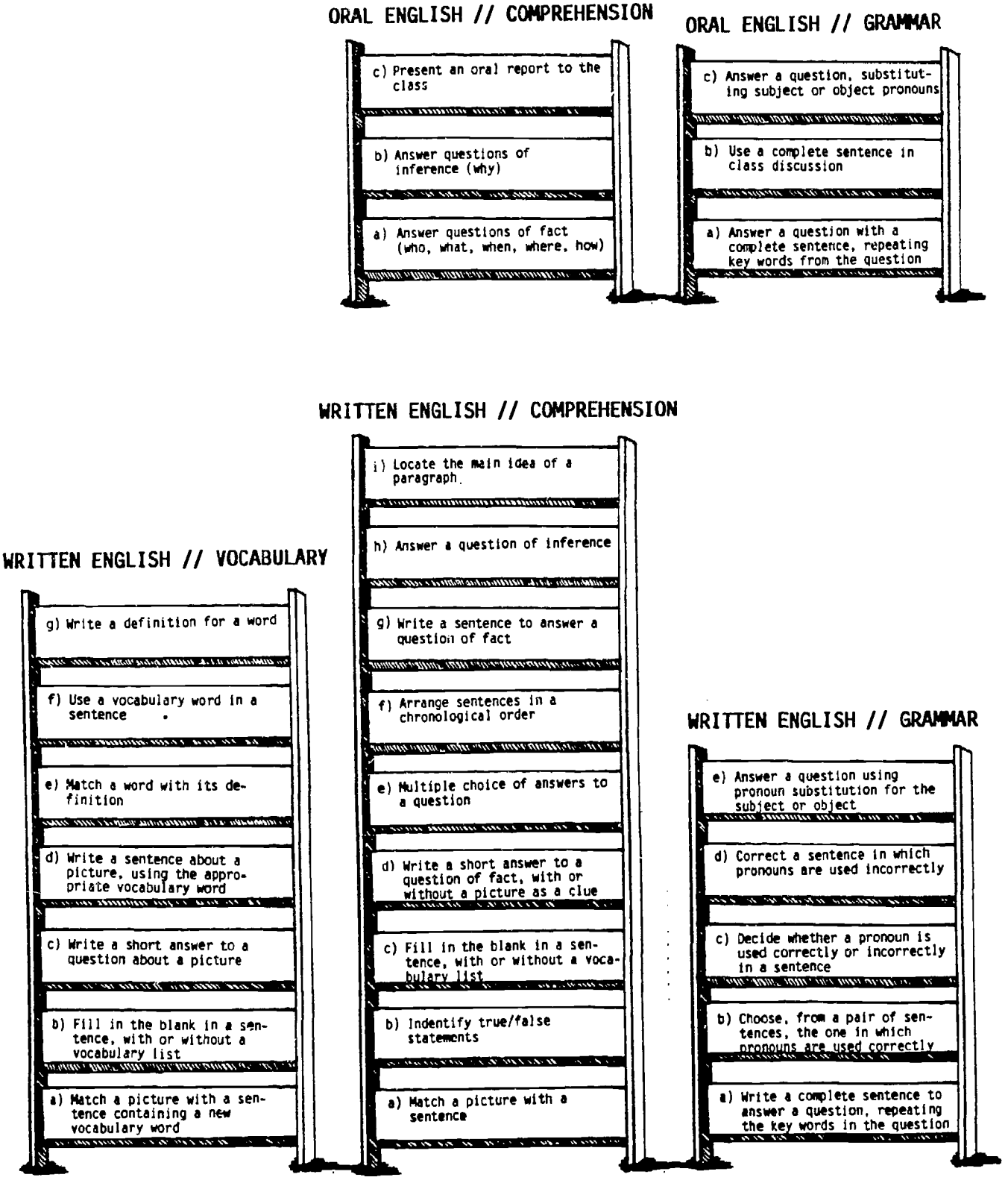


TABLE 7
WORKSHOP DESIGN

DAY 1 - OBJECTIVE - OVERVIEW	MATERIALS & EQUIPMENT
I. Introduction/Ice Breaker	
9:00 1. "Whip" - My name is _____, I'm from _____ school and I'm here today because _____. (List on board)	
2. Introduce Training Objectives on overhead or charts, compare with list generated on board. Items on board not covered in workshop should be identified - where possible refer to other resources.	Workshop Objective Overhead #1
3. Review Workshop Agenda	
II. Organization of Materials	
9:15 1. Briefly review curriculum goals- will help students to: • Learn the history of California • Use maps and graphs in researching information about geography • To improve language development in Spanish and English	Copy of Teacher Guide and Student Workbook materials for each participant.
2. Student Text & Student Worksheets	
a. Project Table of Curriculum on overhead "Text divided into 10 units of study".	Overhead of Table of Contents of "Story" #2

Table 7 (cont'd)

b. Hand out copies of text & worksheets, allow 10 minutes for participants to thumb through materials.	Overhead of Teacher's Guide Organization
II. Organizations of Materials (cont'd)	
3. Teacher's Guide	Teacher's Guide
a. Project overhead #3 - review briefly b. Pass out Teacher's Guide	• Overview of unit • Key concepts • Key skills • Language development (Eng/Span) activities • Comprehension/Application
9:45 - 10:00 BREAK	
10:00 OBJECTIVE 2 - UNIT/CONTENTS	
1. We are now going to do a jigsaw exercise Divide group into teams of 10 or 5 (dyads - 2 people, triads - 3 people)	
2. Assign each team 1 or 2 units	Provide space (tables/chairs/extra rooms if needed) for small groups meetings.
3. Instruct teams to meet for 1/2 hour and, anyway they want to devise, cover content of unit and prepare to summarize contents for group	
10:45 TOTAL GROUP	
Bring groups together and have each group report out.	Total group. Organize in circle.
Ask them to cover, in as much detail as possible, content of the unit/units they were assigned. (5 - 7 minutes each chapter)	
12:00 LUNCH	

Table 7 (cont'd)

1:00	OBJECTIVE 3- PRACTICE Ask groups to reconvene and using their teacher's guide (from the units they were assigned in the A.M. exercise) examine the map and graphing skills for that lesson and prepare a short presentation.	
2:00	Have each small group present (map/graph activity/lesson) and ask group to critique with attention as to how to expand for further language development.	Hands-on all necessary materials for mapping and graphing. Graph Paper Chart/Graph Pens Atlas, etc. Globe Ample supply of felt pens

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