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Bicultural-Bilingual Education for Latino Students: A Continuous Progress Model

Vinicio H. Reyes
Loyola University Chicago

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BICULTURAL-BILINGUAL EDUCATION FOR LATINO STUDENTS:
A CONTINUOUS PROGRESS MODEL

by

Vinicio H. Reyes

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School
of Loyola University of Chicago in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

1974
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VITA

The author, Vinicio H. Reyes, received the Baccalaureate degree in Classical Studies from Loyola Academy, Quito, Ecuador, in July, 1953. He received the degree of Licenciate in Classical Studies in June, 1957 and another Licenciate in Philosophy and Letters in June, 1960 from the Catholic University of Ecuador. He came to the United States, entered Loyola University of Chicago and was awarded the Master of Education degree in June, 1968.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Students of the social sciences have often called the United States a "melting pot." This "melting pot" has resulted in great cultural mixtures which have led to the pluralistic nature of our society. The nineteenth century "melting pot" mythology of cultural sameness is no longer accepted by substantial segments of either minority cultures or of the dominant group.\(^1\) However, this "melting pot" has brought misunderstandings and differences in our way of life. Bilingualism and biculturalism are conditions resulting from the impact the United States culture has had on people such as the Spanish-speaking groups throughout the United States. In 1960 there were approximately 19 million persons in the United States who spoke a language other than English as a mother tongue.\(^2\) In 1967 estimates placed the number of United States children of school age who were speakers of a non-


English mother tongue at about 5 million. Currently the figures are estimated to be 5.2 million children of school age who are in this category.

These figures are of great interest to educators having to deal with school problems stemming from bilingualism and biculturalism. The problems of bilinguals are not limited to the Spanish-speaking populations. For example, New York and San Francisco have sizeable Chinese communities; the New England communities along the Canadian border have large numbers of French-speaking individuals. Massachusetts has had Portuguese-speaking inhabitants for years, and Detroit has had Polish-speakers since the nineteenth century. Thus bilingualism is not a new issue; rather it has been emphasized more in the last thirty years or so, with most particular attention since the 1960's.

Purpose of the Study

The investigator has had a two-fold purpose in carrying out his research; namely, (1) to present an historical rationale for bilingual education in Chicago to the administrators, teachers, and the general public; (2) to propose a


2 Fishman, op. cit., p. 98.

model for a continuous progress, two-way, integrated, maintenance type, total, bicultural-bilingual education program beginning with a home-school unit and developing and expanding over the years until the completion of the high school unit.

Limitations of the Study

To consider all nationalities in these respects would be too broad in scope and would result in superficial research. Therefore, the investigator has narrowed his research, and will deal in depth with the Spanish-speaking students enrolled in bilingual centers in the Chicago Public Schools.

Rationale of the Study

The investigator has narrowed the research for the following reasons. The Spanish-speaking comprise the nation's and Chicago's second largest minority. They are becoming more vocal in demanding equal educational opportunities. Being bilingual and bicultural, the investigator has knowledge of both languages and cultures and the expertise to compare and contrast them. He has been involved with bilingual education in Chicago since its inception in 1968. Thus, as a result of his experiences and the research undertaken, he hopes to present the historical rationale for bilingual education in Chicago, as well as, a proposed model for an adequate academic bilingual program for the Spanish-speaking children that will enhance their educational opportunities.
Importance of the Study

Until recently there have not been many scholarly contributions dealing with the subject in question. Some books and dissertations have been devoted to it; however, some of them deal with the subject rather superficially, others touch upon only a very specific variable of bilingual education, and others present some aspects of the problem without offering concrete solutions. None of them has treated bilingual education specifically in the Chicago Public School System. Some of these studies are discussed in Chapter II. A careful search in standard bibliographies, reference books, and Dissertation Abstracts International yielded the fact that the investigator's subject has not been dealt with in previous works.

Method to be Followed

The following sources have been studied and analyzed:

(1) ERIC materials,
(2) reports and government documents,
(3) materials from the Board of Education of the City of Chicago and the U.S. Office of Education,
(4) experimental data from dissertations in related areas, and
(5) current books dealing with various aspects of bilingual education.

Thus, the documentary method has been used as the chief research technique.
Besides the above, the following techniques were used:

(1) a detailed and rigorously structured questionnaire distributed to bilingual centers of Chicago for completion,

(2) a personal visit to each of the bilingual centers under consideration in the study in order to observe the educational program in action,

(3) personal interviews with local and national leaders in the bilingual education programs, and

(4) personal visits to bilingual centers in other states, such as Florida, Texas, New Mexico and New York.

These procedures helped in developing the rationale and the ensuing model, which make up the major portion of this study.

Definition of Terms

1. ability grouping—"classifying pupils into homogeneous sections with reference to test performance in selected subjects."¹

2. acculturation—"that process of culture change in which more or less continuous contact between two or more culturally distinct groups results in one group taking over elements of the culture of the other group or groups. The term is also used to designate the resultant state."²


3. **achievement**—"the end gained or level of success attained by an individual or group on the completion of a task whether it be academic, manual, personal, or social."¹

4. **age level grouping**—"classification of pupils by chronological age."²

5. **biculturalism**—the state of being for a person when, once having internalized the virtues of the two cultures, he actively participates in propagating those cultures, he not only benefits from both cultures but also contributes to both, he can spontaneously transfer from one culture to the other as he chooses or as the occasion demands.³

6. **bilingual education**—"instruction in two languages and the use of those two languages as mediums of instruction for any part of or all of the school curriculum. Study of the history and culture associated with a student's mother tongue is considered an integral part of bilingual education."⁴

7. **continuous progress**—"pupils are able to move from level to level without restrictions of time, semester, or school years."⁵


³John Aragon, *Cultural Conflicts Inherent in the Traditional Curriculum*, Text of Speech Delivered at the Multilingual, Multicultural Conference, San Diego, California, April 2, 1973. (Expanded and clarified by the researcher.)

⁴Bilingual Education Act of 1967.

⁵State, *op. cit.*, p. 4.
8. **English-dominant student**—a monolingual English-speaking student, who, for a period of time, does not have the language proficiency to learn the content subjects in Spanish.¹

9. **individualized education**—"consists of planning and conducting with each student his general program of study and day-to-day lessons that are tailor-made to suit his learning needs and his characteristics as a learner."²

10. **level**—"a block of related skills taught concommittantly."³

11. **marginal man**—

Any individual who is simultaneously a member (by ascription, self-reference, or achievement) of two or more groups and whose social definitions and cultural norms are distinct from each other. The extent or range of this marginality depends on (a) how much difference exists between the cultural norms of the different groups; (b) the prevalent definition of this actual difference; (c) the differential treatment which results from (b); (d) the differential participation in two or more spheres as affected by (c); (e) the differential awareness of (c) and (d); (f) the definition of factors (a) and to (d) by the marginal man in terms of unique personality elements, and the responses arising therefrom, his aspirations and goal-directed activities.⁴

12. **model**—a set of principles for a prototype bicultural-bilingual education program, schematically and graphically represented, showing the relationships between concepts and organizational patterns.⁵

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¹ Definition developed by the researcher for the purpose of this study.


⁵ Definition developed by the researcher for the purpose of this study.
13. **multi-age, multi-grade grouping**—"a method of grouping pupils to facilitate increased learning between peers and to make less visible slow learning behavior on the part of any pupil."\(^1\)

14. **multi-unit**—"term used to describe a school which is organized into several sub-groups."\(^2\)

15. **open concept school (open space)**—"an architectural design in which most divisions between rooms are operable or non-existent."\(^3\)

16. **rationale**—"a synoptic exposition or the gist of principles, procedures, or axioms underlying or constituting the foundation of human enterprise, especially of scientific work or experimentation."\(^4\)

17. **school-community committee**—a group made up of the principal, a member of the local affiliated university, the curriculum developer, the director, the unit leader, a teacher, and a parent, who meet under the direction of the program evaluator to devise criterion referenced tests for the various mastery skill levels and content subjects for continuous progress education.\(^5\)

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\(^1\) Yale--R.E.A.D.--School Brochure. Chicago, 1973, p. 2. (Mimeographed.)


\(^3\) State, op. cit., p. 10.


\(^5\) Definition developed by the researcher for the purpose of this study.
18. **self-concept**--

may be thought of as an organized configuration of perceptions of the self which are admissible to awareness. It is composed of such elements of the perceptions of one's characteristics and abilities; the precepts and concepts of the self in relation to others and the environment; the value qualities which are perceived as associated with experiences and objects; and goals and ideals which are perceived as having positive and negative valence.¹

19. **Spanish-dominant student**--a monolingual Spanish-speaking student, who, for a period of time, does not have the language proficiency to learn the content subjects in English.²

20. **status**--"the rights, privileges, immunities, and duties reserved for persons occupying specific roles in groups in both the official and formal groups as well as unofficial and informal groups in society."³

21. **transient child**--"a child whose parents move frequently from school district to school district without establishing permanent residence."⁴

22. **ungraded**--"any organization which removes rigid grade lines and divides the curriculum into learning levels, and has a wide range of ages and abilities being given instruction on an individual basis."⁵

23. **unit**--"a group of pupils, teachers, teacher-aides and/or volunteers."⁶

¹Hopke, op. cit., p. 325.
²Definition developed by the researcher for the purpose of this study.
³Ibid., p. 346.      ⁴Good, op. cit., p. 580.
⁵State, op. cit., p. 28.
⁶Klausmeirer, op. cit., p. 6.
The problem of this study has been stated. Chapter II will present sources of literature on various aspects related to the problem.
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

In order to place the problem of this study in perspective, the investigator has found it necessary to relate it to other areas of relevance; namely, marginality, biculturalism, self-concept, social status, literature about Spanish-speakers, and bilingualism.

Marginality

This term was originated by Park, in 1928, who used it to refer to the cultural hybrid sharing the life and traditions of two distinct peoples as a result of migration. A few years later Park, while still focusing on cultural duality, referred to the person of mixed racial inheritance as the "typical" marginal. He emphasized the disorganizing effects of marginality.

Stonequist has also commented on marginality: "The marginal man . . . is one whom fate has condemned to live in

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two societies and in two, not merely different but antagonistic cultures.¹

Stonequist elaborated Park's seminal but undeveloped concept by devoting a whole work to the exposition and illustration of four marginal types: the migrant foreigner, the second generation, the Jew emancipated from the ghetto, and the mixed blood.² He mentions other types of marginality—the parvenu, the declasse, the migrant from country to city, and women in a changed role, but fails to give them further attention.³ He tends to treat maladjustment as characteristic of marginality in spite of theoretical recognition that it may not occur.⁴ Both Stonequist's and Park's ideas on marginality have bearing on the present study since marginality plays a key role in the lives of many Spanish-speakers.

In the following years sociologists have written of the second generation immigrants as the most distinctively marginal group, measured by their relatively high index of crime, family disorganization, and emotional disturbances. Much of the impetus came from W. I. Thomas and F. Znaniecki.⁵

More recently, marginality has been extended to multiple group and status membership of all kinds. Riesman

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² Ibid., p. 3. ³ Ibid., pp. 5-6. ⁴ Ibid., p. 4.
⁵ W. I. Thomas and F. Znaniecki, The Polish Peasant in Europe (Boston: Bager, 1918), p. 27.
distinguished "secret" marginality where there are "people who subjectively fail to feel the identities expected of them." 1

Bilculturalism

The contact phenomenon known originally as "acceptance," or replacement by borrowed elements, was studied rather intensively although perhaps not so much as cultural fusion. It was studied especially among American Indians and to some extent, among Polynesians and Africans. Studies of Navaho veterans of World War II made it possible to identify stages in the process of individual acceptances of new modes of living. 2 Studies on biculture by Polgar 3 made clear that individuals in contact situations that stimulated replacement were not restricted to a single type of response. As in bilingualism, two or more ways of behavior could be learned by an individual and employed under different circumstances where appropriate. Bicultural response was found to be a recurrent phenomenon under the conditions set up on Indian reservations in the United States. Its implications in terms of integration of the individual personally and as a participant in culture were obvious. Distinction was made between acculturation processes as they affect individuals and as they affect groups.


Ulibarri placed in perspective the concept of biculturalism as it relates to the past, present, and future of Mexican-American education. He believes that the idea of bicultural education has achieved acceptability, although on a limited scale, and that, even though the idea of bicultural education has finally been acknowledged as an important contributor to the cultural and socio-economic development of the Mexican-American, the reality of biculturalism is still surrounded by confusion and indecision.

Linton aimed at detecting selected socio-cultural differences between Mexican-American and Anglo sixth grade students in order to determine the relationship of these characteristics to students' alienation from school, and to relate school achievement to socio-cultural characteristics and alienation from school. He concluded that ethnicity accounts for less of the variation in socio-cultural characteristics than does socio-economic level. Low socio-economic level Anglos and Mexican-Americans appear to be part of a larger culture of poverty. He also concluded that both ethnicity and socio-economic level contribute to alienation from school, that student ethnicity is a factor in the relationship between socio-cultural characteristics and alienation.

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tion variables, and that the relationship of socio-cultural characteristics and alienation variables to school achievement is similar to Anglo and Mexican-American students.

Rivlin\textsuperscript{1} states that no child should have to feel that he must reject his parent's culture to be accepted. Indeed, his chances of adjusting successfully to his school, to his community, and to the larger society are enhanced if he is not encumbered by feelings of shame and of inferiority because he was not born into another family and another culture. To speak of any child as "culturally disadvantaged" merely because of his ethnic origin is damaging not only to the child but also to society, for it deprives the nation of the contributions that can be made by each of the many groups that make up our country.

The concept of cultural pluralism must include basic ideas of equal opportunity for all people, respect for human dignity, and the power to control the significant environmental and psychological forces impinging on people.\textsuperscript{2}

This respect for the Latino and the American culture is an integral part of bilingual education.

Self-Concept

Gillman's study\textsuperscript{3} aimed at measuring and analyzing the


\textsuperscript{2}Ibid., p. 15.

\textsuperscript{3}Geneva B. Gillman, "The Relationship Between Self-Concept, Intellectual Ability, Achievement, and Manifest
self-concepts of select groups of fourth- and six-grade children in New Mexico, to correlate these self-concept scores with scores from measures of intelligence and achievement, and to compare and contrast these findings with the findings of two other studies using the same instruments of measurement and involving population samples with similar educational disadvantages. On the basis of the data gathered, Gillman concluded that the child's perception of self and subsequent behavior and performance are closely related to community and family mores and general welfare. Based on the findings of this study, it appears that self-concepts of children are affected by poverty, minority group membership, language deficiencies, and the persistent problems associated with migration.

Combs, Kelly, Maslow and Rogers\(^1\) offered this advice to schools as a beginning of a solution to the problem. Schoolrooms will need to be places where process and content can dynamically assist people to become more knowing about both self and the world. Such a laboratory must provide, upon the one hand, a climate that facilitates and assists the process of self-discovery, on the other, provides positive experiences through which people can discover more adequate

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Anxiety Among Select Groups of Spanish-Surnamed Migrant Students in New Mexico" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Mexico, 1969), pp. 6 and 7.

relationships between themselves and the world in which they live.

Such a climate calls for a deep respect for the individual. The discovery of self is a deeply personal matter that does not come about in blanket ways. Each individual, in the final analysis must discover his own unique being in his own unique and highly personal ways. This is unlikely to be affected in classroom situations where everyone is treated alike and where differences are regarded as bad or improper. The full discovery of self as a unique individual of dignity, value, and worth can only be found in an atmosphere where uniqueness is encouraged and difference valued.

Miller and Woock\(^1\) state that the source of self-concept, whether accurate or not, is external; it is learned. The forces that contribute to the development of self-concept are for the most part the institutions of the family, the peer group, other significant adults in the child's life, the culture in which the child grows up, and the school. Through interaction with these institutions, individuals develop differing concepts of themselves. This concept of self is always developed in terms of adequacy. Many psychologists define adequacy as one of the fundamental human needs. Jersild\(^2\) expresses it this way: "The needs associated with a person's


idea and appraisal of himself include both desires for enhancing his self esteem and also striving to preserve the integrity and consistency of his self."

Social Status

The term "status" until about 1920, was most commonly used to refer to either the legally enforceable capacities and limitations of people or their relative superiority and inferiority. More recently, the rights and duties fixed by law have seemed less significant that those fixed by custom; and thus the non-scalar usage, now often called "status in the Linton sense," after the social anthropologist Ralph Linton, has come to be a synonym for any "position in a social system." While the non-scalar usage of the term has broadened, the scalar usage has narrowed. Whereas formerly, superiority of status could mean any sort of hierarchical ordering--of power, wealth, or honor--to many it now refers only to esteem, prestige, honor, respect, that is, to various forms of evaluation.

Following Merton one may say that a set of object statuses of a single subject status is a role set; a set of subject statuses through time, such that it is necessary and sufficient that the subject occupy an earlier status for him to occupy a later status, is a status sequence. Thus, Smith's

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being a doctor means that he must involve himself in social 
relations with nurses, patients, other doctors, hospital ad-
ministrators, and so on (role set). Perhaps Smith is also a 
husband, a father, a deacon of the church, a member of the 
grand jury (status set). The process by which he became a 
doctor required that he first be a medical student, then an 
intern, then a resident (status sequence).

The idea that one's self conception is mirrored in the 
behavior of others is Cooley's,¹ although the "looking-glass 
self" is both a more and less complicated notion. It is less 
complicated in that it does not concern itself with how adult 
actors in an encounter use each other's behavior to define 
the situation. It is more complicated in that it is concerned 
both with self-image (definitions of the self) and self-
esteem (evaluations of the self). What is relevant at this 
point is the self-image hypothesis, which Huntington² has 
confirmed to some degree by showing how medical students come 
to see themselves as doctors. Where students are involved in 
an interactive situation with a nurse or patient who expects 
them to behave like, or even defines them as, doctors, they 
are more likely to think of themselves as doctors.

¹Charles H. Cooley, Human Nature and the Social Order 
²Mary J. Huntington, "The Development of a Profes-
by Robert K. Merton et al. (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard Uni-
The tradition of Park\(^1\) and Hughes\(^2\) leads one to the study of status ambiguity as a central theoretical problem. If every actor has more than one status, the attitudes of any two statuses may be either compatible or incompatible in their demands on the self and the other. If two statuses that are activated in the same situation are incompatible it will be difficult for each status occupant to know how to interact with the other because it will be difficult for him to know which status is the basis of their interaction.

Lenski\(^3\) finds that status ambiguity creates so much stress that many want to withdraw from sociable interaction, while many others want to change the social structure so that such situations are redefined. This reaction plays an important part in developing a meaningful bilingual education program.

**Literature About Spanish-Speakers**

The United States Commission on Civil Rights\(^4\) issued a report in 1971 considered shocking to many educators. Its

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\(^2\)Everett C. Hughes, and Helen M. Hughes, Where Peoples Meet (Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1952), pp. 100-15.


findings were as follows: (1) public school pupils of Mexican-American background are severely isolated by school districts and by schools within individual districts; (2) for the most part, Mexican-Americans are under-represented on school and district professional staffs and on boards of education; i.e., they constitute a substantially lower proportion of both staff and board membership than they do of enrollment; and (3) the majority of Mexican-American staff and school board members are found in predominantly Mexican-American schools or districts.

The same Commission on Civil Rights\(^1\) published another volume which ignited more fire on the part of Mexican-American students. The basic finding of this report is that minority students in the Southwest--Mexican-Americans, Blacks, American Indians--do not obtain the benefits of public education at a rate equal to that of their Anglo classmates. This was found to be true regardless of the measure of school achievement.

Another volume\(^2\) appeared under the above Commission's sponsorship in 1972. Its basic finding was that school systems of the Southwest have not adopted policies and programs which would enable those students to participate fully in

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the benefits of the educational process. Instead, the schools use a variety of exclusionary practices which deny the Chicano student the use of his language, a pride in his heritage, and the support of his community. The suppression of the Spanish language is the most overt area of cultural exclusion. More directly related to Chicago, the Illinois State Advisory Committee on Civil Rights,¹ among its many findings, reported that in 1972, of Chicago's 25,854 public school teachers 390, or 1.5 per cent, were Spanish surnamed. Of 426 schools with Latino enrollment, 303 had no permanent Latino teaching staff. In terms of students, 1,814 Latino high school students and 12,674 Latino elementary school students attended schools with no Latino teachers. Another 24,108 Latino students attended schools having only one Latino teacher; that is 41 per cent of all Latino students in Chicago public schools. The proportion of teachers with Mexican backgrounds was nearly the same as that of the student population. For Puerto Ricans, however, it was only half, but for Cubans and other Latin Americans it was three to four times the proportion within the Latino student population in Chicago.

Carter's study² consists of data gathered in extensive interviews with educators during visits to schools and to


special projects throughout the Southwest. Carter identified three complex and interrelated sets of factors that influence Mexican-American children in their school years: (1) the nature of the diverse Mexican-American subcultures and the societies Mexican-Americans grow in; (2) the kind and quality of formal education available to Mexican-Americans; and (3) the nature of local and regional social systems and the equal or unequal opportunity they afford the minority group.

Servin's anthology\textsuperscript{1} presents several experts' points of view regarding the Mexican-Americans in the United States. According to the main editor, Servin, the Mexican-American is the most historically neglected and ignored group of all the peoples who make up our great nation. The main value of this book is that it presents, through an interdisciplinary approach, the racial, cultural, economic, and political development of the Mexican-American in the United States.

Acuña's book\textsuperscript{2} attempts to interpret the Chicano's past in the United States. His thesis is that Chicanos in the United States are a colonized people. To Acuña, the real issue in the distortion of Mexican-American history is the perpetuation of a mythical version about the invasion and events in Texas and the Mexican Cession, and especially the portrayal


\textsuperscript{2}Rodolfo Acuña, \textit{Occupied America: The Chicano's Struggle Toward Liberation} (San Francisco: Canfield Press, 1972), pp. 11-54.
of American settlers as freedom-loving individuals versus the Mexicans as inferior and degenerate. The author has, through his book, set a precedent for Chicanos to view themselves in history.

Puerto Ricans, although large in numbers, have not been as well studied by social scientists as have Mexican-Americans. In an unpublished document, Smith\(^1\) studied the factors that contribute to educational underachievement among urban Puerto Rican youth in our major American cities. The author correlated the effect of migration on achievement in the intermediate grades showing a negative correlation. However, he does point out that a number of other factors do contribute to educational underachievement.

Fishman and Casiano\(^2\) reported on the treatment of Puerto Ricans in four New York City dailies, two published in English and two in Spanish, during the sixth-month period March-August, 1967, inclusive. It was found that in comparison with the Spanish dailies, the English dailies: (1) were more concerned with Puerto Rican/Anglo-American inter-group relations, (2) referred more frequently to the Spanish language but did so more frequently for identifying purposes rather than in a positive vein; (3) more frequently referred to Puerto Ricans in connection with their needs or problems;

\(^{1}\text{William A. Smith, "A Case Study of Puerto Rican Migration and Its Effects on Achievement in the Intermediate Grades" (unpublished paper, Loyola University of Chicago, 1972, 26 pp. (Mimeographed.)}\)

(4) less frequently offered solutions or remedial steps in conjunction with these problems; (5) less frequently attributed positive traits to Puerto Ricans and more frequently attributed negative traits to them; less frequently characterized Negroes in either negative or positive terms; and (7) less frequently referred to the Spanish language positively in conjunction with Puerto Ricans as Americans.

Lucas' study showed indications of large percentages of dropouts among Chicago Puerto Ricans. Their educational problems seemed to be similar to those of other Spanish-speaking pupils in urban situations. Among the findings, one of great importance for the purposes of the present investigation, was that Puerto Rican youth, especially dropouts, have an identity problem. His experience of discrimination has taught him his place in society as a second-class citizen. But he is a member of a culture where self-worth and sense of pride is a vital element. The youth, Lucas found out, feels trapped in the city and torn between mixed feelings about himself almost to the point of schizophrenia.

A socio-historic interpretation of the Puerto Rican experience was presented by Maldonado-Denis. He gives an interpretation of Puerto Rican history and society different from that offered by those who defend the colonial condition


of the island. The central theme of the historical analysis is the struggle waged throughout the nation's development between the forces competing for power under the ruling colonial system and the forces opposing the system; it is a struggle between those who are in agreement with the demise of colonialism as a world historical trend and those who are anti-historical and retrogressive in their support of colonialism. It manages to expose the unreality of the twin myths about Puerto Rico: that it is either a society of colonial servility and docility or a democratic showcase of democracy.

Bilingualism

One of the most sensitive senators to the problems of the Spanish-speaking population of the United States is Ralph W. Yarborough (D-Tex.). He was extremely helpful in the passing of the Bilingual Education Act 1967, the first bill ever put before the Congress to deal with this problem. In a thought-provoking article, Yarborough summarized some of his thoughts related to bilingualism as a social force by saying that: language is at best a crude and imprecise tool to reflect and express the infinitely subtle ramifications of thought. But through increased understanding of the semantic imprecision of language lies our conviction to understand: nations must learn to understand nations; peoples must learn to understand peoples; and man must learn to understand his

fellowman. It is through language, perhaps through language alone, that this understanding can be achieved. When the light of learning is kindled in a child, when that child embraces and masters his own language and then goes on and gains understanding of other tongues, a foundation for understanding is being laid.

Gaarder, Specialist in Foreign Languages, U.S. Office of Education, expresses his thinking on bilingualism as follows:

We have the whole tide of events going all over the country—people who are calling, writing, thinking, and talking about the same things you are here to do. All over the country, people are beginning to ask themselves: "How could we possibly have been giving these bilingual kids such a dirty deal all these years? How is it possible we have done this?"

He continues:

The tide is moving with us. It is no time to be timid about these things; everything is on our side. People are ready for it. They are ready to admit, they are even anxious to proclaim that the other group is all right already. For whatever reason, the word is going out all over the world, "We will help you be human in your way." We could not have met at a more propitious time. I am so glad to be here and to have a hand in writing this bible.

In regard to performance, Macnamara, professor of

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2 Ibid., p. 12.

psychology at McGill University feels strongly about testing that has been done on bilingualism. He sums up his views as follows:

I do not believe there is any evidence that there are two different sorts of bilinguals, coordinate and compound, at least as these have been described in the literature; I do not believe that bilingualism is directly related to intelligence; I do not believe that bilingualism is directly related to creativity.

He feels that valuable information in this field will be gained only through careful studies of infants: the development of their psychological functioning as a whole, of their classification of objects and the bases of such classification, and of the assumptions which they make or do not make in their approaches to the world about them and in their approaches to language, and of their ability to generalize. He states that more careful studies are needed as to how language learning relates to other psychological developments.

Lambert and Peal\(^1\) did one such study which concluded that bilinguals, treated in two languages, become more adept at concept formation and abstract thinking. They concluded that bilinguals may develop more flexibility in thinking.

On the other hand, Anastasi believes as follows:

The actual effect of language handicap upon test performance is likely to be most serious, however, when such a handicap is present to a mild degree. If the individual has a moderate understanding of English, it is usually deemed unnecessary to give him a nonverbal test. But such an individual may lack the facility in the use of English

or the range of vocabulary required to compete fairly on a verbal test.¹

Mosley² conducted a study in an effort to ascertain the attitude held by the lay parent most directly involved in bilingualism and most directly affected by its problems. Among his conclusions the following seem important: (1) parents were found to be highly favorable towards bilingualism; (2) areas with a large percentage of Mexican-American pupils should establish bilingual programs at the earliest opportunity to comply with present-day professional opinion and the wishes of the school patronage.

O'Connor³ attempted to determine the number of pupils of limited English-speaking ability attending public and parochial schools in the state of Vermont, the schools of such attendance, the non-English mother tongues spoken by children, and their economic status which may qualify the schools for benefits of the Bilingual Education Act. His conclusions emphasized the need for bilingualism in the state of Vermont.

Lambert and Tucker⁴ did an extensive study on how


language affects thinking and learning. In doing so, they also made another valuable contribution to the field, i.e., "A Suggested Model for Evaluating Bilingual Programs." It is extensively described in the book entitled Bilingual Education of Children.

Another study which dealt specifically with Puerto Ricans was conducted by Sister Mary Gratia O'Brien, O.P. Ph.D.\(^1\) It investigated, by means of a self-report check-list, the self-perceptions of Puerto Rican children in contrast to the self-perception of children of other ethnic backgrounds on the following variables: school achievement, teacher-ratings on behavior, mental ability, socio-economic status, and appraisal-perception.

The findings indicated that when mental ability and school achievement, as measured by standardized tests, were comparable the self-perceptions of Puerto Rican children did not differ from those of other children. However, when school achievement and classroom behavior, as measured by teacher ratings, were comparable the self-perception of the Puerto Rican children was significantly lower than those of other children. Also, when socio-economic levels were comparable, the self-perceptions of Puerto Rican children were significantly lower than those of other children. The relationships

\(^1\)Sister Mary Gratia O'Brien, "Relationship of Self Perceptions of Puerto Rican and Non-Puerto Rican Parochial School Children to Selected School Related Variables" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Fordham University, 1970),
of the self-perception scores to the appraisal-perception scores were not found to be significantly different for Puerto Rican and other children.

Two other works that are related to the field of bilingual education are the two volume work by Andersson and Boyer\textsuperscript{1} and the unpublished dissertation by Flores.\textsuperscript{2} Andersson's works are very informative sources on the background of the bilingual education movement that exists today. They also deal with bilingual education legislation and bilingual education in European countries; they provide descriptions of bilingual programs in the United States up to 1970. Because of their wealth of information, these volumes have been used as texts for bilingual education courses in universities throughout the country.

The Flores dissertation presented an in-depth study of five elementary bilingual programs and a general survey of others in operation in the United States in 1969. The purpose of his study was to determine the nature and effectiveness of bilingual education programs for the Spanish-speaking child in the United States.

Now that the literature of the field has been ex-


amined, the next section will deal with the historical developments which led to the need for bilingual education in Chicago. This in turn is followed by a consideration of the socio-cultural characteristics of Spanish-speaking students as they relate to bilingual education and its social implications.
CHAPTER III

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENTS WHICH LED TO THE NEED FOR
BILINGUAL EDUCATION IN CHICAGO

Introduction

The following questions have been asked over and over again. Why all this talk today about bilingual education for the Spanish-speaking? Why are so many programs being developed for them? People of other ethnic backgrounds struggled and "made it." What is different about the Spanish-speaking?

To adequately answer these questions it is necessary to go back many decades and trace the history of this subject. Ever since 1607 with the founding of the first permanent English settlement in North America, immigrants have been coming to this continent.

In 1763 a peace treaty was signed in Paris which ended the French and Indian War. However, this treaty also made important changes in the rule of America. The one that is of concern to this study was that the greater part of North America, north of the Rio Grande was from then on to be under the English language and the English common law, thus giving rise to an English nation in the Western Hemisphere.¹ For a

¹Thomas B. Lawler, Standard History of America (Boston: Ginn & Co., 1939), pp. 157, 158.
few decades after this event immigration dwindled, but the War of 1812 again drew European attention to the United States. In 1817, 22,000 immigrants came to this country. Their numbers continually increased so that by 1849 they were coming at the rate of 100,000 a year. From 1840 to 1860 the population of the United States grew from 17,000,000 to 31,000,000. These people settled mainly in the West where there was land and in the North where there were jobs for which they would not have to compete with the Black slavery prevalent in the South.\(^1\) The two World Wars and the economic and political conditions of Europe also brought more "tired, poor, huddled, masses" to the shores of the United States.

All of these immigrants tried to become part of the mainstream of American life. Many of them struggled, worked very hard, "made it," and became assimilated into American society. The countries from which they came were hundreds of miles away. They came to the United States with the intention of staying here because it was too far, it took too long, and it was too expensive to travel back and forth. In some cases they could not go back home for political reasons. Because of this, many completely cut the ties with their fatherland.

If they did not know English when they came, and many did not, they studied diligently to learn it. This meant survival and a chance to get ahead. All of these immigrants were

Thus, the white Anglo-Saxon melting pot ideal seemed to be becoming a reality and schools played an important part in this phenomenon. During the great influx of immigrants of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, society turned to the schools as the great assimilators of the children of diverse ethnic backgrounds into the mainstream of American life. Many children of immigrants learned English and not the mother tongue. This was especially true of third and fourth generation descendants. However, bilingual schools were in existence at this time also, in fact, as early as 1839. Figure 1, pages 36-37, points this out very clearly, and shows the ethnic groups and languages involved. It also substantiates the fact that bilingual education is not something entirely new, but that it can be considered as having two parts. It is now geared to another group of people because of the need in the country today.

All the people who attained success in the mainstream in society seemed to have two very noticeable qualities: they were white and they could speak English. Could it be that the special formula for absorption into the mainstream is: white + English-speaking = success?

If there is a mainstream then there probably are auxiliary branches. Some questions about these branches can be raised for consideration. What about the Indian, the American Indian? Was he accepted for himself? This country belonged to him before any other groups even knew it existed. He spoke his own language, but he was capable of learning
Pre-World War I

Segment 1
Public Elementary Schools

Phase 1 1839-1880
German—the only non-English tongue admitted in most schools

French—in Louisiana

Spanish—in New Mexico from 1848

Phase 2 1880-1917
German-English Bilingual Schools in Cincinnati, Indianapolis, Baltimore, New Ulm, Minnesota, and many rural places

German taught as a subject in other schools but not used as a medium of instruction

Norwegian, Czech, Italian, Polish, Dutch occasionally taught, but not used as a medium of instruction

Figure 1.--Bilingual Schooling in the United States—Part I
Segment 2
Non-Public Schools

Phase 1 Before 1880
German Schools flourished throughout the country

French schools in New England

Phase 2 After 1880
Multiplication of French and Scandinavian schools
Numerous schools for Eastern and Southern Europeans, e.g., Poles, Lithuanians, Slovaks

Many Scandinavian and some Dutch schools in the Midwest

Between Two World Wars
Franco-American schools in New England

Some Chinese, many Japanese schools in Hawaii and on the West Coast

Figure 1.--Continued

English. He was not white, but there was much he could contribute to society. So why the Indian reservations?

Then there is the Black race. Blacks were brought to America and put into slavery. Could they flow into the mainstream easily? What were and are their obstacles?

When the services of the Chinese were needed in the gold fields of California and in the construction of the Pacific railroads, they were imported into the United States. But when it was feared that they would become too numerous, Congress passed a law in 1882 forbidding the admission of Chinese laborers into the United States for at least ten years. In 1924 the Japanese were also excluded by a law which applied to all people of the yellow race. A serious race problem was feared if too many were invited into this country.\(^1\) Therefore, their numbers here today are not as great as the other groups mentioned. They are a respectful and humble people but do they feel totally a part of the American mainstream? Their youth is becoming vocal on this issue. What about their language? It is so different, even the alphabet is made up of "strange characters."

Are the Spanish-speaking people accepted into the mainstream? Their home lands are closer to the United States than are the European countries. Their family ties are very strong; they want to go back home as often as possible. Is this wrong? Are they considered too transient to "fit in"? Are their

\(^{1}\text{Ibid.}, \text{p. 468.}\)
attitudes toward the United States different because of the part it played especially in Mexican and Puerto Rican history? What about the Cubans? They are Latinos also. Is their situation the same or different from that of the Mexicans, Puerto Ricans, or the Latins from South America? Might it be closer to the European phenomenon?

A multi-faceted situation exists. The purpose of this chapter is to study the history of the Spanish-speaking people in depth and to see why a rebirth of bilingual education took place. Let us look more closely at each Hispanic group, study their historical problems, and then see how bilingual education came to be an inevitable outcome.

Background Features of Mexican Immigration and Migration

A predominant group of Latins in the United States and the oldest Latin group in Chicago, is the Mexican population. For the most part the Mexicans did not come to this country by their own choice, for freedom, or for the improvement of their socio-economic life. In a sense it came to them. Many entered American life as a conquered people following the War of 1848 or for economic reasons over which they had no control. Because of its far-reaching effects in the United States, the Mexican-American War can serve as a starting point.

Mexican-American War: 1846-1848

There are two sides in any dispute and this war was no exception. Without acting as an evaluator, the investigator
will simply state the issues that were under discussion, relate how both sides viewed them, and state the outcomes of the war. The major issues were the following: the annexation of Texas, the adjustment of the boundary between Texas and Mexico, the claims by the United States citizens against the Mexican government arising from the Texas revolution, the refusal by the Mexican government to accept the offer of President Polk, and the acquisition of California, Arizona, and New Mexico.

The Mexican government saw the situation in this way. The United States intended to obtain Texas and the territory between the Nueces and Rio Grande Rivers at any price. In order to accomplish this, the United States housed its citizens in this territory to increase the population. It was gradually preparing to seize the first opportunity to strike the blow. The Republic of Mexico could not remain indifferent to the cry of rebellion raised within her boarders. It tried to have order restored first by a conciliatory method of agreement. It proposed new advantages and franchises to the colonies, for example, being exempt from paying taxes for ten years. When it was seen "that every peaceable proposition was discarded, it was decided to declare war, and subject, by actual force, those who were not willing to hear any other argument but the roar of the cannon."\(^1\) The army, under the

leadership of General Santa Anna, marched upon Texas, and the campaign opened under the most favorable conditions.

The Texans prepared to make a vigorous resistance. To sustain it, they counted on effective aid from the United States which gave them their protection. Men, arms, and all other needed supplies came to assist the cause of the Texans from the most populous cities of the Union. All the while these cities claimed the strictest neutrality. The whole world witnessed the conduct pursued by the American government and could do nothing less but discover the plans it pursued.¹

From the point of view of the United States the situation looked like this. The relations with Mexico had grown steadily worse. For years the Mexican government had persistently hampered the easy interchange of commerce between the two countries. It had failed miserably to protect the lives and property of American citizens in Mexico. It had disregarded its promises to pay for the losses Americans had suffered.

In February, 1845, Congress admitted Texas into the Union claiming its southwest boundary to be the Rio Grande River. The Mexicans insisted the boundary to be the Nueces River. They also withdrew their representative from Washington. The slave holders in the South of the United States wanted the territory of California because they believed that from it several new slave states could be created. President

¹Ibid., p. 14.
Polk shared this feeling. In September, 1845, he sent an ambassador, John Slidell, to Mexico to settle the Texas boundary and offer a round sum of money for California. If Mexico would agree to sell this great region, Polk was ready to yield in the boundary dispute, but Mexico refused to consider this offer. Polk ordered General Zachary Taylor and his troops to occupy the territory on or near the Rio Grande del Norte in order to be able to protect the western frontier. By May 9, 1846, Polk had decided to declare war on Mexico, but then he heard that on April 24, the Mexicans had crossed the Rio Grande and killed a number of American soldiers. On May 13, war was declared because Mexico had passed the boundary of the United States and had invaded the territory to shed American blood on American soil. The United States troops continued through Mexico winning the battles that were fought. On August 10, 1846, the United States offered liberal terms of peace to the Mexican government. These were refused. On September 14, Mexico City was conquered. The United States encountered no resistance after that.

Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo

On February 2, 1848, the Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo was signed. The main terms of the document were: the disputed area between the Rio Grande and the Nueces Rivers, plus New Mexico and California, including all the area that lay between them, was ceded to the United States. The amount of land Mexico ceded to the United States was greater in extent than
Germany and France combined and represented one-half of the territory which Mexico possessed in 1821. The negotiators did not know that, nine days before, gold had been discovered in California. The government of the United States, in return, made a cash payment of fifteen million dollars to Mexico and agreed to cancel all claims due from Mexico to American citizens. The United States government undertook to satisfy these debts to the extent of three and a quarter million dollars. The treaty also granted civil, political, and religious rights to the Spanish-speaking colonists and attempted to protect their culture and language. This is to the credit of the Mexican negotiators. The treaty contained the most explicit guarantees to protect the rights of their people. The negotiators were more concerned with this than over the boundaries or indemnities. Carey McWilliams points out that,

It should never be forgotten that, with the exception of the Indians, Mexicans are the only minority in the United States who were annexed by conquest; the only minority, Indians again excepted, whose rights were specifically safeguarded by treaty provision.

However, it also has to be remembered that many of these provisions regarding the rights of the Mexicans were never implemented.


3McWilliams, p. 103.
**Automatic Citizenship**

The most far-reaching factor of the treaty was that those Mexicans who preferred to remain in the territories now governed by the United States could either retain the title and rights of Mexican citizens or acquire those of the citizens of the United States. After one year, if no declaration of intention to retain the Mexican citizenship was made, they would automatically be considered citizens of the United States with all the rights and privileges this guaranteed.¹

**Railroad Construction**

Moving ahead a few decades to the 1880's, the economic expansion of the Southwest and the development of the railroads took place. The need for labor was great so the nation turned to Mexico for manpower. Mexican labor was extensively used in the construction of the Southern Pacific and Santa Fe lines. Since then:

Mexicans have made up seventy percent of the section crews and ninety percent of the extra gangs on the principal western lines which regularly employ between 35,000 and 50,000 workmen in these categories. In 1930, the Santa Fe reported that it was employing 14,000 Mexicans; the Rock Island 3,000; the Great Northern 1,500; and the Southern Pacific 10,000. According to the census of 1930, 70,799 Mexicans were engaged in "transportation and communication" mostly as common laborers on the western lines and as maintenance workers on the streetcar systems of the Southwest. In Kansas and Nebraska, Mexican settlements will be found to extend along the rail lines while the colonies in Kansas City and Chicago are outgrowths of Mexican railroad camps. As late as 1928 the boxcar labor

camps of the railroad housed 459 Mexican men, 155 women, and 372 children.¹

Because the railroad work was seasonal, the workers sought employment in other industries. Consequently the railroad companies kept recruiting additional workers in Mexico. Railroad employment stimulated migration because the companies provided transportation to various points along the lines.

As large-scale cotton farming and cotton gin plants emerged in southwest Texas, Mexicans from across the border came to increase the labor force. In the growth of commercial fruit and vegetable productions in the Southwest between 1900 and 1940, there was not a single crop in the production and harvesting of which Mexicans had not played a major role. The fabulous increase of production which set the Southwest on its feet financially could not have taken place as rapidly as it did without the use of Mexican labor. Now it is pertinent to examine the situation of the Mexicans in Chicago.

Mexicans in Chicago

The Southwest was not the only section of the country that benefitted from Mexican immigration and migration. Many Mexicans came to Chicago after World War I with the promise of work, in the steel mills at the southern end of Lake Michigan or in the railroad yards just southwest of the city.

The early arrivals in the city settled chiefly in two Roman Catholic parishes, Our Lady of Guadalupe, 3200 East 91st Street in South Chicago, and St. Francis of Assisi, Roosevelt and Halsted, on the Near West Side. South Chicago by mid-1920 contained one of the first sizeable Mexican settlements.

In 1930 there were about 4,000 Mexicans in this community alone. The earliest concentration was in the Mill Gate area extending east of Houston Avenue from 83rd to 92nd Streets. They soon spread westward from Mill Gate, crossing first the Illinois Central Railroad tracks, then Commercial Avenue to settle around Bessemer Park, and in the "Bush" around 86th Street and Escanaba Avenue. The population next drifted to South Deering and Calumet Heights. In 1960, the Mexicans in South Chicago were the largest ethnic group after the Polish. South Chicago is now the oldest and most stable Latin settlement in the city. Present day residents include many second- and third-generation Mexican Americans, born and educated in the community.

The Mexicans who settled around Roosevelt and Halsted in the 1920's came to work on the seven trunk line railroads whose yards and car shops were located in the area. The community then extended itself on either side of Halsted Street from Harrison Street to 18th Street. Residents recall that this area was a port of entry for Mexicans poor in money and English. Construction for Circle Campus displaced many settlers so that today only about 4,000 Latins are left in this
neighborhood. The center of the Mexican community moved to 18th Street. Along 18th from Halsted to Western one can find numerous Latin stores and restaurants. About 1950, the Mexican population began moving westward and a second major settlement formed around 22nd Street and California, the Little Village Area. The heaviest concentration is between California and Central Park, Cermak Road (22nd) and 26th Street.

With continued movement of Mexicans, a third major settlement took root around 45th Street and Ashland Avenue, in the Back of the Yards area, especially centered in the Roman Catholic Parish of Immaculate Heart of Mary. Employment again was the incentive for settlement. By 1960, in the Armour Square Area, referred to as the workingman's residential area, the Mexican population was the second largest group among the foreign born of the area. Smaller settlements can be found scattered throughout the city, one in Bridgeport, another between Halsted Street and the Dan Ryan Expressway and south of 26th Street. Moving northward a number of Mexicans are establishing themselves in the areas of Uptown, Lakeview, and Lincoln Park along the lake.¹

The following tables offer some statistics on the Mexican population. The first two are from the Department of Immigration, the third from Census Information for Chicago and-

Cook County. A great difference in the figures between the two sources of data will be noticed. Those counted by the Immigration Department represent the people from Mexico itself who came across the border with a visa. The census figures include those plus Mexican-Americans, people of Mexican descent born in the United States. The Chicago Sun-Times, the United States Department of Commerce and the O.M.A.R. Company suggest that the total number may be even greater due to the fact that many Mexicans cross the border without a visa.

TABLE 1.--Mexican Immigration to the United States--1961-1971\(^a\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Immigrants</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Immigrants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>41,632</td>
<td>1966</td>
<td>45,163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962</td>
<td>55,291</td>
<td>1967</td>
<td>42,371</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963</td>
<td>55,253</td>
<td>1968</td>
<td>43,563</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1964</td>
<td>32,967</td>
<td>1969</td>
<td>44,623</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>37,969</td>
<td>1970</td>
<td>44,469</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1971</td>
<td>50,103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total 493,404</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\)Farrell, op. cit., p. 54.

TABLE 2.--Mexican Immigration to Illinois--Year Ended June 30, 1971\(^a\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Immigrants</th>
<th>Immigrants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Illinois</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural Areas (Pop. under 2,500)</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban Areas (Pop. 2,500-99,999)</td>
<td>1,118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chicago</td>
<td>2,673</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peoria</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rockford</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 3.—Mexicans in Chicago—Census Figures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Mexicans</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1920</td>
<td>1,265</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1930</td>
<td>20,260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>7,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1950</td>
<td>13,450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>27,794</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>49,086</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>93,389   Mexicans in Cook Countya</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


While the country was advancing economically, with the help of Mexican labor, the people themselves were enduring many hardships. They had very little money, sometimes none at all. Often they lacked the very basic necessities of life. Theirs has been a long history of suffering, exploitation, and oppression. However, running through their history have been their attempts to unite and form organizations to help each other socially and economically or to protect one another from injustices. The following are only a few of the many that were formed.
The most famous of the early organizations was Alianza Hispano Americana. Formed in Tucson, Arizona, in 1894, its original purpose was to provide funeral and insurance benefits for its people. It did not limit itself to social or economic functions; however, it also became involved in politics. In 1921, in Kansas City, La Liga Protectiva Mexicana was formed in response to the threat of deportation. Also in 1921, in San Antonio, Texas, La Orden de Hijos de America was established. Its purpose was to use its influence in all fields of social, economic, and political action in order for the Mexican people to realize the greatest enjoyment possible of all the rights and privileges and prerogatives extended by the American Constitution.

A later development of La Orden was the League of United Latin American Citizens. It was formed in Harlingen, Texas, in 1928. It was supposed to incorporate the councils of La Orden into one organization with lodges; however, the older councils would not submit. Its purpose was to develop within its members the best, purest, and most perfect type of a true and loyal citizen of the United States. Its major emphasis was education. It was an important organization because it was formed to benefit the Chicanos.¹ (Throughout the years the term Chicano has meant: an American of Mexican descent, a person wanting change, a term suggesting racial and

cultural pride.) Late in the nineteenth century and into the twentieth century there have been repeated attempts by the Mexican farm laborers to unite against their "masters." They conducted strike after strike for fair working conditions and wages. Although they lost almost every struggle with management, the importance of these efforts cannot be overlooked. They show that the Mexican workers can unite and collectively have power—a power they can use to advance economic self-determination.

During the 1960's large numbers of Mexican-Americans, for the first time from all social and economic levels of society, began developing programs and organizations which when taken together are referred to as the Chicano Movement. World War II made them aware of their political and economic rights and conscious of how these rights were being denied them. Four prominent leaders of this movement are César Chávez of California, Rodolfo (Corky) Gonzales of Colorado, José Angel Gutiérrez of Texas, and Reies López Tijerina of New Mexico.

César Chávez is an apostle of the nonviolent approach to reform. He is a nationally recognized leader of the Chicanos. Since 1962 he has worked unceasingly against all types of obstacles, tribulations, and reverses to bring the benefits of union organization to the farm worker. His original group was known as the National Farm Worker's Association. Today it is known as the United Farm Worker's Organizing Committee (UFWOC). Within its structure it has developed
for its members a death benefit plan, a cooperative grocery, drug store, and gas station, a credit union, a medical clinic, a social protest theater group, the Teatro Campesino, and a newspaper, *El Malcriado*. Today this organization has extended its efforts beyond helping farm workers and also addresses itself to the problems affecting the Chicano community as a whole and provides a unifying force in the struggle for Chicano civil rights.

Reies López Tijerina, a militant activist, put his efforts into attacking Anglo usurpation of their land in northern New Mexico. He insisted it be returned to its rightful owners. In 1963 he began to organize Alianza Federal de Mercedes (Federal Alliance of Land Grants).

The basic tenet of the Alianza is that all problems of Chicanos derive from the loss of their lands to Anglo intruders. Tijerina had as his original, primary objective the recovery of village common lands and creation of a Confederation of Free City-States in a socioeconomic atmosphere of rural utopian simplicity. However, other objectives such as ethnic identity have received increased stress in recent years. Tijerina believes that the United States government has failed to protect Spanish-speaking people from discrimination and insists that all public school teachers in New Mexico be fluent in Spanish as well as English, as required by the state constitution. Like Chávez' UFWOC, the Alianza is the product of intense personal leadership. Its uniqueness lies
in its strong emotional, religious flavor and deep feeling of millennial purpose.

From Denver, Colorado comes another leader, Rodolfo "Corky" Gonzales. He is a strong advocate of Chicano nationalism. In 1965, he founded the Crusade for Justice, a movement to create a Chicano society based on humanism rather than materialism. He viewed the crusade as a vehicle by which the objectives of the Chicano movement could be articulated and carried out. This is basically a civil-rights organization with demands similar to other militant groups. It calls for reformation of the police force and the courts, better housing, relevant education for the Chicanos, greater and more varied employment opportunities, and land reform. Its slogan is "Venceremos."

Corky Gonzales is also known as the author of the epic poem "Yo Soy Joaquín" which dramatizes the liberation of the Chicanos from the goals of American society and presents a vision of a new cultural future for la raza. However, his most important contribution has been the instituting of the annual Chicano Youth Liberation Conference, March, 1969. At this time the delegates voted overwhelmingly to adopt El Plan Espiritual de Aztlan. The Crusade and the Plan appeal to Chicano youth. It is the best example of self-determination based on a philosophy of nationalism.

The youngest of the Chicano leaders is José Angel Gutiérrez (twenty-seven years old in 1972). He is a strong
political realist who believes that the Chicanos can never achieve control of their own destinies by being a part of either of the existing political parties. They had tried for many years without much success. Therefore, early in the year 1970, Gutiérrez established a new political party, La Raza Unida. Its initial goal was to gain economic, political, and social control of about twenty counties in South Texas. Being basically a political party, the leaders envision La Raza Unida as an ethnic institution that will break through Anglo oppression and repression. It is a means of safeguarding the Chicano bicultural and bilingual uniqueness. Therefore, this organization seeks self-determination by attaining political power. Its members have already achieved this in Crystal City, Texas, where through elections the Raza Unida candidates won the positions on the schoolboard, thus for the first time creating a majority of Mexican-American members on the board. Raza Unida candidates also made spectacular wins in city council elections in Carrizo Springs and Cotulla, towns close to Crystal City. These victories, though not without reaction and resistance, encourage the Chicanos in their belief that the ballot box is a feasible route to power. It is also a symbol of Chicano strength through unity.\(^1\)

Although the center of activity of the Chicano movement is in the Southwest, it cannot be contained there. It

is moving northward and has come to Chicago. It is affecting the lives of Chicanos here and it is also affecting the Anglos, who see their Chicano neighbors uniting, being proud of their heritage, and working for "la causa." The foundations of La Raza Unida Party are being laid in Chicago also. As a party, it has been in the city for about two years. It is getting organized and is educating its people politically. It has not been officially recognized as a party in Chicago as it has been in Texas, but steps are being taken in that direction. In February, 1973, Angel Moreno was a candidate for Congressman in the Seventh Congressional District of Illinois. Although a member of Raza Unida, he ran as an independent because at that time the party was too new and too weak. The party may gain strength in elections in the not too distant future.

The previous sections explained the social, economic, and political situation of the Mexican-American. For many years his educational life suffered from deprivation and neglect also. It was not until 1950 that his needs in this area began to be noticed by the school system. About this time another Latin group was also making its presence felt in the States, the Puerto Ricans. Before we get into the education issue, their history will be examined.

Background Features of Puerto Rican Migration

Historical Developments

Why do the Puerto Rican people leave their beautiful island to come to the busy, bustling cities of Chicago, New
York, Philadelphia, Cleveland, etc.? History gives us some answers.

The island is one of the group of the Great Antilles situated in the Caribbean Sea. It was discovered by Christopher Columbus during his second trip to the New World, November 19, 1493. He named the island San Juan Bautista; it had been called Borinquen by the Taino Indians. He made plans to establish a settlement there, but not until 1508 when Ponce de León brought a small group of fifty men did a permanent colony become established at Caparra. This section was located among the low hills lying west of what today is known as San Juan harbor. In 1511 the name of Caparra was changed to Puerto Rico. On account of a sudden burst of trade with Spain, and the unsuitable loading and unloading conditions, the city was moved to the small island commanding the entrance to the harbor where Old San Juan stands today. Eventually the capital came to be called San Juan, and the island Puerto Rico. The sixteenth century saw Puerto Rico as the subject of numerous attacks, first by the Caribs, a fierce, cannibalistic tribe of Indians, then by the French, English, and Dutch. Since the inhabitants were constantly using their energies to defend themselves they had little time for agricultural development. However, the persistency with which the early Puerto Ricans desperately tried to hold on to their land is truly a marvel of early colonial history in the New World.

The seventeenth century brought other problems for the Puerto Ricans. Due to Spain's strict, exclusive control
on trade relations between Puerto Rico and other countries, those who could not negotiate for what they wanted took it by smuggling or privateering. It is true that in this way many of the natural resources were being taken from the island. These practices became so well established that Puerto Rico became one of the most important privateering bases, second only to New York, in the New World.

By the middle of the eighteenth century Puerto Rico was beginning to be what its name signified. However, as in all countries not everyone became rich and there was much poverty in the rural interior. Part of the population was often short of food and other supplies, while the rest lived free and easy lives as a result of their smuggling. Spain often neglected or mismanaged affairs in Puerto Rico. However, as the eighteenth century drew to a close and revolutions blazed in Spain and the New World, Spain realized the value of Puerto Rico's strategic position and finished the fort of San Cristobal, a partner to El Morro. This was just in time to ward off an attack by the English under General Sir Ralph Abercromby. His expedition failed. After three centuries this was the last serious attempt of a European country to take the island by force. Finally in the nineteenth century, the Puerto Ricans entered a period of time in which they could devote themselves to economic, political, social, and cultural improvement. The economy expanded, the population grew, a literature developed, the arts flourished.
In the realm of politics there was a persistent movement for autonomy from Spain.

Luis Muñoz Rivera (1859-1916), a great political leader, referred to as the George Washington of Puerto Rico, obtained the "Charter of Autonomy" from Spain in 1897. Though this was a long-awaited event, the Charter hardly had a chance to take effect.¹ With the rise of industrialism and the need for unrivaled trade routes for manufactured goods, the United States wanted to have Puerto Rico, as well as Cuba and Hawaii, under American control. Consequently, one of the results of the Spanish-American War was that Spain gave the island of Puerto Rico to the United States in payment for American expenses during the war.² Therefore, on December 10, 1898, Spanish colonialism ended in Puerto Rico, and American colonialism began; Puerto Rico became a possession of the United States. With this came the expectation that it would first become an incorporated territory and then a state, following the outlines of the Northwest Ordinance of 1787. Even today this is still an unresolved issue. In 1917, the Jones Act granted citizenship to those Puerto Ricans who wanted it (only 288 out of 1,223,981 refused it), and the machinery of internal democracy was somewhat improved.

From 1929-1931, Theodore Roosevelt, Jr., was the governor of Puerto Rico. He did much to preserve the Spanish

²Ibid.
heritage of the islanders and to establish a harmonious climate between a giant English-speaking country and a Spanish-speaking island community. He also recognized the hunger, joblessness, and despair of the hill people. He encouraged the United States to develop the sugar industry on the island which it did with capital, hard work, and modern techniques. But no efforts were made to develop other industries. The coffee industry which was the sole means of support for thousands continued to use antiquated methods with no resources of modernization.

From the hills and the farms, people came to the coasts seeking better living conditions and jobs. There were none to be had so the unemployment figures grew. The mainland looked like the next source for work.¹

Statistics concerning Puerto Rican migration to the United States during the first forty years of American domination show that in 1910 about fifteen hundred Puerto Ricans were living on the mainland; whereas in 1920 there were twelve thousand; in 1930, fifty-three thousand; and in 1940, some seventy thousand. However, this constituted but a small percentage of the total population at that time.²

In 1946, Jesús T. Piñero, the first Puerto Rican governor was appointed. The Jones Act was amended in 1947 to

¹Ibid., p. 14.
allow the Puerto Ricans to elect their own governor. They chose Luis Muñoz Marín, son of Luiz Muñoz Rivera. The Resident Commissioner of Puerto Rico, Antonio Fernos Isern, proposed a bill in Congress authorizing the people "to organize a government pursuant to a constitution of their own adoption." This would be effective only if the people of Puerto Rico and Congress approved it. After a grueling six-month constitutional convention, the document was presented to the voters. They approved it on March 3, 1952, and shortly afterward it was approved by Congress. On July 25, 1952, the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico was proclaimed.¹

The United Nations Assembly voted, in November, 1953, by 26 to 16, to officially recognize that the Puerto Ricans had been "invested with the attributes of political sovereignty which clearly identify the state of self-government attained by the Puerto Rican people as an autonomous political entity."

One more important point has to be discussed before studying the migration of Puerto Ricans. It was mentioned earlier that from the very beginning of its relations with the United States, the idea of statehood ran through the history of the island. As in all political issues there were and still are today differing opinions on this subject. Because of


these differences political parties formed which reflected various viewpoints: the Popular Democratic Party advocates permanent association with the United States through a Commonwealth status; the New Progressive Party, previously known as the Statehood Republican Party, advocates statehood; and the Puerto Rican Independence Party supports complete political separation from the United States.

TABLE 4.--Election Results by Parties

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1952</th>
<th>1956</th>
<th>1960</th>
<th>1964</th>
<th>1968a</th>
<th>1972b</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Popular Democratic (Commonwealth)</td>
<td>64.8%</td>
<td>62.5%</td>
<td>62.4%</td>
<td>59.4%</td>
<td>41.8%</td>
<td>52.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Progressive (Statehood)</td>
<td>12.9%</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>34.3%</td>
<td>34.6%</td>
<td>45.2%</td>
<td>44.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence</td>
<td>19.0%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


An interesting group to watch is the Independence Party. The above data shows that after a sharp decline in numbers after 1956 this party is slowly beginning to increase.

Since 1959, with the founding of the Movimiento Pro Independencia de Puerto Rico (MPI), the struggle for independence is taking a course of action that will create the conditions to make the prompt achievement of independence possible. Young people in Puerto Rico, as well as in the United States, are in the forefront of this struggle. They
realize, however, that they cannot achieve this goal alone. So they see their organization as a vanguard of the people with the objective of opening ways for the Puerto Rican people as a whole to push toward independence. They speak of a national unity wherein people who may at the present time belong to other political parties will realize they are being exploited and join together to confront American imperialism. They are mobilizing the people to use the legal framework available to them, but they also realize that armed activities may be necessary as they have been in other countries of the world who sought their independence. Though the percentage of pro-independence members is still quite small, they are a very vocal group. It is expected that in the next few years a geometrical multiplications of pro-independence activities in Puerto Rico and the United States will be developing. Their main aim is


to force the United States government to recognize the unavoidable fact that Puerto Rico is a nation that forms part of the Latin American family of nations and that, as such, should be free and independent.1

Could it be possible that this growing interest in the issue of independence reflects a movement that is developing throughout the world? It seems to be reflected in the strong tendency to ethnicity and self-identity, the difference in political views between the old and the young, a rebelling against an overly technological society, and
monopolization and exploitation of every kind. This could be a topic for further research.

Just as the Mexican-American population is awakening and uniting to gain the rights so long due them, so too the Puerto Rican people are awakening. Their situation, because of the governmental ties with the United States, had made them less vocal, but the exploitation and oppression of their land and people by the United States has been present nevertheless. It is true that since 1917 the Puerto Ricans have been citizens of the United States, but on many occasions their citizenship has been used only to benefit the United States. Thus the cry for independence is becoming louder, and the Puerto Rican people are trying to establish their own national identity on the island as well as here in Chicago.

Migration

Since Puerto Rico's inhabitants are citizens of the United States they can travel back and forth freely. The rise and fall of Puerto Rican migration is overwhelmingly dependent on business conditions in the United States. "When more workers are needed for the economic system, more come; when fewer are needed, fewer come." The economy of Puerto Rico has risen spectacularly in the last few decades; one reason was "Operation Bootstrap," the plan of the government put into effect in 1947 to bring industry to the island. The percentage of unemployment, however, is still much too high. There are many contributing factors to this phenomenon. The
improvement in agricultural techniques is partly responsible. Also, while manufacturing jobs increase at a much slower rate than income and agricultural employment is losing ground, the rate of population is increasing and the death rate is decreasing due to improvements in living conditions, health, and sanitation.\(^1\) Also as some scholars pointed out in a special issue of the *International Migration Review* devoted to the Puerto Rican experience, the labor shortage in the United States after World War II served as a magnet for Puerto Ricans who in increasing numbers migrated to the mainland. Several other factors contributed to this exodus: a high rate of unemployment in Puerto Rico, the postwar economic boom in the United States, the stiffer immigration laws passed by Congress, and the policy of the Puerto Rican government to foster widespread migration to the States as a kind of "escape valve" for a supposed surplus population considered as a unique Puerto Rican problem.\(^2\)

The escape valve theory has far-reaching effects. In essence it was the deliberate fostering of Puerto Rican migration to the mainland as a way of decongesting the island of excessive population. It had two basic factors: (1) the high density of Puerto Rican population per square mile, and (2) the unabating fertility of Puerto Ricans and the constant fear of population explosion. In this context then, migration came to be seen as one side of a coin, and birth control

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\(^2\)Maldonado-Denis, *op. cit.*, pp. 311-12.
the other. The creation of a Migration Division in New York under the authority of the Secretary of Labor of the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico was a direct result of this policy.

According to Maldonado-Denis:

The massive postwar exodus has been described by one of the most prominent of Puerto Rico's demographers as "one of the greatest exoduses of population registered by history," and its results have been that "if we add to the total number of migrants the number of children that they would have given birth to if they had stayed on the island, we reach the conclusion that between 1940 and 1960 the island lost nearly one million people as a result of this mass migration. To this he adds that from 1950-1960, seventy percent of the migrants were persons from fifteen to thirty-nine years of age. The problem of the "excessive" number of Puerto Ricans was solved by allowing the escape valve to function unimpaired, although naturally with help of the Puerto Rican government. The general outcome of this policy has been that Puerto Rico is an island with about one-third of its population living outside of its territory.¹

This urbanward migration is spontaneous and depends upon job opportunities on the mainland. However, it is not only the unemployed who migrate, many come seeking better jobs, not simply jobs.

Puerto Ricans work in almost all trades and professions that are part of the economic life of the cities. The biggest single group works in the "needle trades," that is, the clothing industry. In hotels, restaurants, steel foundries, food processing plants, and all types of factories one will find a large number of Puerto Rican employees. The professional section of the population has Puerto Rican doctors, teachers, and lawyers.²

¹Ibid., pp. 315-16.
Another stream of migration is seasonal. It flows to the mainland in spring and early summer and back to Puerto Rico in the autumn. These are the farm workers. Their work in Puerto Rico comes to an end just when the demand for farm labor is increasing in the Middle Atlantic and New England States.¹

It is pertinent at this time to look closely at the situation of the Puerto Ricans in Chicago.

Puerto Ricans in Chicago

An attractive spot for Puerto Ricans had always been New York. But, as the job market became saturated with Puerto Rican laborers and their numbers increased in the barrios to almost one million, they looked westward. This often meant Chicago with its diverse industries. The first migration took place in the late 1940's. By 1950 there were about 2,000 Puerto Ricans in Chicago. The first groups settled near Cottage Grove and 63rd Street in Woodlawn. This group was soon displaced by Blacks. By the mid-1950's another group had settled along LaSalle Street on the Near North Side. Construction for the Carl Sandburg Villageuprooted this community. The next section of Chicago to receive Puerto Ricans was Halsted and Garfield. Today the center of the Puerto Rican population is between Division Street and North Avenue from California east to Damen, and along Milwaukee Avenue toward Logan Square. It is growing rapidly and pushing

¹Hoge, op. cit., p. 23.
outward to the J. F. Kennedy Expressway, east; Central Park, west; Armitage, north; and Augusta Blvd., south. Puerto Ricans are gradually moving into the lakefront communities of Lincoln Park, Uptown, and Lakeview. The 1970 census records 89,848 persons of Puerto Rican birth or parentage in Chicago. However, an important point to remember in studying this migration is that, similar to the Mexicans and other Latin Americans, the Puerto Ricans never completely cut their ties with their homeland. They often go back to their island.

TABLE 5.--Puerto Ricans in Chicago--Census Figures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1950</th>
<th>1960</th>
<th>1970</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2,000</td>
<td>32,371</td>
<td>89,848</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


As the economic status of the United States and Chicago was being stimulated by the influx of Puerto Rican laborers and professionals, what was being done in educational areas for the children? The traditional Anglo-Saxon school system which dealt with monolingual, monocultural children was being severely challenged. But before we can tackle this problem we have to look at what was developing on another Caribbean island, Cuba.

The Cuban Crisis and Cuban Immigration

On the morning of January 1, 1959, the people of Cuba, the largest and richest island of the Caribbean, awoke

and learned that their President, Fulgencio Batista, with his government and military officials had fled. That evening Fidel Castro proclaimed Dr. Manuel Urrutia President of the island. He assured the country that he would restore the constitutional guarantees, which had been suspended for many months, as well as freedom of radio and the press; he promised that the annual sugar harvest, which was essential to the livelihood of thousands of people on the island, would take place as scheduled. Like a triumphant Roman emperor, Fidel Castro, entered Havana. On January 5, the new Provisional President Urrutia, arrived at José Martí Airport amidst the cheers of tremendous crowds. His first official act was to dissolve Congress by proclamation and to lift radio and press censorship. The Cubans were confident they could again breathe freely. It was a vain hope. Major Fidel Castro began the task of changing Cuba completely economically, politically, and socially. Castro and his government immediately began organizing military courts. The prisons were becoming more and more crowded as arrests of former government officials, members of armed forces, secret agents, and collaborators of Batista went on. These military trials and the mass executions which followed shocked the world with the first indication of the ruthlessness and vindictiveness of the new government. In the United States it was an awakening to cold reality for many who believed Fidel Castro would bring peace and tranquility to the island. He showed his true self in
other ways also. Little by little more crimes were added to the list for which people could be executed. On May 18, the Agrarian Reform Law was signed into effect. It hit a hard blow to the already depressed economy of the island. In effect it made the government the owner of all the land of the island. Heavy taxes were being placed on almost all goods. Large companies were being taken over by the government. Attacks were constantly being made against the United States and its citizens were leaving the island. The Caribbean cruise lines were cutting off service to Cuba. The retail merchants were worried about their business and wholesalers were tightening their credit on the shopkeepers whose trade was steadily decreasing. Hardly any luxury goods were being sold because the wealthy were leaving the island. By June, 1959, open opposition to Castro began to increase. In August a revolution against Castro was begun but it was not successful.

The first Christmas under the new government was called the "revolutionary Christmas." Even Santa Claus was banished as an imperialist and undesirable foreigner. The government provided Don Feliciano, or Mr. Happiness, in his place. The children were little impressed with Don Feliciano, who wore a straw hat, baggy trousers and leggings, and had an expression that was anything but happy. May Day had been a traditional feast day of the workers, but May 1, 1960, was a day to show the military strength of the Castro regime.
By July, 1960, almost all Americans had left the island. An American who had lived in Havana for many years said,

The whole thing is unbelievable. We have always felt Cuba was our home. We like the Cuban people and they liked us. Now we have become aware that only a spark in the dynamite of the hate-American campaign is necessary to explode into personal attacks and the killing of Americans in Cuba.\(^1\)

At this time the exodus of professional men really got under way. American companies were taking out any Cuban technicians who wanted to leave the country. One by one the United States companies and banks were being seized. Another revolt against the Castro regime was attempted but it was suppressed and its leaders shot. On October 14 all of the remaining big industrial, commercial, and transportation companies of the island were confiscated by Premier Castro. By October 25 the government seized 166 United States companies. That just about completed the seizure of American enterprises in Cuba. This amounted to about one billion dollars. American homes in Cuba were seized and confiscated as soon as their owners left.

Since early 1959, people had been leaving Cuba. First the Batista people fled and most of the extremely wealthy who had funds abroad left the island. Later those whose property was confiscated left if they could get enough funds to do so. Some of these had money in the United States, some did not. From the middle of 1960, when Castro started confiscating all American property, the stream of refugees increased. By November, 1960, it was estimated that 60,000 Cubans had gone to the United States, mostly to Miami and South Florida.\(^2\)

---


\(^2\) Ibid., pp. 268-69.
Daily long lines waited at the Visa Section of the American Embassy to get a "tourist visa." If the adults could not leave they sent their children to relatives, friends, and sometimes even strangers. Hundreds of children were sent out of Cuba. Through 1961 and 1962 several thousand children arrived in the United States to be taken care of by the government through Catholic and other agencies.

The exodus from Cuba went on almost continually until January 3, 1961, when the United States finally broke all diplomatic relations with Cuba. No more visas could be issued. Several hundred Cubans were hysterical that day and stormed the embassy with the frantic hope that they could leave. Some had slips of paper entitling them to see a consul on that very day. They had waited for months and now their chance to leave Cuba was gone. The embassy advised American residents to leave Cuba.

On January 6th the government suspended the issuance of military exit permits to Cubans. Thousands of Cubans already had permits, so the planes leaving Cuba were crowded day after day as the exodus continued. These Cubans had received United States visas as "insurance" probably several weeks or months previously, and now decided it was time to go.¹

Despite all the arrests and all other difficulties, the flood of refugees from Cuba continues. These include members of the upper and middle classes, educated and professional persons who had lost all their property and possessions, peasants, fishermen, and workers of every kind. The

¹Ibid., p. 295.
newest arrivals, it must be remembered, have lived more than ten years under Communist domination. Many have been reduced to poverty and suffered indoctrination. As a result they suffer from various psychological problems.

**Cubans in Chicago**

Great numbers of Cubans who came to the mainland during the early years of the Castro regime went to Miami. Today many come directly to Chicago. Once here, the Cuban often works for a time in a factory until he accumulates enough money to open his own business or, as in the case of many of the professionals who have migrated here, until he can acquire a license to practice as a doctor or lawyer, or attain a certificate to teach. This is reflected in the number of Cubans found among Latin professionals in Chicago and in the numerous Cuban-owned restaurants and groceries particularly in the business sections of Rogers Park and Uptown.

Cubans seemed to have assimilated into the mainstream of Chicago life more readily than the Mexicans or Puerto Ricans, who often reject the idea of assimilation. As a result, the Cubans do not tend to group together in barrios. The estimated thirty to fifty thousand exiles are scattered, although large numbers can be found in Uptown, Lakeview, and Rogers Park.¹

Thus this third great wave of Latin immigration and

¹Hoge, *op. cit.*, p. 23.
TABLE 6.--Cuban Immigration to the United States\textsuperscript{a}--1961-1971

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Immigrants</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Immigrants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>14,287</td>
<td>1966</td>
<td>17,355</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962</td>
<td>16,254</td>
<td>1967</td>
<td>33,321</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963</td>
<td>10,587</td>
<td>1968</td>
<td>99,312</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1964</td>
<td>15,808</td>
<td>1969</td>
<td>13,751</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>19,760</td>
<td>1970</td>
<td>16,334</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1971</td>
<td>21,611</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>278,380</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{a}Farrell, op. cit., p. 54.

TABLE 7.--Cuban Immigration to Illinois\textsuperscript{b}--Year Ended June 30, 1971

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ilinois</th>
<th>1,004</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chicago</td>
<td>810</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural Areas</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peoria</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban Areas (Population 25,000-99,999)</td>
<td>185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rockford</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{b}Farrell, op. cit., p. 48. While looking for up-to-date figures regarding the Cubans, the National Council for Planning for Cubans was contacted. They recommended the census figures as the most accurate. It is difficult to keep the data accurate because the Cubans move from place to place frequently seeking better opportunities.
migrating to Chicago contributed to the Spanish-speaking population in the city.

TABLE 8.--Cubans in Chicago--Census Figures 1970a

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>15,607</th>
<th>17,546</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chicago</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cook County</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


While Cuban adults were trying to better themselves economically, their children were in school. Did the educational system meet their needs? This question will be examined after studying the immigration trends of other Latin Americans.

Immigration of Other Latin Americans

Thus far the influx of three large groups of Spanish-speaking people into the United States from Mexico, Puerto Rico, and Cuba was studied. The emigration of people from other Latin American countries to the United States has also increased their number. Without going into detail about the political and social conditions of each country, possible reasons for their immigration to the United States will be offered. For wealthy Latin Americans, the United States is a tourist attraction. These are usually the upper class government officials, businessmen, and professionals. They come to see the sights and return to their countries. There is another group which might be called the "illegal tourists." These come with a tourist visa but when they arrive they
start looking for work. Many from this group do find work, accumulate a good sum of money, get their papers rectified, and establish themselves permanently.

Due to lack of opportunity for professionals, technicians, administrators, and skilled workers to use their abilities freely and to their best advantage, this middle class group decides to take a risk, leaves their country, and comes to the States. Others may have experienced failure and hope to start a new life here. For some the United States looks like a promised land where they can have economic success. Some others come with a job already waiting for them, a job arranged by a friend or member of the family that has preceded them.

Students are another group that find their way to the United States. For a long time the universities of France and Germany were considered the ones to attend if you were a serious student. Now the universities of the United States hold this attraction. Latin Americans place a high value on the education that can be obtained in North American Universities. This is especially true in the field of science. If the scholar wishes to specialize in a field he looks for programs at universities in the States that will be most beneficial. The students usually stay a few years while furthering or completing their education. During this time, they become adjusted to the way of life in the States. They are well educated so they feel there are better opportunities for
them to use their talent here. They decide to remain, and South America loses more potential leaders.

The Office of Immigration lists the following major occupational groups which come to the United States from South America: professional, technical, and kindred workers; farmers and farm managers; managers, officials, and proprietors; clerical and sales workers; craftsmen and foremen; private household workers; service workers; farm laborers and foremen; laborers, except farm and mine laborers; housewives, children and others with no occupations or occupation not reported. All groups report a sizeable number in each except the farmers and farm managers and the farm laborers and foremen.

The following table shows the number of immigrants admitted by country or region of birth for the year ending June 30, 1971.

TABLE 9.--South American Immigration by Country in 1971a

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Immigrants</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Immigrants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>1,992</td>
<td>Ecuador</td>
<td>4,981</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bolivia</td>
<td>441</td>
<td>Guiana</td>
<td>2,115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>1,413</td>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>1,086</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chile</td>
<td>956</td>
<td>Uruguay</td>
<td>601</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Columbia</td>
<td>6,440</td>
<td>Venezuela</td>
<td>507</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other South America</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>20,700</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a Farrell, op. cit., p. 41.
### TABLE 10. -- South American Immigration--1961-1970\(^a\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Immigrants</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Immigrants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>15,470</td>
<td>1966</td>
<td>25,836</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962</td>
<td>17,592</td>
<td>1967</td>
<td>16,517</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963</td>
<td>22,919</td>
<td>1968</td>
<td>21,976</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1964</td>
<td>21,102</td>
<td>1969</td>
<td>23,928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>30,962</td>
<td>1970</td>
<td>21,973</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>228,275</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\)Farrell, op. cit., p. 41.

### TABLE 11. -- South American Immigration by Country--1961-1970\(^a\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Immigrants</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Immigrants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>42,135</td>
<td>Guiana</td>
<td>6,999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bolivia</td>
<td>6,342</td>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>18,478</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>20,491</td>
<td>Uruguay</td>
<td>4,149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chile</td>
<td>11,544</td>
<td>Venezuela</td>
<td>8,526</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>70,327</td>
<td>Other South America</td>
<td>2,313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecuador</td>
<td>36,969</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\)Farrell, op. cit., p. 41.
What effect did all this immigration of Spanish-speaking peoples have on American life in general and education in particular? It soon became apparent that the public school educational process was not designed to provide equal educational opportunities for the Spanish-speaking child. The basic problem seemed to be the inability of the schools to cope with the language and cultural assets of the Spanish-speaking youngsters. Many of these children came to school speaking Spanish and with very little communication skills in English. Yet they had the potential to become substantial bilingual members of society.

Besides this there were many other factors which effected their academic life. These will be dealt with in greater detail in Chapter IV. In order to continue the historical trend of this chapter, the development of the second part of bilingual education, especially in Chicago, will be presented. Figure 2 graphically shows the location of Latinos in Chicago.

1963--First Bilingual Center Established in Miami, Florida

The first community in the second part of bilingual education in the United States to accept the challenge of offering equal education opportunities to the Spanish-speaking, and especially the Cuban population, was Dade County in Miami, Florida. Thus began the rebirth of bilingual education in 1963 with the opening of a completely bilingual program in grades 1, 2, and 3 of the Coral Way School, with the hope that it would expand one grade a year. The program was set up along these lines. Both Spanish and English dominant children enrolled in the school. Approximately one-half of the
Figure 2

LATINS IN CHICAGO

12 to 49%

50 to 96.5%

Sub-Times map by Jack Jordan; based on research prepared by O.M.A.R. Co.
instruction was given in Spanish by Cuban teachers, and one-half in English by American teachers using the team-teaching approach. Subject matter was taught in both languages to all the classmates. Concepts were taught in the native tongue and reinforced in English. English was taught as a second language to the Spanish children, and Spanish as a second language to the American children. The focus was on the use of the child's own Spanish language to enable him to learn subject matter while learning English. In addition to this pioneer bilingual program, Dade County offers Spanish as a subject in every grade from one through twelve in all other Miami schools. Besides being the first bilingual program in the second part of the history of bilingual education, it also has the distinction of being one of the best up to the present time.¹

An evaluation of the achievement reached by the students in the Coral Way School in language arts and arithmetic shows that a bilingual program is as effective as the regular program in English. The evaluator, Dr. Mabel Wilson Richardson says:

It must be noted here that, in addition to 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.²

¹Andersson, op. cit., I, 18.
²Ibid.
In 1965 Congress passed the Elementary and Secondary Education Act which was the first time the federal government gave direct financial support for public school instruction.

Title I--Education of Children from Low Income Families provides funds directly to school districts where there are concentrations of youngsters from homes with incomes of $3,000 a year or less, or where the children are listed on Aid to Families of Dependent Children (AFDC) lists. This program is designed to supplement local school district efforts and puts very little restriction on the type of projects created. Some of the programs are: Developmental and Remedial Reading; Special Needs and Supportive Services; Administration, Supervision, Research, Evaluation, and Dissemination. There was some expansion of the ESL programs for the Spanish-speaking children but no bilingual programs as such under this title. TESL on Wheels funding comes under Title I. Very few Mexicans and Cubans could benefit from Title I because their income was above the minimum level. In Puerto Rican areas the Title I ESEA gave some additional support to developing programs for the Spanish-speaking but failed to focus on the need for teacher-training and development of materials emphasizing the contributions of the Spanish-speaking people to the growth of the United States.

Title II--School Library Resources gives assistance
for library materials and resources. It was designed not only to serve children from low-income families but is to benefit all children from pre-school to twelfth grade. Little direct benefit came to the Spanish due to the absence of quantities of materials in Spanish and the reluctance of librarians to search them out and stock their library with relevant reading material in Spanish.

Title III--Supplementary Educational Centers and Services is also known as FACE which stands for Projects to Advance Creativity in Education. Some bilingual education programs funded through this agency were the José de Diego Community Bilingual Center, 1313 North Claremont, and the Rubén Salazar Community Bilingual Center, 3316 South Ashland, both in Chicago, Illinois. These centers involve children as well as adults as an integral part of their program.

Title IV--Educational Research and Training provides funds for the creation of research and development laboratories aimed at developing new approaches to educational techniques. The Southwest Educational Development Laboratory in Austin, Texas, and the Southwest Cooperative Educational Development Laboratory in Albuquerque, New Mexico are funded under this title and concentrate their efforts on programs related to meeting the educational needs of the Spanish-speaking.¹

Title V provides funds for the salaries of the highest administrators of education in the State.

Title VI is the Civil Rights Act of 1964. It provides equal educational opportunities for all races and ethnic groups under its guidelines. Its initial emphasis was geared toward the Black communities; however, lately the Spanish-speaking peoples are also demanding their rights for quality education. One specific activity under this title in Chicago offers programs and projects for physically and mentally handicapped children.¹

1968--Bilingual Education Act and Establishment of Additional Centers Throughout the Country


It is intended to conserve our language resources and to advance the learning of the child, irrespective of language. It seeks to make learning the objective of the classroom, using other languages in addition to English to accomplish this objective.²

Bilingual education opens the door to millions of American school children from non-English speaking homes to full participation in society.

Bilingual education legislation (H.R. 9840) was intro-


²Andersson, op. cit., I, v.
duced in the United States House of Representatives by James Scheuer, of New York, on May 10, 1967. This proposal became H.R. 13103 on September 25, 1967, and a modification of it was passed as an amendment to ESEA and provided assistance in bilingual education.¹

On January 2, 1968, President Lyndon B. Johnson signed the Bilingual Education Act into law. Ralph W. Yarborough, the author of the first bilingual education bill ever introduced in either House of Congress, called it a "landmark" in education legislation. This senior Senator from Texas deserves much credit for his work as Chairman of the Special Subcommittee on Bilingual Education in winning overwhelming congressional support for this innovative bill.

The Bilingual Education Act was conceived primarily to meet the needs of "children who come from environments where the dominant language is other than English." It adds an important new chapter to the long story of this "nation of immigrants."²

With the support given to bilingual education by funding from the federal government through Title VII, by May, 1969, fifty-six bilingual education programs existed. Forty-nine of these were on the pre-primary or elementary level, four were in secondary schools, and three in colleges. The two languages in about 90 per cent of the Bilingual Education Act proposals submitted in 1968-1969 and of the projects

¹Ibid. ²Ibid., p. 1.
funded were Spanish and English. Refer to Figure 3 for further data.

1968—First Bilingual Centers Established in Chicago

Since it has been shown that the influx of Spanish-speaking people is indeed great, how has Chicago met the challenge of the unique instructional needs of its Spanish-speaking students? In 1968 the first federally funded bilingual center was established in Chicago. It was located in District 6, Area C, in the Lafayette School, 2714 West Augusta Blvd. It was initiated by Dr. Edmund B. Daley, the District Superintendent. The principal was Miss Natalie Picchiotti. The children came from various schools in the district. Most were recent arrivals from Spanish-speaking countries, especially Puerto Rico. English-dominant children also attended the center full-time. The students ranged in grades from five to eight. The program consisted of ESL in the morning, mathematics, social studies, science and health in Spanish in the afternoon. Today this center is located at 1313 North Claremont and is called the Juan Morel Campos Bilingual Center.

Following this pioneer program in 1969 five other federally funded bilingual centers were established. They were the following:

Froebel Branch—Harrison High School (9)

District 19, Area B, Predominant Ethnic Group—Mexican
Public Elementary Schools

1963 | 1964 | 1965
---|---|---
Miami, Florida | Texas | Pecos, New Mexico
Coral Way Elem. | Nye School of the United Consolidated Independent School District | Edinburg, Texas
San Antonio Independent School District

1966 | 1967 | 1968
---|---|---
Harlandale Independent School District of San Antonio, in Del Rio, Texas | Las Cruces, New Mexico | Lafayette School
Zapata, Texas | Hoboken, New Jersey | Chicago, Illinois
Calexico, California | Corpus Christi, Texas | Creedmoor School, Del Valle, Texas
Marysville, California | St. Croix, Virgin Islands
Rough Rock, Arizona

1969 | 1970
---|---
56 Centers throughout the country | 76 Centers
Chicago, Illinois | 16 continuing from 1969
Chicago, Illinois | Chicago, Illinois
Froebel-Branch of Harrison High School | Peabody School (Board Funded)
Goudy Elementary | Hawthorne Elementary
Jirka Elementary | Komensky Elementary

1971-72 | 1973
---|---
Continual expansion of bilingual education programs in Chicago and throughout the United States

450-500 Bilingual Programs in the United States\(^a\)

Figure 3.--Bilingual Schooling in the United States--Part II\(^b\)


\(^b\)Andersson, op. cit., I, 18-20. Figure 3 compiled from information in text.
After 1969 the development continued. In September, 1970, the first and only center funded by the Chicago Board of Education opened in the Peabody Elementary School, 1444 West Augusta Boulevard, District 6, Area C. It includes grades four to eight, and its predominant ethnic group is Puerto Rican. 2

Starting in 1971, the State of Illinois began providing funds for bilingual programs in Chicago by allowing $200,000. Since then, the State has been providing the bulk of the funds to continue these programs and initiate new ones.

---


The amount for the 1973-74 school year was $3,900,000.¹

Title VII funds have made possible the continuation of the programs which began with these moneys in 1969. Figure 4 shows the 34 bilingual centers which were in existence from 1970-1973.

At the time of this writing, 1974, there are 64 Spanish-English, 1 Greek, 1 Italian, and 1 Chinese, that is, a total of 67 bilingual programs in Chicago. More details concerning these figures are given in Chapter V.

Another event having an effect on the creating of bilingual programs in Chicago was the passage on September 10, 1973, of House Bill 1223, Transitional Bilingual Education. By 1976 all school districts having twenty or more students of one language background other than English in an attendance center must provide them with bilingual education.² See Appendix B.

**Summary and Conclusions**

In this chapter the history and immigration trends of the Mexicans, Puerto Ricans, Cubans, and other Latin Americans have been studied. They settled in various cities, always striving for a better life; they migrated to Chicago with the hope of a better life for themselves and for their


Figure 4

BILINGUAL EDUCATION CENTERS
CHICAGO PUBLIC SCHOOLS

LEGEND

Areas with more than
10% Spanish Surnames
(Student Racial Survey
September 30, 1971)

Centers established
• 1970-71
+ 1971-72
△ 1972-73

Board of Education, De Todo Un
Poco (Chicago Public Schools; Department
of Government Funded Programs), Nov. 1972,
Vol. II, No. 9, p. 15.
children. Despite hardships, oppression, and injustices, they have struggled for their place in the North American society. Amid hardships they are still continuing this struggle to make sure that they receive all the rights and privileges that are due them. For their children, they want nothing less than quality education. They want their children to retain their heritage and improve their native language while learning English and the American culture. The answer to this is bilingual education properly implemented.

The federal and state governments have recognized the need for educational programs geared to the special problems and potentialities of the Spanish-speaking children. Chicago has begun to meet the educational needs of these children, but much needs to be done for every child to be given the type of education that will best fit his needs. The existing programs take care of approximately 12,351 of the 63,730 Spanish-speaking students in Chicago. Therefore, these programs have to be expanded and new ones developed.

When new centers are established they must be such that fulfill the definition of true bilingual education. The proportion of Spanish-speaking and English-speaking children in the program has to be substantial enough so that each group can come to know and understand the other. Throughout their schooling, with proper scheduling of classes and adequate materials, both groups should attain fluency in speaking, reading, and writing Spanish and English. They should reach a standard achievement level in all the content subjects, and
above all, cultivate a deep appreciation of each other's culture and heritage. One of the main contributions the researcher offers in Chapter VI is to present a structural model to attain these goals. If these objectives are accomplished, and the proper structure is devised for bilingual programs, then we can look forward to a future generation of educated, bilingual citizens that will have much to contribute to the advancement of society.

The next chapter will deal with the social, cultural, and economic characteristics of these students.
CHAPTER IV

SOCIO-CULTURAL CHARACTERISTICS OF
SPANISH-SPEAKING STUDENTS

Introduction

Chapter III presented the history and immigration trends of the Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban and other Spanish-speaking populations which have brought about the need for bilingual programs in the Chicago Public Schools.

This chapter deals with the socio-cultural characteristics of these peoples: namely, socio-economic status, crisis of identity: self-concept, low achievement, drop-out rate, and acculturation. Based on the findings of Chapters III and IV and with the results of the questionnaires completed by each of the existing bilingual programs in the Chicago system, described in Chapter V, a proposal for a continuous progress, two-way, integrated, maintenance type, total bicultural-bilingual education program will follow in Chapter VI.

Socio-Economic Status

According to Harrington, between 20 and 40 per cent of our population lives in a subsociety of economic, social,

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and educational impoverishment in the midst of a society of abundance. A portion of this population is concentrated in large cities where they not only face marginal employment and crowded and dehumanizing living conditions, but also are the most often displaced by rapid technological changes. Life in the urban slums can be a very depressing one. Deutsch describes conditions there as follows: 1

Geographically, there are crowded and dilapidated tenements. . . . If the people are Negro, Puerto Rican, or Mexican-American, or poor mountain white, life is a more-or-less segregated community. There are likely to be extremely crowded apartments, high rates of unemployment, chronic economic insecurity, a disproportionate number of broken families, and . . . continual denigration and social ostracism of varying degrees. The educational level of the adults tends to be quite limited. . . .

To this he adds: 2

The result is a pattern of life that exposes a child to a minimum of direct contacts with the central channels of our culture. The conditions of social inequality, the absence of an accessible opportunity structure, and the frequent non-availability of successful adult male models create an atmosphere that is just not facilitating to individual development. . . .

An adequate socio-economic status is crucial with the minorities in this country. The American colonies inherited the British class structure based on wealth and occupation, with the significant difference that at its apex there was no hereditary aristocracy. Until the first decade of the nineteenth century, position was demarcated by customary dress,

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2 Ibid., p. 251.
and since, apart from Massachusetts, there was no free public education until the 1830's (and even later in new states) modes of school also characterized class levels.¹

The urgent need of the new continent was for unskilled and semi-skilled labor. Immigrants were recruited under the indenture system and subsequently under labor and finally as free labor to supply this need in the North, while imported slaves provided the agricultural and domestic labor forces for the agrarian South. The vast majority of immigrants therefore started low on the class scale. Discrimination gave "native" Americans (i.e., English-speaking, Protestants) a competitive advantage in the upward climb. Increasingly, as large numbers of "different" peoples came, minorities were forced to seek improved conditions within separate cultural hierarchies. From the mid-nineteenth century until after World War II, the minorities were at the bottom of the social scale.

The immigration of minorities to the urban scene is a perfect illustration of how the culture creates social conflicts. The minority populations of American metropolises have been exploding, largely through migration of Blacks from the South, Puerto Ricans, and Mexican-Americans. As these groups are excluded from most new subdivisions, they can find room to live only by "invading" older white residential areas. As a result of the conditions that the minorities

bring with them pockets of poverty are formed which create difficulties, such as local hostilities and discrimination which must be faced sooner or later.

The incidence of poverty is much greater among non-whites than it is among whites, the ratio being over three times as great, according to the definitions of poverty accepted by concerned government agencies based on family size.\(^1\) Hence, in 1969, an unattached individual receiving less than $1,800 a year is living in poverty; for a family of four the poverty line is $3,700; for a family of six, about $6,000. Applying these definitions to income data for the United States, it is found that over 10 per cent of the nation lives in poverty.\(^2\)

According to the latest census information, over 60 per cent of Spanish-surnamed families fall within the poverty zone; the average (median) income of nonwhite families is 63 per cent of the number of white families.\(^3\) This huge discrepancy has its roots in a number of forms of discrimination, some of which are reflected in Table 12.

First, for the past fifteen years or so, the unemployment rate for Blacks and the Spanish-speakers has been double that of whites. Even though many institutions have


\(^2\)Ibid., p. 668.

TABLE 12.--Selected Measures of Discrimination and Inequality of Opportunity, 1970

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Selected Measure</th>
<th>Whites</th>
<th>Blacks and Other Minorities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Income</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median income of families</td>
<td>$9,794</td>
<td>$6,191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of household in poverty</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of families with incomes of $7,000 or more</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of labor force 18 years and over completing 4 years of high school or more</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of labor force 18 years and over completing 4 years of college or more</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Employment (Percentage of Total Civilian Employment)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White-collar occupations</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Craftsmen-foremen occupations</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Unemployment Rate (Percentage of Civilian Labor Force)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adult males</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adult females</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teenagers</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>27.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


\(^a\) Income data for 1969.

\(^b\) Males, sixteen and seventeen years old.
established fairer hiring and promotion policies, discrimination often causes Blacks and the Spanish-speakers to be the last hired and the first fired. Second, discrimination has barred these groups from better-paying positions. Executives and salesmen, not to mention electricians, bricklayers, and plumbers, are few and far between. Many craft unions have effectively barred these minorities from membership and hence from employment. Third, discrimination has also taken the form of less investment in human resources for minorities than for whites. The smaller amount and inferior quality of the education received by minorities have had the obvious effect of denying them the opportunity to increase their productivity and to qualify for better jobs. One of the ironic developments of recent years is the rapid mechanization of agriculture in the South which has caused a substantial migration of America's least-trained and least-educated Blacks to northern cities at a time when trends in manufacturing are severely restricting the employment opportunities for unskilled and semiskilled workers.

These facts and figures on the extent and character of poverty may be a bit difficult to accept. After all, America is presumably the affluent society. Harrington pointedly states:¹

The poor are politically invisible. . . . [They] do not, by far and large, belong to unions, to fraternal organizations, or to political parties. They are without lobbies

of their own; they put forward no legislative program. As a group they are atomized. They have no face; they have no voice.

Indeed, the American poor have been labeled the "world's least revolutionary proletariat."

An additional characteristic of poverty is the fact that it tends to be perpetuating:\footnote{Economic Report of the President (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1964), pp. 69-70.}

Poverty breeds poverty. A poor individual or family has high probability of staying poor. Low incomes carry with them high risks of illness; limitations on mobility; limited access to education, information, and training. Poor parents cannot give their children the opportunities for better health and education needed to improve their lot. Lack of motivation, hope, and incentive is a more subtle but no less powerful barrier than lack of financial means. Thus the cruel legacy of poverty is passed from parents to children.

Spanish-speaking minorities suffer from this vicious circle of poverty. Many leaders are vociferously claiming that something needs to be done about it. Rodolfo Rodriguez, a dynamic Puerto Rican educator, expressed himself as follows:\footnote{Rodolfo Rodriguez, "A Response to Herman Badillo," The Rican, III (Spring, 1973), 61.}

We do need janitors, but it is also a fact that the trade unions must be opened up to our people. We also need teachers, nurses, doctors, economists, mechanics, computer operators, scientists, mathematicians, and others. You [Congressman Herman Badillo] must put pressure on the government officials to provide all of the resources needed to educate and train us to assure these positions as well as what is called "identifiable jobs." We don't want a nation of servants.

Ulibarri coherently expressed his opinion about social
class as follows:¹

In a bilingual-bicultural situation, one finds the social class stratification of the whole very similar to that of individual groups of which it is composed. In most cases, the only difference is that, for minority groups (especially when considering Mexican-Americans and Indians), one finds a disproportionate number in the lower class and the upper lower class. Besides bringing with them the problems of a people in a process of acculturation, the problems of a second language, and the problems of a different cultural background, these people bring into the school the problems associated with lower class standing and participation in the culture of poverty.

Ulibarri has pointed out that no extensive study of social class stratification has been undertaken of the bilingual minorities in the United States. He suggests:²

If one is to use the Mexican-American as an index of the social status of the other minorities in the Southwest, the indications are that the minority groups have an undue proportion of their members in the lower classes.

Sociocultural characteristics, as can be expected, have an impact on the child's learning. In a nationwide survey, Coleman and others found that control of the environment was a strong predictor of verbal skills for both Anglo and Mexican-American students at grade six.³ They concluded that the students' belief in their ability to control their environment was influenced very little by variations in school characteristics. Socio-economic status has a strong bearing on the child's self-concept, the next subject of discussion.

²Ulibarri, "Bilingualism," p. 239.
Crisis of Identity: Self-Concept

The questions of the Spanish-speaker, "Who am I?" "What am I?" "Where am I going?" have produced a number of articles in the periodical literature as well as in poetry and other literary forms. Perhaps a very poignant case can be shown by Pedro Pietri's poem "Spics":

Super ultra Spics
Neglecting the art of their dialogue
For broken English lessons.

To impress Mr. Goldsteins
Who keeps them employed
As lavaplatos porters messenger boys
Delivery boys workers maids
Stock clerks shipping clerks
Assistant supervisors assistant lavaplatos
And automatic smiling doorman
For the lowest wages of the ages
And rages when you demand a raise
Because it's against the company policy
to promote SPICS SPICS SPICS.

[Poem quoted without correcting punctuation.]

This is obviously a self-concept protest poem in which the poet feels sorry for himself and for his people.

Combs has succinctly expressed that "to feel acceptable, one must experience acceptance." He further states that "actually, the best guarantee we have that a person will be able to deal with the future effectively is that he has

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1Quoted by Victor Fragoso, "En Búsqueda de lo Puertorriqueño," The Rican, III (Spring, 1973), 16.

been essentially successful in the past."  

Fromm has stated that:  

We should love ourselves, for self-love and the love of others go hand-in-hand... Failure to love the self is accompanied by a basic hostility toward others which arises out of the suppression of the individual's spontaneity or of his "real self."

Contrary to expectations, data has indicated that, while persons who report a high degree of self-acceptance are also highly accepting of others, these same persons may not be as accepted by their associates. Auger suggests that "low self-accepting subjects might be popular because they represent no threat to their friends." On a six-point scale measuring such factors as friendliness, likeability, generosity, intelligence, etc., Wyllie found positive correlations between self-ratings assigned to others. Bruce inferred that high self-acceptance served to free individuals from excessive pre-occupations with intrapersonal problems, thus allowing them to cope with the fulfillment of secondary needs such as gaining status and security with others.

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1 Ibid., p. 6.
5 P. Bruce, "Relationship of Self-Acceptance to Other Variables," Journal of Educational Psychology, XLIX (1958), 229-38.
According to Jersild, "in a healthy person, a discovery of self continues as long as he lives."\(^1\) He also reports that one of the most important factors influencing the child's view of himself is the "significant person or persons in his life . . . as he is appraised by significant others, so he begins to see himself."\(^2\) He concludes that not only what is said by significant others and what they do, but the child's perception of what they think, feel, or do affects the child's development of self-concept.

Members of minorities suffer in their self-concepts as they try to make adjustments to a demanding society-at-large. In the book *Puerto Rican Americans*, Fitzpatrick states:\(^3\)

> In the framework of culture and society, as a member of a social group interacting with others according to commonly accepted norms, man finds his identity, knows who he is, where he belongs, and what his life and actions mean.

Due to the hostile environment surrounding the minority child, Deutsch has written:\(^4\)

> . . . the everyday problems of living, particularly those of economic insecurity and a multiplicity of children, leave minimum time for the adults who may be present to assist the children exploring the world, to reward him for successful completion of tasks, or to help him in the development of a differentiated self-concept.

The Spanish-speaking child finds himself engulfed in

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\(^2\)Ibid., p. 83.


\(^4\)Deutsch, *op. cit.*, p. 252.
a contradiction of norms and values which frequently bewilder him. On the one hand, his relatives have certain expectations from him following the patterns of the "old country." On the other hand, a demanding new societal arrangement expects him to adjust to the American way of living. He is often told that his language is inferior; people make fun of his dietary habits; his behavior patterns are considered "weird" by the members of the society at large. As a result, his "self-concept" is severely affected. Rejection breeds self-doubt and self-blame in the rejected individual. The individual can come to feel himself as a worthless or insignificant being as he uses the collective image of society as a reference point to evaluate himself.

The school ought to be a place where he can develop healthy attitudes toward himself, toward other people as well as toward successful school learning. Needed group skills are derived from responsiveness to and contact with peers; both are necessary ingredients for receiving from peers the support for effort and ego-fulfillment not achieved elsewhere. Among those students there is a greater than usual sensitivity to the feelings of others and to what might be called moral criteria and democratic values, a sensitivity they have developed in order to protect their own feelings in an environment that includes hostile adults.

The shock of having to compete successfully in a school system where the language spoken is not their own is
one of the drawbacks in the education of Spanish-speaking children. Self-concept is diminished by language problems. Those problems that come from ignorance about language and its communicative and social function is the product of distortion of Latin American culture and history. The Spanish-speaking child needs to know that he is no less an American because of his imperfect English.

The school has to examine those factors which contribute to a negative self-concept, such as (1) economic well-being of the family, (2) negative image of minorities in textbooks and other curricular materials, (3) the family structure of the child (whether the father is missing, etc.), (4) his environment (physical as well as cultural), and (5) the attitudes of teachers, school staff, supervisors, and administrators. Every effort must be made to help the child in his adjustment to the school. While the school cannot solve all the problems, it can at least make the transition smooth. The school needs to recognize that many of the problems caused by socio-economic deprivation and a poor self-concept lead frequently to low achievement in schools by the Spanish-speaking children.

Low Achievement

It is a well-known fact that low achievement in school is typical of the larger minorities in the United States, such as Blacks and the Spanish-speaking. Charles Silberman in Crisis in the Classroom treats this point and illustrates
the low achievement of minority group students by reference to Coleman's nationwide median test scores from 1965. The table is shown below as it appeared in the *Equality of Educational Opportunity Report*.

### TABLE 13.---Nationwide Median Test Scores for First- and Twelfth-Grade Pupils, United States, Fall, 1965

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Racial or Ethnic Group</th>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Puerto Rican</th>
<th>Indian Americans</th>
<th>Mexican Americans</th>
<th>Oriental Americans</th>
<th>Negro</th>
<th>White</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1st Grade:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonverbal</td>
<td></td>
<td>45.8</td>
<td>53.0</td>
<td>50.1</td>
<td>56.6</td>
<td>43.4</td>
<td>54.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal</td>
<td></td>
<td>44.9</td>
<td>47.8</td>
<td>46.5</td>
<td>51.6</td>
<td>45.4</td>
<td>53.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **12th Grade**         |      |              |                 |                   |                    |       |       |
| Nonverbal              |      | 43.3         | 47.1            | 45.0              | 51.6               | 40.9  | 52.0  |
| Verbal                 |      | 43.1         | 43.7            | 43.8              | 49.6               | 40.9  | 52.1  |
| Reading                |      | 42.6         | 44.3            | 44.2              | 48.8               | 42.2  | 51.9  |
| Mathematics            |      | 43.7         | 45.9            | 45.5              | 51.3               | 41.8  | 51.8  |
| General                |      |              |                 |                   |                    |       |       |
| Information            |      | 41.7         | 44.7            | 43.3              | 49.0               | 40.6  | 52.2  |

**Average of the 5 tests**

|              |      | 43.1         | 45.1            | 44.4              | 50.1               | 41.1  | 52.0  |

The E.E.O.R. reports that:

The scores in each test were standardized so that the average over the national sample equaled 50 and the standard deviation equaled 10. This means that for all pupils in the Nation, about 16 per cent would score below 40 and about 16 per cent would score above 60.

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Generally speaking such low performance among minority groups has been a problem for educators who have attempted to remediate the problem through compensatory education. However, Dr. Kenneth Clark, professor of psychology at the City University of New York, along with Dr. Martin Deutsch, one of the pioneers of educational experimentation, have warned consistently that compensatory education, such as Project Head Start, for children of deprived minorities is no substitute for changes in the structure of education itself.¹ Merely giving such children an opportunity to begin slightly ahead of the class is of little use if the regular schooling is not, at the same time, made relevant to them. There is little to be gained from surrounding these youngsters with loving and understanding adults in their pre-school taste of learning, if they subsequently are exposed to teachers who approach them with preconceived notions of limited potential. The evidence of prior research, unrelated to the Head Start experiment, shows conclusively that early compensatory education is of very limited short-term benefit unless there is consistent follow-up.²

Those involved in the education of Spanish-speaking children often ask why Spanish-speaking children fail to progress in school at the same rate or level as those of other ethnic groups. This is a perennial question in the minds of many educators and one which should be answered so

²Ibid., p. 35.
that the situation can be remedied. A well developed and
implemented bilingual education program, such as described
in Chapter VI may be the answer.

On account of the large enrollment of Spanish-speaking
children in the Chicago School System, the data has been
limited to the two schools with the largest enrollment of
Spanish-speakers; namely, Von Humboldt Elementary School,
Puerto Rican students, and Phil Sheridan Elementary School,
Mexican-American students. These schools have enrollments
of 2,137 and 1,716 respectively, with the Latino population
representing approximately 84 per cent of the total enroll-
ments. The test administered to the two elementary schools
was the Metropolitan Achievement Test. The data was taken
from the "Report of the 1969-70 City-Wide Testing Program."¹

Reading and mathematical achievement was the investi-
gator's basis in pointing out achievement levels of the stu-
dents in the above-mentioned schools. The tests were admin-
istered, it should be pointed out, to the sixth and eighth
grades, in March (the sixth month) and October (the first
month) respectively.

The following abbreviations are being used:

G.E.--Grade Equivalent
P.R.--Percentile Rank

Table 14 points out that for the 1968-69 year the

¹"Report of the 1969-70 City-Wide Testing Program,"
(Chicago Board of Education, 1971). Note: Von Humboldt's
scores appear on p. 494 and Phil Sheridan's scores appear on
p. 444 of the Report.
The median reading score for the sixth grade at Von Humboldt was 4.6, which represents 2.1 years below national grade level norms and 1.4 years below city norms. In 1969-70, the school was 2.0 years below national norms and .6 (6 months) below city grade level norms. Overall, the sixth grade reading scores for Von Humboldt for both years showed the school to be at least 2 years below national grade level norms.

TABLE 14.--Results of the City-Wide Testing for Von Humboldt School Based on National and City Norms for 1968-70--Grade 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Reading</th>
<th></th>
<th>Arithmetic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>G.E.</td>
<td>P.R.</td>
<td>G.E.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968-69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nation</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1969-70</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nation</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

During the 1968-69 year, the median math score for the sixth grade at Von Humboldt was .6 (6 months) below national grade level norms and .2 (2 months) below city norms. In 1969-70, the school fell .7 (7 months) below national norms and .3 (3 months) below city grade level norms. Overall, the math scores showed the school to be at least 6 months below national grade level norms.

Table 15 points out that for the 1968-69 year the
median reading score for the eighth grade at Von Humboldt was 5.9 which represents 2.2 years below national grade level norms and 1.0 years below city norms. In 1969-70 the school was 2.8 years below national norms and 1.1 years below city grade level norms. Overall, the eighth grade reading scores for Von Humboldt for both years showed the school to be at least 2.2 years below national grade level norms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Reading</th>
<th>Arithmetic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>G.E.</td>
<td>P.R.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nation</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

During the 1968-69 year the median math score for the eighth grade at Von Humboldt was 1.3 years below national grade level norms and .2 (2 months) above city norms. In 1969-70, the school scores 2.8 years below national norms and 1.1 years below city grade level norms. Overall, the eighth grade math scores for Von Humboldt for both years showed the school to be at least 1.3 years below national grade level norms, with an additional loss of 8 months in the
second year. Comparing Tables 14 and 15 Von Humboldt shows a consistent average of at least two years below national norms for reading scores across both grade levels and years.

Table 16 points out that for the 1968-69 year the median reading score for the sixth grade at Sheridan was 5.7 which represents 1.0 years below national grade level norms and .4 (4 months) above city norms. In 1969-70 the school was 1.0 years below national norms and .4 (4 months) above city norms. Overall, the sixth grade reading scores for Sheridan for both years showed the school to be 1 year below national grade level norms.

TABLE 16.--Results of the City-Wide Testing for Phil Sheridan School Based on National and City Norms for 1968-70--Grade 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Reading</th>
<th>Arithmetic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>G.E.</td>
<td>P.R.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968-69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nation</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1969-70</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nation</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

During the 1968-69 year the median math score for the sixth grade at Sheridan was .5 (5 months) above national grade level norms and .5 (5 months) above city norms as well. In 1969-70, the school fell .2 (2 months) below national grade level norms and .2 (2 months) above city norms. Overall, the
sixth grade math scores for Sheridan showed a 7 month span, in 1968-69 they were 5 months above national norms and in the following year 2 months below national norms.

Table 17 points out that for the 1968-69 year the median reading score for the eighth grade at Sheridan was 6.7 which represents 1.4 years below national grade level norms and .2 (2 months) below city norms. In 1969-70, the school was 1.1 years below national norms and .6 (6 months) above city norms. Overall, the eighth grade reading scores for Sheridan for both years showed the school to be 1.1 years below national grade level norms.

TABLE 17.--Results of the City-Wide Testing for Phil Sheridan School Based on National and City Norms for 1968-70--Grade 8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Reading G.E.</th>
<th>Reading P.R.</th>
<th>Arithmetic G.E.</th>
<th>Arithmetic P.R.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1968-69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nation</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1969-70</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nation</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

During the 1968-69 year the median math score for the eighth grade at Sheridan was .2 (2 months) below national grade level norms and .2 (2 months) below city norms as well. In 1969-70, the school scores 1.1 years above national grade
level norms and 1.3 years above city norms. Overall, the eighth grade math scores for Sheridan showed a 1.3 years span, in 1968-69 the eighth graders were 2 months below national norms and the following year 1.1 years above national norms. Comparing Tables 16 and 17, Sheridan shows a consistent average of at least 1 year below national norms across both grades and years.

The four tables presented regarding the city-wide testing showed a very obvious picture of the low achievement of the Spanish-speakers in two schools in the area of reading. In these schools there is a total of 3,853 children. If other schools with large Spanish communities were used for comparison, the results, no doubt, would be similar. An assessment of some of the problems related to this very low achievement follows.

As pointed out earlier in this investigation, the community in which a child is raised will influence him in a positive or negative way in deciding values which will affect his achievement in his school life. Migration has an enormous impact on children of Spanish-speaking background. The new environment brings a new language, a different climate, a different food supply, and the ever-present problems of unemployment, over-population, etc., which make an effect upon the child.

Most of the Latino families coming to the mainland come from rural areas of their native countries or perhaps
from other impoverished environments. According to some writers, once they come to the United States they become part of the lower socio-economic groups.

Many of the Spanish-speaking children in the Chicago School System are members of broken families. For instance, in the Von Humboldt School community many of the families are headed by the mother, as observed through on-site visitations and interviews with teachers.

On account of divorce and separation the mother either has to work to support a big family or resort to welfare for help. The investigator has, by experience, found that the majority of the children pay much less attention and respect to their mothers in the United States than they do back home. This could be a result of having a mother struggling to support a family and leaving all educational responsibilities to the school. Because the student does not find too much alleviation of his problems in school, he tends to join his friends in the streets where he finds drug pushers or gangs trying to recruit new members. The gang seems, by experience, to look like the best alternative to the children. Here they find friendship and a way of life they like, where they can be independent and lead the life they please.

The investigator has come to the conclusion that the educational system contributes to low achievement of the Spanish-speaking children. The system fails to take into account the confusion and disorientation suffered by every
Latino due to "cultural shock." The schools are not prepared to deal with the psychological and sociological problems of the Latino students as evidenced by the poor achievement of the children, the drop-out rates, and other factors. The American way of life clashes with the students' concept of self-worth, identity, and cultural tradition. Viewing himself as a foreigner, the student begins to think that his customs and traditions are "bad" and that he must conform to those who are teaching him. As a direct result of this, the child eventually begins to question his potential.

Low achievement is not an easy problem to solve; however, efforts can be made to improve conditions of schooling by eliminating those hardships of which educators are aware. Those students who cannot cope with low achievement often decide to drop out.

Drop-Out Rate

The Lucas Report, previously mentioned in this investigation, is an important document on the subject of drop-outs. Puerto Rican young men and women in Chicago drop out of school at a rate of 71.2 per cent, according to Lucas.¹ For every 100 youngsters who attend school in Chicago, 71.2 will never complete their education and will never get a high school diploma. This is twice the drop-out rate of the city at large and the nation, as reported by the Havighurst Report

¹Lucas, op. cit., p. 6.
in 1964.¹ It seems to be slightly higher than that of Puerto Ricans on the Island. To date no other study has been made regarding the drop-out rate of other Latino groups in Chicago.

Puerto Ricans usually drop out of school in their freshman and sophomore years of high school, and also substantial numbers in the transition between grammar and high school. Lack of self-confidence, defensiveness, and a revolt against a hostile environment play an important role in this process. The older they are and the longer they have attended school in the city, the lower are the aspirations of Puerto Rican students. Many of them let their lack of interest and passivity ease them out of the school situation.

Some Puerto Rican youths turn to gangs or to other peer groups not accepted by society. There is an increase in the size and militancy of these groups which is due to the spreading defiance of the system that rejects them. If it is true that dropouts in general were called some time ago "social dynamite," then Puerto Rican youths in Chicago are prime material for urban rioting.

As a rule, gangs in Puerto Rican communities do not prevent youngsters from attending school. They give them a more congenial environment where they feel more like persons. As the youth attends more informal gang activities, he lacks the time and interest for school. Puerto Rican children in Chicago come from very large families as a general rule. This

factor may play a key role in the drop-out rate of Puerto Ricans as compared with other Americans because of the accompanying financial hardships, but in Puerto Rico it does not, as evidenced by the researcher's observation and experience.

For the purposes of this investigation, the drop-out problem is only sketched rather than studied in depth. Attention needs to be given to the topic because it is directly related to the problems created by a lack of properly implemented bilingual education programs.

Bilingual Education has to be treated as an innovative, totally new curriculum rather than a compensatory, short-lived program. If the programs are properly designed and implemented bicultural-bilingual education could relieve the drop-out problem. If not, the drop-out rate will continue to be high among Latinos.

Acculturation

Acculturation is one of the sustaining processes whereby minorities are incorporated into the dominant culture.¹ Those groups which are dominant expect minorities to acculturate, at least to a degree. Since these groups, like any ethnic groups, assume their values and social system to be the best and since some degree of familiarity with the dominant language is assumed essential to reciprocal com-

resorts to alcohol, drugs, prostitution.

Ulibarri continues by saying that the person who over­comes this first stage of bewilderment acquires functional­ity and finds that the new culture is rewarding. He begins to look on the values as desirable and meaningful. This sec­ond stage is characterized by over-compensation, ultrapro­ficiency, and conspicuous dexterity in the new socio-culture. In his desire to "pass" as an Anglo, he rejects his heritage and feels ashamed of it. He suppresses his native language and refuses to speak nothing but the second language in which he may be proficient.

At the third stage of development, the individual sees himself as bicultural. He feels he knows and understands both cultures to which he has been exposed and he chooses one by which he lives superficially and conspicuously. This is the stage of pseudo-acculturation.

A person who reaches the final stage is bicultural. He feels a natural and intrinsic bond between both cultures. He is not necessary equilingual, but he is well versed and comfortable in both languages because he can function in both. Even more importantly, he can distinguish values and expecta­tions of each and he is able to resolve contradictions which may arise. He performs successfully in both roles.

The person who has reached this stage has done so because he has been able to cope with the socio-economic structures, he is sure of his identity, he has been able to achieve academically and finally reach the stage of bicul­
turalism rather than acculturation.

Summary and Conclusions

The difficulties that usually plague the public schools in large cities are magnified among children of minority groups that live in such conditions. These bewildered children generally show poor performance. They have a high incidence of failure, of drop-outs, of reading and other learning difficulties, and of life-adjustment problems. The public school is confronted with the task of providing adequate and equal educational opportunities for the masses of students who do not or cannot respond to the traditional monolingual and monocultural curriculum and instruction. Properly implemented bilingual programs may be the solution to long-needed changes in the curriculum.
CHAPTER V

BILINGUAL EDUCATION IN CHICAGO FOR THE SPANISH-SPEAKING STUDENTS: DOCUMENTARY AND FIELD DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

Chapter IV discussed socio-cultural characteristics such as acculturation, socio-economic status, crisis of identity, low achievement and the drop-out rate of the Spanish students. This chapter will deal with developments, and organizational designs of bilingual education programs in Chicago.

In order to provide a frame of reference for the discussion on bilingual education in the city, the researcher highlights three representative samples of successful bilingual programs from across the country. One program was selected from each of three geographical areas, Southwest--Las Cruces; East Coast--Public School 25; Southeast--Coral Way. These were chosen on the basis of on-site visitations and data collected from the researcher's questionnaire sent to the leading bilingual programs across the country. The Spanish-English bilingual programs examined here are unique, each responding to various geographical, cultural, political and socio-economic conditions.

In addition, the researcher is including the French-
English St. Lambert project from Canada because of its contribution to the field of bilingual education, particularly its evaluation design.

In collecting the data from Chicago more emphasis was placed on qualitative data, however, some quantitative information was also collected. The required data was gathered through three procedures. These will be discussed in the following section.

**Data Collection Procedures**

The procedures listed in Chapter I, pages 4-5 may be grouped into the following categories: documentary research, interview, and questionnaire. In obtaining information regarding the organizational and procedural aspects of bilingual education in Chicago, the third method, questionnaire, was used as the primary technique. The other two, documentary and interview, were used as supplementary procedures for validity check. Since most of the questionnaire data was considered to be basically informative rather than specifically quantitative, the reliability and validity checks were done by observation of data from the three sources, documents, interviews, and questionnaire, and not through specific statistical procedures. Such a check through observation indicated very high correspondence among the three procedures.

Part of the data from the questionnaire was analyzed through statistical procedures to test the specific hypothesis. This data is presented as a separate section of the chapter.
Some data was strictly informative and was gathered in order to obtain a complete picture of bilingual education in Chicago. It was not intrinsically or directly related to the independent or dependent variables and, therefore, was not reported.

The questionnaire was a simple instrument developed with specific questions geared to the areas of interest. Of the questionnaires, 81 per cent were actually returned to the researcher. Information for the other 19 per cent was obtained through documentary and interview techniques in order to report findings from all of the 64 Spanish-English bilingual programs in existence in Chicago, 1973. A sample of the questionnaire is included in Appendix C.

Structure of the Data

In examining the programs throughout the United States and in Chicago, five basic organizational components with their correlated ramifications were researched. The discussion of these components will be presented before the program descriptions. This is being done for the sake of organization and clarification of concepts.

Organization is of paramount importance once the needs, objectives, and goals of a program are identified and defined. These five basic components should be considered in any bilingual program design.

a) Type of Program
b) Development of Language Usage
c) Amount of Program Time
d) Staff Organization

e) Evaluation

Each planning committee considers the available alternatives in the light of the students' needs, the defined objectives and goals, the practices and requirements of the school and/or district, and the tenets of bilingual-bicultural education.

**Type of Program**

In the literature of this field many authors, such as: Gaarder, Mackey, Robinett, Andersson, and Vera John, treat this topic with different emphasis and in some instances with various subdivisions. However, for the sake of clarification and as a contribution to the field, this researcher will treat them in the following manner.

The two types, transitional and maintenance, can be distinguished by their purposes. The transitional program is intended to enable Spanish-dominant students to enter into the linguistic and cultural mainstream as quickly as possible. Spanish language arts is taught as a basis for learning English. Initially Spanish is the major vehicle of instruction, but gradually the emphasis is more on English until Spanish is phased out altogether. Once the student is prepared to function successfully in the regular classroom, he leaves the program. The student may become bilingual, but he usually does not continue using Spanish as a tool for learning.
Eventually he may forget it completely.

The transitional program is appropriate for certain situations:

1) The student is to be in the program from one to three years and is then to enter the regular classroom.

2) An older student enters an upper grade center and must eventually enter a high school that has no bilingual program.

The purpose of the maintenance program is to enable the Spanish-dominant students to use both languages as tools for learning. This will be accomplished in two stages. First, through participation in a bilingual readiness program where the dominant language is initially used most of the time and the second language is gradually introduced over a period of three to four years. Spanish usage decreases gradually and English usage increases gradually until the students become functional in both languages at their own individual mastery level. Second, once the students are functional bilinguals this theory maintains both languages and cultures as subjects and as tools for learning the content areas in a proportion of 50/50. This will continue throughout the elementary and ideally throughout the secondary level. Both languages and cultures are given equal importance throughout the program. Following this theory the students will become truly educated bilingual/bicultural persons.

The maintenance program is recommended for situations where continuity through the grades is possible. When the
school and the community believe that students should maintain their native language and cultural inheritance while learning a new language and culture, the advisability of this program is apparent.

One additional factor to be taken into account is whether the program will be one-way or two-way. In a one-way program, only the Spanish-dominant students participate and learn in two languages. In a two-way program, Spanish-dominant and English-dominant students participate. Both groups learn and develop their own and the second language. Both groups learn the content subjects in their own and the other language.

Development of Language Usage

Organizing the curriculum and time with respect to the two languages as mediums of instruction for both content subjects and the language arts involves the following four options:

1. Initial use of the student's dominant language and gradual introduction and increase of the second language in definite time blocks based on a developmental sequence as the learners progress through the various levels of the program—A decision on when and how much to use each language will have to be made for each level and each subject area. This is the desired approach for a true bilingual education program. Correlated with the developmental usage of the language is the developmental degree of integration between
Spanish-dominant and English-dominant students. At first, integration takes place on a limited scale, such as, for art and music activities. However, once the learners become bilingual on their own level, total integration and fusion of languages and cultures can take place.

2. Both languages used equally at all times without distinction between developmental levels and language proficiency --This approach could lead to phonological, grammatical, and syntactical confusion for the learners. Direct translation should have no place in a truly developmental bilingual education program.

3. One language used primarily giving special terms in the other --This approach could be feasible if the learners do not have the opportunity to go through a developmental bilingual program.

4. One language used exclusively --This approach has no place in a developmental bilingual program even at the very first stages of development.

Amount of Program Time

The choice here is among three options: full-day, half-day, and limited participation, for example one or two periods a day. However, funding criteria in Chicago indicate that limited participation is not really adequate to be called a bilingual education program. As Ulibarri has stated, "... the [bilingual] program should be an integral part of the
on-going educational process of the children and not an appendage. ¹

In a full-day operation, students spend all of their time in the program receiving instruction in all subjects. This option is best utilized with qualified bilingual-bicultural teachers of the content subjects. Its main advantage is that it provides a comprehensive bilingual education program.

In a half-day operation, students either spend part of their day in special bilingual classrooms, or the bilingual teacher comes to the regular classrooms for a portion of the day. Team-teaching is desirable in the latter situation. Use of the half-day operation allows twice as many students to be served.

Even in the full-day programs outside Chicago, teachers and administrators have felt the need for more instructional time and in the cases of Coral Way and Las Cruces, they have found various means of providing it. Again, students' needs, goals, objectives, economic resources, and community response will dictate the size and scope of the program.

Staff Organization

Factors taken into consideration here include selection and hiring of teachers, in-service training programs, and the alternatives for faculty organization: team-teaching, depart-

mentalized instruction, self-contained classrooms, or a combination of these. Often the choice in this latter area is determined by the abilities and specializations of the staff. For example, staff compatibility and willingness to share responsibility and authority would heighten the feasibility of team-teaching where two or more teachers and aides teach one large class.

If the staff is mainly subject-oriented, departmentalization is preferable wherein each teacher is responsible for one subject or area. If there is enough diversity on the staff, teachers may be paired to cover all school subjects, thus combining team-teaching with departmentalized instruction.

Finally, if the principal or program director can hire several bilingual teachers, each certified and experienced in teaching all elementary subjects, the self-contained classroom, converted perhaps to an open classroom to meet today's educational demands, is indeed a viable alternative. The problem here is the shortage of such teachers. However, if a school has the interest and resources, it may consider a recruitment program.

Evaluation

Accountability is usually a condition for funding at the federal, state and local levels. Having made a series of objectives and hypotheses concerning the program, it becomes necessary to measure their validity. How the students' progress and the program's effectiveness will be evaluated is
important for the improvement and well-being of the program itself and as a guide for new programs.

Since evaluation is a technical field requiring detailed statistical and demographic information, a specialist should be consulted. He can provide expert advice on selecting test instruments, establishing or adapting norms, scheduling and administering tests, and analyzing and interpreting results.

Another component to be considered in any bilingual program is community involvement. In this regard, some of the programs inside and outside of Chicago have originated because of community interest. P.S. 25 and Las Cruces have unequivocally stated that a most important factor in the success of their programs has been active community interest and support.\(^1\)

Parental understanding and involvement are generally perceived as neither a luxury nor a useful appendage, but as a need, a prerequisite for a successful bilingual program.\(^2\)

Overview of Organizational Patterns of Selected Centers Throughout the United States

Coral Way Elementary School
Miami, Florida, Grades 1-6

Historical Background

The mass influx of Cubans into the metropolitan, largely


middle-class Dade County, beginning in 1960, provided the initial stimulus for this project. Special programs, teachers trained in bilingual techniques, and materials for teaching English as a second language were virtually non-existent causing concern among staff, administrators and parents who began meeting to discuss ways of coping with the problem. Through Ford Foundation funding, the bilingual school—the first of its kind in the United States—was established in 1963.

Type of Program

Coral Way, a two-way maintenance type program, began with an even ratio of Cuban and American children. Due to the continued immigration of Cubans into the community, the proportions changed accordingly so that in 1971 there were approximately 1,200 Spanish-dominant students and 320 English-dominant students, or a ratio of about four to one. This ratio has since stabilized thereby keeping intact the two-way nature of the program.

Development of Language Usage

For the Spanish-dominant students Coral Way attempts to give equal time and treatment to the two mediums of instruction, Spanish and English. The classes are segregated by language groups completely in grades 1-3 and only partly in grades 4-6. The second language is gradually introduced in first grade and the time of language usage is divided in each grade thereafter. All subjects in grades 1-3 are presented first in the dominant language and are then taught again in
the second language thereby reinforcing the curriculum content and teaching the second language simultaneously. Because different methods, activities, teachers, and languages are employed, the child is not bored by this double presentation of concepts but is able to see them in various perspectives. Finally, both languages are freely used when the language groups are mixed for physical education, supervised play, art and music.

By the fourth and fifth grades, it was found that the Spanish-dominant pupils could learn course content through the second language without having it presented first in the dominant language, such was their command of the second language by this time. For this reason, the program alternates from the fourth grade on, with three weeks of instruction entirely in Spanish and three weeks in English.

Amount of Program Time

Because this is a full-day operation, students spend all their time in the program. To assure a good second language beginning without detracting from other curricular areas, an hour is added to the school day during the last twelve weeks of first grade and throughout the year in the remaining grades making the child's school day six and one-half hours long. Coral Way's comprehensive goals call for the formation of full bilingual-biliterate-bicultural individuals.¹

¹"We Like Two . . . Y Tu?" Description of Bilingual Program of the Coral Way Elementary School, Miami, Florida, 1971, p. 5.
Staff Organization

English-dominant and Spanish-dominant teachers are selected by a hiring committee which holds interest in and knowledge of the cultural diversity as a high priority. The native English-speaking teachers are selected from the Coral Way faculty and trained in English as a Second Language. The native Spanish-dominant teachers are experienced Cuban teachers who have completed a special course at the University of Miami for Florida certification. The teachers work in teams. One English-dominant teacher handles instruction in English for one English and one Spanish-dominant class, spending half the day with each group, while the Spanish-dominant teacher alternates with the same two classes teaching in Spanish. The aides are paraprofessionals who, for the most part, had been certified teachers in Cuba.

The staff attends summer workshops and ongoing in-service training sessions focusing on the utilization of audio-visual aids, the audic-lingual process; and team-teaching techniques. A major facet of the program is a one hour planning period provided for the teachers daily to cooperatively plan the two halves of the child's day. During this hour the bilingual aides handle the class for mixed activities.

Evaluation

In 1968 Dr. Mabel Richardson compared the academic achievement of the students in Coral Way with those of a monolingual school. The premise of the study was not that the
bilingual program would be more effective than the regular school program, but that in addition to making normal progress in the regular school curriculum, the Spanish and English-speaking children would learn a second language by the end of the elementary school years. Dr. Richardson's conclusion was that "English and Spanish-speaking pupils in the bilingual program performed as well on the criterion referenced tests as did the English and Spanish speaking pupils who studied the regular curriculum in a monolingual school."¹

Another indication of progress in the sphere of second language learning is seen in the fact that teachers felt that the curriculum content could be taught in either language by the fourth and fifth grades and that some students even adopted the second language as their vernacular, so fluent and comfortable had they become in it.

The English-dominant pupils who entered Coral Way in first grade at the beginning of the project in 1963 received especially close observation for possible harmful effects of receiving half of their schooling through a foreign language. The following median percentile rankings on the Stanford achievement tests administered in the spring of 1966 banished this fear: paragraph meaning, 85; word meaning, 93; spelling, 99; arithmetic reasoning, 93; arithmetic computation, 60.

These results were obtained with children whose median score on the Otis Alpha Test of Mental Maturity was 89.1

Public School 25 "The Bilingual School", Bronx, New York, Grades K-6

Historical Background

P.S. 25 is located in a school district with the highest concentration of the Spanish-speaking population in New York. The inability of many of the students to function effectively in the English language coupled with an alarming drop-out rate caused school personnel, parents, and interested persons within New York University to inquire about the bilingual approach as an attempt to overcome these problems. Accordingly, with Title VII support, the Bilingual School was established in 1968 at P.S. 25 in District 7 of the New York School System.

The students are from low-income families. About 86 per cent are from Spanish-speaking homes and of this 86 per cent, 20 percent speak only Spanish. The program also serves the 14 per cent of the student population which consists of Black, English-speaking children whose parents have indicated an interest in the program. Admission to the school is voluntary and is open to all children in the district.

Type of Program

For the Spanish-dominant students both languages are

used as mediums of instruction in varying amounts according to grade level. It can be classified as a maintenance type program.

Development of Language Usage

Originally a strict theoretical model for language instruction was proposed with native language instruction given 85 per cent of the time in the kindergarten and gradually moving to 50 per cent in the sixth grade. This model had to be modified, however, because the school opened the bilingual program for grades K-5 at once instead of developing the program year by year.

Initially, children were segregated according to language groups, but the program now integrates at the fourth grade level when second language proficiency is sufficient to allow instruction to be given in it.

It must be added that the support and aid of the community in making P.S. 25 a dynamic and vital program has been invaluable. Many parents help tutor in the classroom, take active part in hearings and debates centering on the curriculum and the future of the school, and act as resource persons and liaisons between the school and the community. It is a situation which meets Ulibarri's ideal description:

Everybody profits when parents and community members participate in the curriculum. The school and the program will gain not only through expertise brought by the parents, but also through the commitment of the parents to the program. At the same time, it is a worthwhile experi-
ence for the parent to come into the school setting and to participate in the teaching act.¹

Amount of Program Time

P.S. 25 is a full-day program beginning with kindergarten and advancing through sixth grade. The ultimate goal is the enrichment of the child through the development of a positive self-image and the creation of "functional bilinguals" who can understand, speak, read, and write with equal proficiency in Spanish and English.²

Staff Organization

The principal, two assistant principals, and the teachers are all bilingual. Some staff members transferred from other New York schools while recruitment teams went to Puerto Rico to give certification exams, thus obtaining twenty-two bilingual teachers. Others were hired through letters of application from other parts of the United States.

For enrolled teachers, ongoing training includes a two-credit in-service program and weekly staff seminars dealing with curriculum, Puerto Rican culture, plays, songs, and poems. A Master's Program has been proposed for bilingual education within the New York University's School of Education.

A combination of departmentalized instruction and the self-contained classroom is used, depending on the formation and specialization of the teachers. As is often the case,

¹Ulibarri, Bilingual Education, p. 17.
²John and Horner, op. cit., p. 52.
the self-contained rooms tend to be in the primary grades with more departmentalization taking place in the upper grades.

Evaluation

P.S. 25 has developed curricular materials ranging from Spanish for Spanish-speakers (available for grades K-6), Spanish as a Second Language (K-6), social studies for the Spanish-speaking student (K-2), a guide for an individualized reading program, and an anthology of children's poetry. All of these are currently being tested at the school and are available to interested persons for testing under different circumstances.

A comprehensive evaluation of the entire program using criterion-referenced and standardized tests was to have taken place, but as of this writing, the results have not been received.

Las Cruces School District No. 2
Las Cruces, New Mexico, Grades K-6

Historical Background

An agricultural community along the Rio Grande with a population composed of 50 per cent Mexican-American, 95 per cent of whom are low-income families, and 50 per cent Anglo-Americans, Las Cruces set out to develop a comprehensive school program with its own curriculum, materials, methodology, staff training and community interaction techniques. The economic resources were provided mainly through Title III, Supplementary
Education Centers and Services, while other funds came from Title VII and the State. New Mexico State University in Las Cruces served as an intellectual and moral resource as its FM station was involved in bilingual programs, and plans were under way for a color TV bilingual program.

In 1967, eight primary teachers began to work out the culture-centered curriculum and by September of that year, four public schools began implementing the programs at the kindergarten and first grade levels.

Type of Program

Because children only from Spanish cultural-linguistic backgrounds are in the experimental classes, this is a one-way program. Since its beginnings in 1967, the project has been expanded through the sixth grade with both languages used as mediums of instruction, so it may also be classified as a maintenance-type bilingual program.

Development of Language Usage

The Las Cruces system attempted to adopt the equal time and treatment approach but found that for them a strict linguistic schedule was difficult to maintain.

In the early stages of the program the day was divided in half, instruction in Spanish in the morning, and English in the afternoon. However, as the program developed, the teachers developed their own class schedules. While about half of the day continued to be spent in each language, individual instruction varied; in some classes both languages

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may be mixed in one lesson, or a lesson in English may directly follow a lesson in Spanish.\(^1\)

The carefully planned curriculum is based on the language experience and inquiry/discovery approaches. Multiple resources, activities, and suggestions are built into the curriculum guide so that the teacher is able to choose what best suits the needs of each child in this individualized program. Emphasis is placed at each grade level upon the utilization of historical and cultural contributions of the ethnic groups in the community.

One of the primary goals of the program has been to involve parents as advisors and learners. Parents are welcomed into the classrooms at any time and they are taught how to prepare and use teaching aids at monthly parent meetings where questions of school policy and educational philosophy are aired in Spanish and English. Parent interviews and questionnaires have been developed through Title VII funding which are often used in home visits by teachers to help promote and maintain community interest.\(^2\)

Amount of Program Time

A full-day project, the Las Cruces District 2 schools have introduced an experimental 200-day school year with short

\(^1\)"Sustained Primary Program for Bilingual Students," Las Cruces, New Mexico, pp. 39-42.

\(^2\)"Parent Questionnaire," "Parent Attitudes toward Bilingual Education," "Parent Attitudes toward Education Scale," Las Cruces Public Schools, Las Cruces, New Mexico (Austin, Texas: Dissemination Center for Bilingual-Bicultural Education).
vacations spread out over the year in the hope that language and concept learning and their retention will be facilitated. The basic goal is to simultaneously improve cultural and self-awareness and achievement levels through a sustained bilingual language arts program.

Staff Organization

The bilingual classrooms are self-contained with one bilingual teacher per room. There are bilingual aides for each room, however, and students from New Mexico State University Cooperative Education Program work in the kindergartens in teams of two, one member of each team being Spanish-speaking. Children have the same teacher from kindergarten through third grade to insure continuity with no new children being added to these experimental classes.

An intensive teacher-training program covering orientation and twenty-five days of teacher in-service training sessions is given to the staff. Once a week, teachers meet to discuss curriculum, materials, or program evaluation. Half-day visits to each other's classes are made on a rotating basis. Every summer there is a one-week workshop for teachers and aides on the teaching of language, culture and classroom management skills.

Evaluation

Classes were divided at the kindergarten and first grades into the bilingual program, English as a Second Language
program, and a control group following a traditional basal reader program. The factors being tested were the following:

1) the effectiveness of a bilingual instructional program as compared with the two above-mentioned programs
2) any change in pupils' IQ during the programs
3) the effects of a 200-day school year
4) the relationship between parental involvement and student achievement
5) the relationship between parental attitude and student achievement
6) improvement of reading readiness
7) change in reading level.

The instruments used to assess these factors are both standardized and teacher-made tests. The latter include:

1) The Readiness Checklist
2) The Language Arts Checklist
3) Parent Attitude toward Education Scale
4) Parent Participation Record.

The following are the standardized tests used:

1) Draw-a-Man
2) Metropolitan Achievement Test
3) KELP Criteria
4) Metropolitan Reading Readiness
5) California Test of Mental Ability
6) Iowa Test of Basic Skills.

It was assumed that the bilingual program, emphasizing cultural and self-awareness while developing the
child's ability in his native language and a second language, would "initially slow the child's acquisition of the academic classroom skills as measured by traditional achievement tests. . . . Once these skills are acquired, the students can then excel in the academic subject areas."

Through the use of the above-mentioned evaluative instruments, the results by the fourth grade level indicate that "bilingual classroom students seem to be performing at a higher academic level than the control group students." 1

It is still very early to make specific conclusions, yet the results are encouraging.

The St. Lambert Experiment, Montreal, Canada, Grades K-4

Although the following program falls outside the realm of this study, being neither for the Spanish-speaking nor confined within the borders of the United States, its scientific make-up, plus its techniques of evaluation make it relevant to this discussion of bilingual programs.

Historical Background

Montreal has a dual school system with French Catholic schools for French-speaking families and English non-Catholic schools for English-speaking families. Over the years, French fears of linguistic and cultural suffocation in an English-dominated country have sparked political movements trying to

make French the "working language" of the province. Some English-speaking parents desired bilingualism for their children with an eye toward this future.

The experiment received its impetus when several of these parents, concerned about the ineffectiveness of prevalent methods of foreign language teaching, got in touch with a group of researchers and evaluators at McGill University that was interested in developing full-fledged bilingualism in Quebec. This group, headed by W. E. Lambert and G. R. Tucker, had over the years encouraged both French and English-speaking parents to place their children in the other school system for the elementary grades. When an entire bilingual program was proposed, though, it ran into extremely emotional and conflicting arguments from both sides and from within both educational establishments. Fortunately, there were principals and administrators who were willing to give the experiment its start and who saw it as a much larger experiment in democratic co-existence that required people of different cultures and languages to develop mutual understanding and respect.

Accordingly, the program was set up using four groups: one experimental English-Canadian group, two English control groups, and one French control group. Each group was matched as to socio-economic status (middle class), parental aspirations for their children, parental attitudes toward the other language group, intelligence, readiness levels, vocabulary,
teachers' experience and skill, and the program of study. The experiment began in 1966 after all the children had gone through the normal daily kindergarten program in their dominant language except for the experimental class which had a monolingual French-speaking teacher.

Type of Program

The twist to this one-way program is that the instruction is given almost entirely through the second language. All the children in the experimental class were from monolingual English homes yet their classroom language was French. The program can still be classified as maintenance type because English language arts were taught beginning in the second grade, and once outside the classroom, the children returned to their native language with classmates and family. There was little chance of losing the language which was predominant and acceptable in the environment.

Development of Language Usage

The second language, French, was taught exclusively in kindergarten and first grade. The pupils followed an all-French program with content appropriate for the grade level as set by the French regional school board. All textbooks, workbooks and readers were in French and prepared for native speakers of French except for those books used in the English language arts program. After the second year, for two thirty-five minute periods daily, the standard English reading
program was taught as concisely as possible. In other words, the experimental classes were taught English not as students of a second language, but as ordinary English-speaking school children.

Although English was taught formally for seventy minutes daily for grades two, three, and four, English was used in music, art, physical education and the library period so that it actually composed about 40 per cent of the curriculum. A recommendation for improving the program was to have more of the "fun" subjects such as music, physical education and art taught in French at least part of the time.

Amount of Program Time

The program is on a full-day basis following the regular school calendar.

Staff Organization

The classrooms were self-contained and conducted very much on the European model which Canada inherited. That is to say that discipline and organization were apparent with most activities being teacher-directed in the traditional manner. The teacher spoke a great deal of the time in kindergarten and grade one but this decreased as the students did more written work. The teachers were experienced French elementary teachers, not second language specialists. They found that the more contact between teacher and child there was, the more progress the children made in their ability to verbalize. When
the English language arts program was given, it was taught by a specialist in that subject area.

Evaluation

The major purpose of the experiment was to assess and evaluate the impact of elementary schooling conducted primarily in a second language on the linguistic, intellectual, and attitudinal development of children. At every grade level from first to fourth, the pilot and follow-up experimental groups were compared with conventionally trained French-speaking children following a standard program in French and with English-speaking children following the standard academic program in English. These results at all grade levels are printed in Lambert and Tucker's book, *Bilingual Education of Children*; but for this research, only the results from the pilot class at the end of fourth grade are reproduced to show the areas compared, some of the instruments used, and the academic results seen at the end of the five-year assessment period.

The following summary and conclusions were also made:

One can think of the program than as a type of "bilingual education" in the more conventional sense, although the major emphasis throughout had been clearly on French, one of the two major languages of the country, but one that would likely be overlooked in the home, school, and social environments of these young Canadians. . . .

After five years, we are satisfied that the experimental program has resulted in no native language or subject matter (i.e., arithmetic) deficit or retardation of any sort, nor is there any cognitive retardation attributable to participation in the program. In fact, the experimental
pupils appear to be able to read, write, speak, understand and use English as competently as youngsters instructed in the conventional manner via English. During the same period of time and with no apparent personal or academic costs, the children developed a competence in reading, writing, speaking and understanding French that English pupils following a traditional French as a Second Language program for the same amount of years could never match.

... we were convinced that the goal of bilingualism could be most efficiently attained if adequate attention were given to introducing in a sympathetic manner the other culture and its representatives. ... Since the goal of biculturalism or other-culture sensitivity must be linked to the goal of bilingualism, we believe that the experimental pupils can easily develop a sensitivity and positive outlook towards both of Canada's major ethno-linguistic groups in spite of the social tensions in the community.  

The St. Lambert project, with its white, middle-class clientele proves that bilingual education does not equal poverty; it is for all economic groups; those who do not have the difficulties listed in Chapter IV, as well as, those who do. The students in the St. Lambert project achieved success. Possibly the following factors contributed to the good results. The project had a controlled experimental design which was carefully implemented. French was a recognized and accepted language in the city. The pro-English environment aided the maintenance of English. The principals who implemented the project in their schools did so despite much opposition. They wanted to prove that bilingual education was not compensatory education but a viable alternative to foreign language teaching. This project also shows that different designs are adaptable to the specific needs of the students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Number and Name</th>
<th>Experimental Class</th>
<th>English Controls</th>
<th>French Controls</th>
<th>Ratio</th>
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<td>Mean</td>
<td>Adjusted</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Adjusted</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Rhythm and Intonation</td>
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<td>3.22</td>
<td>3.53</td>
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<td>199.61</td>
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<td>0.20</td>
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<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.17</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.66</td>
<td>0.68</td>
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<td><strong>10. Decoding Skills in English</strong></td>
<td><strong>Children's Descriptions</strong></td>
<td>7.68</td>
<td>7.82</td>
<td>7.19</td>
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<tr>
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<td>6.37</td>
<td>6.34</td>
<td>7.65</td>
<td>7.66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**French Competence**

| **11. French Listening Comprehension** | 13.65 | 13.91 | -- | -- | 15.64 | 15.28 | 1.20 |
| **12. French Peabody** | 38.30 | 38.87 | -- | -- | 46.79 | 45.97 | 3.84 |

| **13. Speaking Skills in French:** | **Story Invention Linguistic Ratings** |
| **Overall Expression** | 3.05 | 2.94 | -- | -- | 4.00 | 4.19 | 8.06** |
| **Grammar** | 2.58 | 2.71 | -- | -- | 4.67 | 4.45 | 14.83** |
| **Enunciation** | 3.84 | 3.97 | -- | -- | 4.92 | 4.71 | 4.59* |
| **Liaison** | 4.37 | 4.30 | -- | -- | 5.00 | 5.11 | 6.69* |
| **Rhythm and Intonation** | 3.37 | 3.42 | -- | -- | 4.92 | 4.84 | 16.37** |

| **Word Counts** | **Total Words** | 105.16 | 95.39 | -- | -- | 83.69 | 97.97 | 0.02 |
| **Nouns %** | 0.16 | 0.16 | -- | -- | 0.17 | 0.16 | 0.00 |
| **Different Nouns %** | 0.78 | 0.80 | -- | -- | 0.70 | 0.66 | 4.26* |
| **Adjectives %** | 0.05 | 0.06 | -- | -- | 0.06 | 0.05 | 4.18 |
| **Different Adjectives %** | 0.62 | 0.64 | -- | -- | 0.71 | 0.69 | 4.18 |
| **Verbs %** | 0.16 | 0.16 | -- | -- | 0.19 | 0.19 | 6.89* |
| **Different Verbs** | 0.74 | 0.77 | -- | -- | 0.69 | 0.65 | 4.25* |

| **14. Decoding Skills in French** | **Children's Descriptions** | 6.21 | 6.36 | -- | -- | 9.00 | 8.80 | 8.64** |
| **Adults' Descriptions** | 7.16 | 7.02 | -- | -- | 8.14 | 8.33 | 2.74 |

**Arithmetic Skills**

<p>| <strong>15. Arithmetic Computation</strong> (S.S.) | 64.79 | 66.00 | 66.16 | 65.42 | -- | -- | 0.03 |
| <strong>16. Problem Solving (S.S.)</strong> | 61.16 | 61.99 | 60.84 | 60.33 | -- | -- | 0.34 |</p>
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Test Number and Name</th>
<th>Experimental Class</th>
<th>English Controls</th>
<th>French Controls</th>
<th>Ratio</th>
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<td>Raven (French)</td>
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<td>18. Lorge-Thorndike</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61.89</td>
<td>63.32</td>
<td>56.83</td>
<td>55.89</td>
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<td>17.23</td>
<td>15.34</td>
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<td>17.16</td>
<td>16.14</td>
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<td>French Consequences</td>
<td>7.79</td>
<td>7.22</td>
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* p < .05

** p < .01

Overview of Bilingual Centers in Chicago

An Analysis of Documentary and Interview Data

General Information

The representative samples from across the nation have been outlined; an overview of bilingual programs in Chicago will now be presented. Although there are a few programs for other language groups, the totals used throughout the study represent only the Spanish-English programs in Chicago. The projections also refer only to the increase in Spanish-English programs since this is the emphasis stated at the outset of this study.

The information was obtained by gathering responses to a questionnaire; this was followed up by an on-site visitation to each of the sixty-four programs during which interviews were held with the administrators and teachers from these centers. All literature, including publications from the Chicago Board of Education regarding the individual centers was studied. The researcher also had accessibility to the files of the Chicago Board to augment his findings.

Spanish-Speaking Groups.--Chicago is currently the fourth largest city in the United States in terms of the Spanish-speaking population, surpassed only by New York, Los Angeles, and San Antonio. It is the only city in the nation where the two largest groups of Latin descent live together
in relatively equal proportions. Puerto Rican students in the Chicago Public Schools make up 48.7 per cent; the Mexican-American student population is 43.1 per cent; Cubans represent 4.2 per cent of this total, and other Central and South American countries contribute the remaining 4.0 per cent.¹

In 1973-74 there were 63,730 Spanish surnamed students in the Chicago Public Schools or 11.7 per cent of the total school enrollment.² Out of these, according to the researcher's findings only 12,351 were enrolled in bilingual programs, that is only 19.4 per cent were receiving necessary academic assistance. This may account for the fact that in 1970 the Spanish-speaking population of Chicago as a group had much less formal schooling than the non-Spanish-speaking population. The median number of school years completed was 8.7 and the percentage completing high school only 27.1.³

Of the total 1973-74 Latino enrollment in elementary and general high schools, 91 per cent is located in 11 of the 27 districts, ranging from 5.4 per cent in District 12 to 65.6 per cent in District 6. In District 19, 44.8 per cent of the 19,348 students in 1973 were Latino, most of Mexican


There are 8 other districts in the city with Latino enrollments of 15 per cent or more.

There are at least two implications of this demographic data for the school system. First, Latino enrollment is virtually systemwide with significant numbers in all three administrative areas, so there is need for overall, centralized planning and administration dealing specifically with Latino education possibly with a Latino superintendent to deal with Latino problems exclusively. Second, there is major diversity in national origin within the Latino community, which demonstrates the importance of specialized programs and staff sensitivity to particular needs of the various Latino subgroups.¹

The following pages will present some graphic illustrations that will aid in visualizing some statistics concerning bilingual programs in Chicago.

Figure 5 depicts the growth of bilingual programs in Chicago over a six year period. One program was in existence in 1968. With five more centers opening in 1969 the total rose to 6. Seven additional centers began in 1970, with a total of 13; another 7 in 1971, making a total of 20. For 1972 the number of new centers doubled (14) bringing the total to 34. The largest increase took place during the 1973-74 school year. Thirty new Spanish-English centers opened, thus raising the total to 64. Projections indicate the possible commencement of 18 more new programs for 1974-75. If this

Figure 5.—Expansion of Spanish-English Bilingual Schools in Chicago—1967 to 1974
occurs, the total will be 82 schools.

Figure 6 depicts the number of Spanish-English programs in each grade level for 1973-74. Twelve centers begin their programs at the preschool level. Thirty-four centers begin in kindergarten, six in first grade and two in second grade. That is 54 out of 64 centers, 84.4 per cent, begin in the primary grades. There are three upper grade centers, which begin in sixth grade, and seven high school bilingual programs. Thus the trend in Chicago seems to be to start bilingual-bicultural education at the earliest possible age.

Chicago's public schools are divided into three administrative areas, A, B, and C progressing from south to north. Initially, the bilingual programs were more concentrated in Area B where a long-established Mexican-American community dwells. However, due to the heavy migration of Puerto Ricans and other Latin groups to the North Side, Area C now has more bilingual programs. The geographic distribution of programs for 1973-74 is depicted in Figure 7.

Funding.--The federal government took the initiative in both recognizing the need for bilingual education and in stimulating the growth of bilingual centers. This it did primarily through the passage of The Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 and its amendment, The Bilingual Education Act Title VII, designed to meet the "special educational needs of the large numbers of children of limited English-
Figure 6.--Number of Spanish-English Bilingual Programs at Each Grade Level--1973-1974
1974-75 Projections--Dotted line denotes projected expansion--
Information obtained from files of Chicago Board of Education

Figure 7.--Distribution of Spanish-English Bilingual Schools
by Administrative Areas--1973-1974
speaking ability in the United States."¹ Currently, ten Chicago programs, determined in cooperation with parents and teachers and designed to continue growth in content and concept areas in the dominant language while increasing English language competency are funded through Title VII.²

ESEA Title III, Supplementary Education Centers and Services, is noteworthy for its backing of innovative projects which might not otherwise be funded by local boards of education due to their high risk factor. Two community bilingual education centers, one in a Mexican-American district, Rubén Salazar, and one in a predominantly Puerto Rican district, José de Diego, serve pre-school children and have an adult component. Title III funding has expired, but for the 1974-75 school year these two projects will continue with state and Title VII funding.

The state of Illinois has dramatically increased its stake in bilingual education providing to Chicago $200,000 in fiscal year 1971 and increasing that amount to $3,900,000 in the 1973-74 fiscal year. Projections for 1974-75 seem to indicate that Chicago will receive five and one-half million dollars from state funds. This means the funding of twenty-one more projects, bringing the total of State-funded projects in the Chicago Public School System to seventy-eight.

¹Bilingual Education Act, as amended in 1967, Section 702.
Under the *Illinois School Code*, 1973-74, the funds have been divided among the following recipients in Chicago:

1) Fifty-seven bilingual programs from pre-school to high school.

2) Three Bilingual-Bicultural Materials Resource Centers, one located in each of the three administrative areas. The purpose of these centers is to contain bilingual education textual and non-textual materials for all grade levels and content subject for teachers to view and to borrow.

Unfortunately, the Chicago Board of Education, the agency which should be taking the lead in meeting the needs of its students, has funded only one bilingual program thus far, the Peabody Center. It is to be hoped that its participation in this enterprise will increase. It is to be remembered that out of 63,730 Spanish-speaking students in the Chicago Public Schools, only 12,351 are being served by bilingual programs.

It is true that the expansion is dramatic. However, when looking at the figures of those being served and those yet to be reached, this is only a beginning. Another factor to be taken into consideration is that the outside agencies contract their funding only for five years. By then the local agency has to absorb the funding. To assure this, the state, before it allocates funds expects to see maintenance of effort explicitly stated in the proposal. This is a good requirement in order to guarantee the survival of the programs. Hopefully with House Bill 1223 becoming law in 1976, the local
agency will offer more assistance. Federal and State funds are not given to supplant but to supplement existing funds. Figure 8 depicts the funding sources.

The reader will note that in Figure 8 the word "project" was used instead of school and that the totals are greater than in Figure 7. This is due to the fact that a few schools receive both state and federal funds for bilingual projects. For example, a school might have a state-funded primary level project and a federally-funded project in the intermediate grades.

Organizational Designs in Chicago

The ongoing bilingual-bicultural programs in Chicago have been functioning as a small part of the regular local school program. From the results of the questionnaire, on-site visitations, and interviews, this researcher has found very much diversity among programs. This is commendable since the programs are trying to meet specific needs. However, after much screening it was possible to note certain common elements in the programs. The following diagrams (Figures 9-14) depict a representative sample of various organizational structures currently employed by existing programs. They are merely patterns or alternatives which administrators have chosen to meet their local needs, they are by no means models.
1974-75 Projections--Dotted line denotes expansion--Information obtained from files of Chicago Board of Education

Figure 8.--Funding Sources for Spanish-English Bilingual Projects--1973-1974
A teacher comes to each class twice a week to teach science. Another teacher teaches music once a week to each class and also tutors math, and English language arts.

Grades 6 and 7 follow the same pattern as the above.

*Figure 9.--Departmentalized Segregated Full Day Transitional Program*

*A major weakness of this design is the complete isolation of the Spanish-dominant students with a Spanish-dominant teacher.*

*Figure 10.--Self-Contained Segregated Full Day Transitional Program*
Grade 1

1 English-dominant Teacher
   Board-funded

18 English-dominant Students

36 Students

1 Bl/Bc Spanish-dominant Teacher
   State-funded

18 Spanish-dominant Students

Grades 2-4 follow the same structural pattern

English-dominant Teacher teaches:

- English Language Arts (English as a first language)
- English as a Second Language to Spanish-dominant students
- Mathematics, Science, Social Studies in English

Spanish-dominant Teacher teaches:

- Spanish Language Arts (Spanish as a first language)
- Spanish as a Second Language
- Social Studies in Spanish
- Science and Math reinforcement in Spanish
- Physical Education, Art, Music—Integrated

Figure 11.—Team-Teaching Partially Integrated Full Day Program
Bl English-Dominant Teacher  
25-30 Span.-Dom Pupils  
1st Eng. L.A.  
Music once a week  
Grade 1 (A)

Bl/Bc Spanish-Dominant Teacher  
25-30 Eng.-Dom Pupils  
English origin  
Spanish origin  
Math Science in Eng. or Span.  
Grade 1 (c)

Students Change Classes

Bl/Bc Spanish-Dominant Teacher  
25-30 Eng.-Dom. Pupils  
Span. L.A.  
1st Social Studies (culture) in Span. and Eng.  
Grade 1 (B)

Figure 12.—Departmentalized Partially-Integrated Full Day
Spanish-Dominant Students Go to the Bilingual Classroom

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade 1</th>
<th>Grade 1</th>
<th>Grade 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Bl/Bc Teacher</td>
<td>34 Students</td>
<td>34 Students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 Students</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Spanish:
- Social Studies (Culture)
- Spanish Language Arts
- Math Tutoring

AM

PM

Grade 2

Same as above

Grade 2

8

32 Students

Grade 2

8

32 Students

Figure 13.—Pull-Out Half Day

1 Bl/Bc Spanish-Dominant Teacher Goes to Two Regular Classrooms Daily—

AM

PM

Grade 1 (A)

34 Students

17 Spanish-Dominant

17 English-Dominant

Grade 1 (B)

Same as above

1 Bl/Bc Spanish-Dominant Teacher

Spanish Language Arts

Social Studies (Culture)

Math Tutoring in Spanish

The teacher may alternate the morning and afternoon periods spent with each class or follow a fixed schedule

Figure 14.—Team-Teaching Half Day
Overview of Bilingual Centers in Chicago

An Analysis of Questionnaire Data

The questionnaire had items pertaining to all of the five basic organizational components: Type of Program, Development of Language Usage, Amount of Program Time, Staff Organization, Evaluation of Student Progress and Program Effectiveness. It was designed in such a way as to obtain information regarding the main organizational aspects of each program so as to determine whether or not various trends are emerging in Chicago and to determine the implications these would have on society. The results were also influential in designing the model presented in the following chapter.

In the statistical analysis of the questionnaire data, the "Type of Program" was considered as the independent variable with its two theories, maintenance and transitional. The other information obtained through the questionnaire were the dependent variables: Development of Language Usage, Amount of Program Time, Staff Organization, Internal and External Evaluation, and three intrinsic aspects of these components: Way, Grouping and Culture. The general null hypothesis under this procedure was that the two types of programs do not differ in their characteristics regarding the other four basic components.

Below are tables recording the frequency and Chi square data derived from the study and the analysis of its
significance. The number refers to the Spanish-English programs in Chicago. Detailed analyses, conclusions and recommendations are presented in Chapter VIII.

TABLE 19. -- Type of Program and Development of Language Usage (N=64)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Maintenance</th>
<th>Transitional</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 51.98, \text{ d.f.} = 1, p < 0.01 \]

The \( \chi^2 \) is significant beyond the .01 level, thus it can be concluded that there is a significant difference between the maintenance and transitional programs and the development of language usage.

The responses to the questionnaire were tallied "yes" if the respondents showed evidence of realizing that there is a gradual development of the usage of Spanish and English in the bilingual program. The responses were tallied "no" if this was not evident. See questionnaire p. 280.

The philosophies of the maintenance and transitional programs as explained on pages 123 and 124 differ. This difference is evidenced by the answers of the respondents also. The staff of the maintenance programs are aware of the gradual development of language usage by decreasing amounts in Spanish and increasing amounts of English until a balance occurs and the students become bilingual. Whereas, the staff of the transitional programs seem not to be aware of this, possibly
because the nature of the theory proposes that the students learn English as quickly as possible so they can return to the regular monolingual English classroom.

These two philosophies have valuable implications for bilingual education. Therefore, administrators, teachers, and researchers should study their pros and cons.

**TABLE 20.--Type of Program and Amount of Program Time (N=64)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Maintenance</th>
<th>Transitional</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Full-day</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Half-day</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quarter-day</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[\chi^2 = 9.62, \text{ d.f.} = 2, p < .05\]

The \(\chi^2\) is significant beyond the .05 level, therefore it has been found that there is a significant difference between the maintenance and transitional programs and the amount of time the students spend in the program.

The amount of time students spend in the bilingual program is related to the type of program in which they are engaged. Full-day participation is more common if the type is maintenance (4:1). Whereas less time, a half-day or a quarter-day, is spent in the bilingual program if the theory is transitional (33:26).

In most instances the maintenance type uses the full day program. This may be due to the long range goals of complete bilingualism and biculturalism which it proposes. More time is needed to achieve them, therefore, the staff chooses
the full day program.

TABLE 21.--Type of Program and Staff Organization (N=64)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Maintenance</th>
<th>Transitional</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-Contained</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Departmental</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team Teaching</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 10.84, \text{ d.f.} = 2, p < .05 \]

The \( \chi^2 \) is significant beyond the .05 level, thus it can be concluded that there is a significant difference between the maintenance and transitional programs with regard to the staff organization patterns used.

While the maintenance programs do not evidence any definite choice of staff organization patterns, but use a variety of patterns, the transitional programs show a definite choice of the self-contained organization. An explanation of this might be that the objectives of the maintenance program are much more comprehensive in view of their long range goals than the short range goals of the transitional type program.

TABLE 22.--Type of Program and Internal Evaluation (N=64)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Maintenance</th>
<th>Transitional</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher and Control</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 11.34, \text{ d.f.} = 1, p < .05 \]

The \( \chi^2 \) is significant beyond the .05 level, thus it
has been found that there is a difference between the maintenance and transitional type program and whether or not internal evaluation procedures are conducted.

With regard to internal evaluation the most frequent approach is through teacher-made final tests. In very few instances were teacher-made pre and posttests used for control and comparison by the local school administration.

TABLE 23.--Type of Program and External Evaluation (N=64)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Maintenance</th>
<th>Transitional</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Invalid</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The statistical formula did not apply here because it was evident from the frequency of responses that much improvement in external evaluation procedures is needed in both types of programs.

The frequencies indicate that 100 per cent of the sample believe that the external evaluation is invalid. Here two basic facts have to be emphasized. (1) The expectations of teachers toward evaluation are different from the funding agencies program evaluator's objectives. (2) Teachers are to be made aware of these differences and of the need for such program evaluation. Possibly inservice meetings could be conducted in order to develop confidence and credibility in external evaluation procedures.
TABLE 24.--Type of Program and Way (N=64)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Way</th>
<th>Maintenance</th>
<th>Transitional</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Again the statistical formula does not apply. None of the bilingual programs in Chicago follow the two-way approach in the strict sense of the term as explained by the researcher on page 125. The programs, however, may include both Spanish and English dominant students. Even though the English-dominant students may learn Spanish as a second language, they do not use it as a medium of instruction for the content subjects.

TABLE 25.--Type of Program and Grouping (N=64)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dominance</th>
<th>Maintenance</th>
<th>Transitional</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English Proficiency</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 43.42, \text{ d.f.} = 1, p < .01 \]

The \( \chi^2 \) is significant beyond the .01 level, thus it can be concluded that there is a significant difference between the maintenance and transitional type programs and the method of grouping employed.

Here again the differing philosophies of maintenance and transitional are evidenced. Grouping of students according to Spanish and English dominancy is prominent in the
maintenance type programs. Grouping based only on English proficiency is frequent in the transitional type programs. In the maintenance type programs, eventually both groups will use both languages as mediums of instruction, therefore, initial grouping according to language dominancy is considered important. In the transitional program the goal is to quickly return to the regular classroom, therefore, the strong emphasis is on English.

**TABLE 26.--Type of Program and Culture (N=64)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Maintenance</th>
<th>Transitional</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Universal</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universal (Mexican emphasis)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universal (Puerto Rican emphasis)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexican</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Puerto Rican</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 10.00, \text{ d.f.} = 4, \ p < .05 \]

The \( \chi^2 \) is significant beyond the .05 level, thus it can be concluded that there is a significant difference between the maintenance and transitional type programs and the cultural content being taught.

With regard to the cultural content, all five of the maintenance type programs use the universal or worldwide approach with emphasis on the dominant culture of the students. Since culture is an important part of bilingual education a significant number of the transitional programs (20) use the
universal worldwide approach and besides the universal approach also emphasize the dominant culture of the students involved in the program. This general trend toward universal instruction may occur because of the following reasons: bilingual education is essentially bicultural education, bilingual teachers are generally bicultural, and society values broad-mindedness with regard to culture.

A few other ramifications of the organizational components of the programs were also researched. These do not relate directly to the type of program employed, but the results are interesting and will be briefly reported below in frequency and percentages.

**TABLE 27.—Sufficient Staff Inservice**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the schools containing bilingual programs, 97 per cent seem to be of the opinion that they do not have sufficient inservice meetings geared specifically to bilingual-bicultural education.
### TABLE 28.—Adequacy of Materials

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>In Spanish</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>64</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>In English</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>64</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding the question whether the textual and non-textual materials are adequate for Spanish and English-dominant students, a noticeable contrast resulted. When the data was gathered 98 per cent of the programs did not have adequate material for the Spanish-dominant students. However, 97 per cent did have adequate material for the English-dominant students.

### TABLE 29.—Difficulty Acquiring Bilingual Staff

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>64</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
At the time this data was gathered, the findings showed that 64 per cent of the bilingual programs had difficulty acquiring bilingual staff.

**TABLE 30.--Adequate Physical Facilities**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>64</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fifty-three per cent of the schools have facilities for the bilingual program that are inadequate for the proper functioning of the instructional component of the program.

**TABLE 31.--Spanish and English Dominant Community Attitude Toward Bilingual Education**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Spanish</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>64</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>English</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>64</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Regarding community attitudes toward bilingual-bicultural education, 86 per cent of the Spanish-dominant community has a positive attitude, while 81 per cent of the English-dominant community has a negative attitude.

TABLE 32.--Spanish and English Dominant Community Understanding of Bilingual Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Spanish</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>English</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With regard to the understanding of bilingual-bicultural education, Table 32 shows that 61 per cent of the Spanish-dominant community does not understand bilingual education. Of the English-dominant community, 95 per cent does not have an understanding of bilingual-bicultural education.

As Table 33 shows, there is only one bilingual/bicultural principal in charge of a bilingual program in Chicago. One other principal understands and reads Spanish quite well but speaks and writes it only a little. All the
others are completely monolingual English-dominant, however, some of these do know a few phrases in Spanish.

**TABLE 33.--Bilinguality of Full-Time Administrators**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bilingual</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English-dominant, some ability in Spanish</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monolingual English-dominant</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bilingual/Bicultural</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>64</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Summary and Conclusions**

In this chapter the most important basic organizational components for any bilingual-bicultural program were explained. These were: type of program (maintenance or transitional), amount of program time (full-day, half-day, quarter-day), staff organization (self-contained, departmentalized, team-teaching), development of language usage—(dominancy or English proficiency), and evaluation (internal, external). These aspects were then studied in representative bilingual programs from three geographic regions across the country. An overview of bilingual education in Chicago was presented. The results of the questionnaire were tabulated and analyzed with regard to the above basic organizational components using type of program as the independent variable, and the other four as dependent variables, along with three
other intrinsic aspects. The null hypothesis was that the two types of programs do not differ in their characteristics regarding the other four basic components. The research revealed, however, that there is a difference between the type of program employed, maintenance or transitional, and the relation of the other basic variables to the program. Therefore, the null hypothesis had to be rejected. Chapter VIII, General Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations, presents an in-depth summary of the findings of this Chapter, offers opinions as to trends that may be developing, and suggests recommendations that could be implemented to advance bicultural-bilingual education programs. This was presented in the final chapter as a culmination of the research.

Building on the results that have been obtained, the next chapter will explain and diagram how these basic components are incorporated into the organizational structure of an innovative bicultural-bilingual program within the framework of continuous progress development to meet the needs of students and provide them with meaningful academic experiences.
CHAPTER VI

AN INNOVATIVE MODEL FOR BICULTURAL-BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Introduction

As a culmination of this study the researcher proposes for the reader's consideration a continuous progress, two-way, integrated, maintenance type, bicultural-bilingual model, functioning as a total school program. This contrasts with the ongoing bilingual program designs in Chicago which function only as a small part within the whole regular local school program.

The various programs represented by the figures in the preceding chapter should be considered as first attempts and by no means as models of bilingual-bicultural programs.

It seems to be the proper time for someone to capitalize on the experience of six years of bilingual education in Chicago and develop a model that might be a new and more meaningful plan for bilingual education in the Chicago school system and across the nation.

This model is a contribution to the field of education in general, and to bilingual education in particular; no work has yet been presented in such great depth. This researcher believes his model is innovative and unique; it is the fruit of continued research, data gathering, observation,
and study. Its uniqueness is found in the fact that its implementation employs the continuous progress philosophy with regard to language, culture, integration patterns, and advancement in content areas. It functions as a total school program rather than only a minor part of the existing school program. It is a two-way approach, rather than a one-way approach, since it serves the Spanish, as well as, the English-speaking students and uses both languages with both groups as mediums of instruction. It is essentially integrated as opposed to some of the segregated programs now in practice. While total integration cannot be immediate, it can proceed gradually, and is definitely a long-range goal to be achieved through maintenance of the program. The maintenance-type theory advocated by the model, in contrast to the transitional theory, is uniquely advantageous because it maintains and perfects the culture and language of the Spanish dominant students while it simultaneously provides the means to make English dominant students bilingual, as they experience a second culture.

The model is a schematic way of presenting an idea. It is a descriptive narrative accompanied by charts of the organizational structure of a bilingual program which will gradually integrate and will maintain the students' culture and language. It will improve his native language arts skills, teach the content subjects in his native language, initially and then in the second language, develop an ap-
preciation of his own country and the country in which he is now living while teaching him a second language. The model is not a restrictive, precise definition, but a broad, general pattern for a bicultural-bilingual education program. It can be used as a pattern for any bilingual program no matter what languages or cultures are involved.

The researcher's guidelines used in presenting the model program are as follows:

A. Description of the Community
B. Assessment of Needs
C. General Long-Range Goals and Behavioral Objectives to Achieve Goals
D. Proposed Structural Model
E. Staff Selection and Organization
F. Proposed Evaluation

A Model Continuous Progress, Two-Way, Integrated, Maintenance Type, Total, Bicultural-Bilingual Education Program

Description of the Community

Since the purpose of this chapter is to present a model, a pattern to be emulated, the researcher decided to choose a locale that would have characteristics applicable to various parts of the city. This would enable the model to be open and adaptable to many situations. Every detail may not be the same in each community, however, there is enough commonality to make the description suitable to a
mixed neighborhood having a large Latino population. Upon implementing the program, one can address himself to specific socio-economic characteristics and needs of the target group.

The population of the school need not be restricted to local boundaries. To gather together Spanish-dominant and English-dominant students, as defined in Chapter I, it may be necessary to cross school boundaries and include a district, or many districts, or even an entire area, as determined by the terminology of the Chicago Public School System. This is applicable to the magnet school concept.

For this study a near northwest community of Chicago, irrespective of school boundaries, was chosen because it seemed to have many characteristics that are similar to other ethnically mixed neighborhoods throughout the city. Through study, it seemed that the chosen area had many qualities in common with the following school districts 3, 6, 7, 19, 24, and 25 in Chicago.

The model program will be fashioned in such a way as to meet the needs of the students in this particular area, yet will be flexible to allow for adaptation. The target community is made up of families of various ethnic origins, however, the greatest concentration is Latin American. The other members are Europeans, Appalachians, Blacks, and American Indians. In order to study the socio-economic level of the area, the researcher consulted various authorities from neighborhood social agencies, and studied the "Social Character-
istics" section of the 1970 Census Report,¹ and the compilation of the statistics particularly related to the Latinos.²

The socio-economic level of the neighborhood is as follows: about 80 per cent of the parents work in factories outside of the community; income levels range from $3,000 to $17,000; about 1 per cent of the parents have their own business establishments, either in or outside of the community; about 1 per cent are professionals; approximately 15 per cent of the families receive welfare benefits due to parent absenteeism and unemployment.

The housing in the area is very old, most of it dating back to the turn of the century. Many of the buildings are still quite substantial, others are in great need of repair. An expressway forms an outer boundary for the community. One part of the neighborhood is industrial, another is the business district. This location is easily accessible by public and private transportation. The strengths of the area are the following: local shopping areas are within walking distance or within easy access by public transportation; park and fieldhouse accommodations are available; a variety of denominational churches and schools are at convenient locations; the area is within easy reach by expressway, city


public transportation, and railroad transportation. A variety of cultures are visible and public library facilities are available.

This area has weaknesses as well: a need for major repair and rehabilitation, overcrowded and inadequate public schools, financial difficulties of the parochial schools, absentee landlords, inadequate housing, high transiency rate, street gangs, vandalism and burning of buildings. The above information the researcher gained from publications of the Department of Development and Planning of the City of Chicago.¹

Assessment of Needs

From the above it is evident that the community has many needs. However, the researcher is mainly concerned with the educational exigencies of the children in the area and in developing an academic program to satisfy their needs.

The largest ethnic group in the area is made up of Latin-Americans; over 55 per cent of the students in the schools are of Spanish origin. Of these almost 50 per cent experience difficulties with the English language. These difficulties are reflected in the low test scores in reading, language, and word knowledge as determined by these sections of the Metropolitan Achievement Tests and reported in The City-Wide Testing Program Report published by the Board of

Education. The degree of difficulty ranges from completely non-English speaking, to some understanding of English, either oral or written, with hesitency in speaking, to fluency in speaking English with problems in reading, writing, and idiomatic expressions. Achievement test results for the 1970 school year showed that the schools were below the national norm in reading achievement, with third and second grade students showing a mean score of 1.39 and .78 respectively. Results of the Iowa Test of Basic Skills show fifth graders achieving a mean score of 3.2 in reading comprehension, and eighth graders showing a score of 6.7. In each of these instances the students are almost two years below grade level. These scores were extrapolated from results compiled by the Bureau of Administrative Research of the Board of Education.

Although standardized tests are not the only means of evaluating students, up to this point this has been the method used in the Chicago Public School System. Some of the tests may not have been suitable for the students taking them, thus resulting in the low scores. However, they do indicate educational problems that have to be solved.

In addition, the students exhibit an inadequate self-concept, impatience with themselves, and poor academic achievement in the content subjects as assessed through Metropolitan Achievement results. They also exhibit a high incidence of

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2Ibid.
truancy and tardiness. Average absence for non-English-speaking pupils not served by any special program is 20 per cent, as gathered from the schools' attendance reports of this area.

Continuing to have the students follow the regular monolingual-monocultural school curriculum would only further deter their advancement. English as a Second Language (ESL) instruction has been operable officially in Chicago schools since 1965. However, problems still exist. The researcher believes new avenues have to be tried and that an experimental approach to this educational dilemma is viable.

A properly implemented bicultural-bilingual model program could be the answer for this community. Such a program is designed to provide experiences and opportunities for the students to study their own culture and intercultural relationships and to improve their self-esteem and raise their level of academic expectations and achievement. It will provide the students with content subjects taught either in Spanish or English depending upon the various levels and language dominance of the individual students.

General Long-Range Goals and Behavioral Objectives to Achieve Goals

Before actually stating the long range goals and objectives, the researcher would like to offer the following explanation. Ordinarily objectives when written in behavioral terms are very specific and the expected behavioral
change is noted exactly. They are written for each goal according to the age level and ability of the student in relation to the subject taught.

However, for the purpose of this model, the researcher has designed the general long range goals and objectives more loosely so that the model will be applicable from one community to another, from one bilingual program to another.

Below, however, are some examples of specific objectives written in strict behavioral terms:

--80 per cent of the five-year-old learners enrolled in the Early Childhood Bilingual Readiness Center of the bilingual-bilingual program, after one month of instruction in Spanish as a first language will learn to recognize words in printed form that are part of their speaking vocabulary. They will do this with 80 per cent accuracy, as measured by a teacher-made pre and posttest. Typical words learned will be:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>mamá</th>
<th>hermano</th>
<th>arbol</th>
<th>rojo</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>papá</td>
<td>hermana</td>
<td>casa</td>
<td>amarillo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>niño</td>
<td>perro</td>
<td>maranja</td>
<td>azul</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>niña</td>
<td>gato</td>
<td>manzana</td>
<td>verde</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

--80 per cent of the six-year-old learners enrolled in the Early Childhood Bilingual Readiness Center of the bilingual-bilingual program, after one month of instruction in mathematics will be able to master the addition facts from 1 through 5, with 80 per cent accuracy as determined by a teacher-made mathematics test.

The following objectives are general in order to allow for flexibility and adaptation to the specific target groups
when implemented. They are listed here as examples of ex-
pected outcomes for each goal. Some objectives pertain to
the cognitive domain others to the affective domain. The
eight long-range goals, developed by the researcher, are basic
and should characterize any bicultural-bilingual program.

Goal I. DEVELOP A POSITIVE SELF-IMAGE, SELF-CONFIDENCE, AND
CULTURAL PRIDE IN THE STUDENT'S NATIVE HERITAGE IN
ORDER TO CREATE A PROPER ATMOSPHERE FOR LEARNING.

Objective 1.--Through participation in the bicultural-bilingual
program the learners will accept biculturalism
and bilingualism as part of their background and
personality, as demonstrated at home, at school,
and at play, and measured by parental and teacher
evaluation checklists.

Objective 2.--Through participation in the bicultural-bilingual
program the learners will demonstrate growth in
self-confidence, by accepting, and willingly
accomplishing relevant home-school assignments
and showing excitement in coming to school,
as measured by a self-esteem rating scale and
attendance records.

Objective 3.--Through participation in the bicultural-bilingual
program the learners, being given opportunities
to experience success, will develop qualities
that lead to success, such as persistence,
attention, and curiosity, as determined by a
staff-developed checklist.
Goal II. RECOGNIZE THAT BILINGUAL EDUCATION IS ESSENTIALLY BICULTURAL EDUCATION BECAUSE OF THE INHERENT INSEPARABILITY OF LANGUAGE AND CULTURE.

Objective 1.--Through participation in the bicultural-bilingual program the students will gain a greater appreciation of their native culture and that of the country in which they are living, as determined by informal observation by the School-Community Committee of student attitudes, such as, choice of friends, T.V. programs, foods, etc.

Objective 2.--Through participation in the bicultural-bilingual program the learners will accept differences in the two cultures as part of a much broader spectrum of the world's culture and realize that different does not mean inferior, and sameness is not necessarily advantageous; this will be assessed through interaction with members of other ethnic groups, as noted by staff observation checklists.

Goal III. INITIATE LEARNING IN THE DOMINANT LANGUAGE OF THE STUDENT SO AS TO BUILD ON WHAT THE STUDENT ALREADY KNOWS.

Objective 1.--During the first years of participation in the bilcultural-bilingual program the students will learn to read in their dominant language as measured by a reading comprehension test in the dominant language, developed by the researcher in cooperation with the School-Community Com-
mittee under the leadership of the Program Evaluator.

Objective 2.--During the first years of participation in the bicultural-bilingual program, the students will learn mathematics, social studies, and science in their dominant language, as measured by content subject Criterion Referenced Tests developed by the School-Community Committee under the leadership of the Program Evaluator.

Goal IV. MAINTAIN AND FURTHER DEVELOP THE DOMINANT LANGUAGE OF THE STUDENT

Objective 1.--Through participation in the bicultural-bilingual program the learners will improve in their ability to recognize and interpret vocabulary in their dominant language, as measured by a Word Knowledge Criterion Referenced Test developed by the School-Community Committee under the leadership of the Program Evaluator.

Objective 2.--Through participation in the bicultural-bilingual program the learners will improve the complexity of their reading and comprehension skills in their dominant language, as measured by appropriate Criterion Referenced Tests in that language, developed by the researcher, and the School-Community Committee under the leadership of the Program Evaluator.
Objective 3.--Through participation in the bicultural-bilingual program the learners will develop an appreciation of the children's literature of their native country, as measured by their willingness to secure, read and analyze that literature.

Goal V. DEVELOP A SECOND LANGUAGE TO A HIGH LEVEL OF PROFICIENCY.

Objective 1.--During the first year of participation in the bicultural-bilingual program, the students will learn a second language by means of the audio-lingual, spiral approach, as measured by their frequency and ease in using this language in free conversation.

Objective 2.--During the subsequent years of participation in the bicultural bilingual program, the students will learn the second language by means of the cognitive approach, demonstrated by their ability to read and write the second language, and as measured by Criterion Referenced Tests developed by the School-Community Committee under the leadership of the Program Evaluator.

Objective 3.--After completing the Early Childhood Bilingual Readiness Program, the learners will have mastered the basic skills of the second language, as demonstrated by their ability to understand, speak, read, and write the language as measured by Criterion Referenced Tests developed by the
researcher and the School-Community Committee under the direction of the Program Evaluator.

Objective 4.--During the remainder of the participation in the bicultural-bilingual program, the learners will improve and refine their fluency and literacy in the second language as measured by Criterion Referenced Second Language Literacy Tests developed by the School-Community Committee under the leadership of the Program Evaluator.

Goal VI. USE THE TWO LANGUAGES TO EDUCATE AND INSTRUCT THE STUDENTS IN THE CONTENT SUBJECTS: MATHEMATICS, SCIENCE, SOCIAL STUDIES, ART, MUSIC, HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION.

Objective 1.--Through participation in the bicultural-bilingual program after the learners have mastered the second language, they will learn all the content subjects in both languages alternately. Achievement will be measured on each mastery level by Criterion Referenced Tests administered in either language, developed by the researcher and the appropriate School-Community Committee under the leadership of the Program Evaluator.

Goal VII. THE TWO-WAY MAINTENANCE TYPE BICULTURAL-BILINGUAL PROGRAM TENDS TOWARDS TOTAL INTEGRATION IN A PROGRESSIVE MANNER.

Objective 1.--At all levels the learners in the bicultural-bilingual program will participate in joint art
and music projects, field trips, cultural activities, and share physical education and recreational facilities. An annual festival will be held at which time projects and activities will be displayed and demonstrated. Video-tapes will be made of these events for public-relation purposes.

Objective 2.--Beginning with the Elementary Bilingual Program and continuing throughout High School, the Spanish dominant and English dominant learners will continue to participate in cultural activities together and will jointly participate in the instruction of the content subjects using both languages alternately as mediums of instruction in progressive time blocks. See Figure 18.

Objective 3.--The cultural backgrounds of the administrators, teachers, teacher aides, supportive staff, custodial and lunchroom staff will reflect the proportion of cultural backgrounds represented in the student body.

Objective 4.--All school personnel will receive a copy of the total plan for the bicultural-bilingual program. Before classes begin, the entire staff will meet to discuss the goals of the program and will participate in inservice workshops and planning sessions. Records of attendance and minutes of the meeting will be kept.
Objective 5.--The school staff will meet monthly by units and/or centers to discuss and share instructional objectives, techniques, and results. Records of these meetings will be kept on file in the teacher planning areas. Twice annually joint assemblies will be presented to parents and community members.

Goal VIII. ENCOURAGE COMMUNITY LEADERS AND PARENTS TO TAKE AN ACTIVE PART IN THE PLANNING, IMPLEMENTATION, AND EVALUATION OF THE BICULTURAL-BILINGUAL SCHOOL.

Objective 1.--Parents of students enrolled in the bicultural-bilingual school, and community members and leaders will meet once a month to discuss the current program, innovations, instructional techniques, and materials needed to implement the goals of the school. Attendance and minutes of the meetings will be kept and reported in the on-going self-assessment narrative compiled by the staff. Parents will sign in on a record sheet in the office everytime they offer their assistance at the school.

Objective 2.--Informal discussion sessions will be conducted monthly by members of the bilingual staff with parents and students to refine the goals of the program in relation to the individual needs of the student. The results will be noted in the on-going Self-Assessment Narrative compiled by the staff.
Objective 3.--Bilingual staff members and members of the community will cooperatively plan special cultural programs and dinners for various ethnic holidays. The programs for these events will be kept on file in the office of the principal. Videotapes will be made of these events for public relation purposes.

Objective 4.--An Adult Education Program will be organized in which parents can learn ESL, sewing, home economics, child care and rearing, consumer education, etc. These courses will be developed based on need and interest. The syllabus, lesson plans and attendance reports will be kept on file in the office of the principal.

Objective 5.--Teachers will be encouraged to visit the homes of their pupils. Parents will be encouraged to visit the school and offer their assistance as volunteers in order to establish a good rapport between the home and school. Upon visiting a home, the teacher will compile a brief anecdotal report as to what transpired during the visit. When parents visit and work in the school, names will be recorded in the guest book. If the purpose of the visit was a conference with the teacher, an anecdotal report will be filed.

The final long-range outcome of the eight goals is
stated as follows: Upon completion of the Early Childhood Bilingual Readiness Center, the Elementary Bilingual Center, the Bilingual Middle School, the Bilingual High School, and the mastery of all the designated skill levels, and with the participation of the parents and community members, the learners will be truly bilingual, educated, productive persons ready to go on to higher education in the areas of their choice, such as: academics, business or industry. They will be better ready to compete and succeed in the multi-cultural, pluralistic society in which they live.

Proposed Structural Model:
Continuous Progress Two-Way, Integrated, Maintenance Type, Total Bicultural-Bilingual Education Program

The general aims toward which this model is being presented are:

1. To develop a positive sense of self-esteem and self-confidence as an individual and as a member of an ethnic/racial group. This aim is the condition "sine qua non" to achieve aim two.

2. To establish a solid, sound foundation in the language arts skills that will enable the student to progress in all content subjects throughout his academic life.

Figure 15 presents the significance of the maintenance type bicultural-bilingual program explained in the previous chapter, and contrasts it with the transitional type bilingual program, Figure 16.
Figure 15.—Maintenance Type Continuous Progress Bicultural-Bilingual Program

Figure 16.—Bilingual Transfer Type (Transitional)
If the student has gone through the program consistently and this program has been implemented properly in the maintenance type model, at the completion of the program in the Early Childhood Bilingual Readiness Center he will be able to function quite well in both languages for his age level. From this point on, either language will be used alternately as a medium of instruction.

Another essential element is the attitudinal concept involved with integration. The researcher advocates two way integration: at all times the program will serve an equal proportion of Spanish and English-dominant children; they will participate in common projects as early as possible in their educational life. During the first years this interchange will be limited until they can function bilingually, then there will be total integration throughout the entire day. (See Figure 17.)

If the researcher's proposed model for the Continuous Progress Two-Way Integrated Maintenance Type Total Bicultural-Bilingual Program is to attain the goals and objectives set out for it, then everything depends upon how the administration, staff and community implement it. Personnel should be hired very selectively. More details on the selection process will be explained at the end of the chapter.

To more closely examine the proposed model Two-Way Integrated Maintenance-Type Total Bicultural-Bilingual Education Program, the following pages of this chapter describe the organization of the program through the various levels of
Figure 17. -- Integration Pattern
continuous progress. See graphic description Figure 18. The model program, the "En Marcha" Bicultural School, divides the levels in the following manner: Early Childhood Bilingual Readiness Center, ages 5-7, with an optional Home-School Component for 4-year-olds and mothers. Elementary Bilingual Center, ages 8-10; Bilingual Middle School, ages 11-13; Bilingual High School, ages 14-17. These will be multi-unit facilities with each center containing multi-age groupings in a unit. Within each unit the students will be grouped by ability with reference to language dominancy and to mastery of skills in content areas. The philosophy of continuous progress will be strictly implemented in every unit. The philosophy is based upon the concepts that: learning is a continuous process, each person progresses at his own rate, each person masters skills and concepts according to his individual abilities, each person has a certain readiness for steps of learning according to his level of maturity and experience at any given point in his life.¹ This necessarily requires that much individualization will take place, and that learning centers will be established throughout the open spaces of the specially designed building.

The organizational structure of each center will now be described with some general curriculum suggestions.

**MINUTES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>0</th>
<th>60</th>
<th>120</th>
<th>180</th>
<th>240</th>
<th>300</th>
<th>330</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DL/SL/I*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**EARLY CHILDHOOD BILINGUAL CENTER**

4 yr. old

- **Dominant Language**
- **135 Min.**

5 yr. old

- **Dominant Language**
- **247 Min.**
- **S.L. 50 Min.**
- **I. 33 Min.**
- 75/15/10

6 yr. old

- **Dominant Language**
- **214 Min.**
- **S.L. 66 Min.**
- **I. 50 Min.**
- 65/20/15

7 yr. old

- **Dominant Language**
- **182 Min.**
- **S.L. 83 Min.**
- **I. 66 Min.**
- 55/25/20

**ELEMENTARY BILINGUAL CENTER**

8, 9, 10 yr. old

- **Integration**
- Alternate language by one week periods with reinforcement.
- 50/50

**BILINGUAL MIDDLE SCHOOL**

11, 12, 13 yr. old

- **Integration**
- 1st semester
- Alternate language by 4 week periods. 2nd semester
- Alternate by 8 week periods.
- 50/50

**BILINGUAL HIGH SCHOOL**

14 - 17 yr. old

- **Integration**
- 50% Spanish 50% English as mediums of instruction -- departmental
- 50/50

*S.L. - Second Language  I. - Integration  D.L. - Dominant Language

**Figure 18.** -- The Continuous Progress of Language Usage in Minutes and Percentages
Home-School Unit

This component will be a separate unit but will function within the Early Childhood Bilingual Readiness Center. The program is to serve as a basis for the children's preparation for formal schooling. The Mothers are a very important part of this program. If the mother registers her child for the school, she must be willing to attend classes also. However, this unit is not a prerequisite to enter the Early Childhood Bilingual Readiness Center. It serves as a bridge or a preparation for formal school activities if the parents so desire.

For the child, the program will integrate home and community environment in learning activities. It will provide skills and concepts important to success in school. For the mothers, the program will teach them how to motivate, support and encourage their children's learning activities. It will also offer the opportunity for them to take courses that will help them with child rearing, budget management, language development, etc.

In this way the child will be assisted in making an adjustment to formal schooling. In this unit some activities from the home will take place in school, such as: rest periods and eating lunch with mother. Some school activities, such as number concept learning will be carried on at home with mother and teacher.

The plan for the Home-School Unit is as follows.
40--4-year-old children  20 Spanish Dominant  
                          20 English Dominant

40 Mothers  20 Spanish Dominant  
             20 English Dominant

Half-day program for children and mothers. The other half of the day the teachers and teacher aides will visit homes.

Students' Program

2 Teachers  1 Bilingual-Bicultural  1 Bilingual Team Teaching

2 Aides  1 Bilingual-Bicultural  1 Bilingual

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spanish Dominant Children</th>
<th>English Dominant Children</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>LANGUAGE</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develop vocabulary and speech patterns in Spanish</td>
<td>Develop vocabulary and speech patterns in English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develop visual and auditory skills in Spanish</td>
<td>Develop visual and auditory skills in English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develop prewriting skills in Spanish</td>
<td>Develop prewriting skills in English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>from which the child can build numerical concepts in Spanish</td>
<td>from which the child can build numerical concepts in English</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**NUMBER EXPERIENCES**

SCIENCE CONCEPTS

Provide areas of exploration for the child's natural curiosity and observation in Spanish

Provide areas of exploration for the child's natural curiosity and observation in English

SOCIAL STUDIES CONCEPTS

Provide children with opportunities to know themselves, people around them, and their environment in Spanish

Provide children with opportunities to know themselves, people around them, and their environment in English
*ART—Provide opportunity to experiment with different media

*MUSIC—Provide musical activities for enjoyment, experimentation and participation

Some songs and rhythmic activities in Spanish and/or English

*PHYSICAL EDUCATION—Indoor and outdoor activities to promote good health and develop sensory motor skills

*Denotes joint activities

Concentration in concept areas will be brief and varied due to the short attention span of these very young children. Presentation of concepts will be by means of learning games and group activities, and provide a basis for continuous progress.

Mothers' Program

2 Teachers  1 Bilingual-Bicultural  1 Bilingual Team Teaching
2 Aides  1 Bilingual-Bicultural  1 Bilingual

Spanish Dominant Mothers  English Dominant Mothers

HOME-SCHOOL LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Mothers will become acquainted with the concepts their children are learning and with techniques to broaden these concepts at home. One period a week the mother will practice these techniques with their own children in the school, under the direction of the teacher in Spanish.

Mothers will become acquainted with the concepts their children are learning and with techniques to broaden these concepts at home. One period a week the mother will practice these techniques with their own children in the school, under the direction of the teacher in English.

HOME ECONOMICS

Nutrition, cooking, baking, sewing, health, prenatal and postnatal care in Spanish

Nutrition, cooking, baking, sewing, health, prenatal and postnatal care in English

CONSUMER EDUCATION AND BUDGETING

Instruction in Spanish

Instruction in English

ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE  SPANISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

Joint ART AND CRAFT Activities
Children who participated in the Home-School Unit will continue in the Early Childhood Bilingual Readiness Center which will be a more formalized and controlled situation. Hopefully, their adjustment to school will be easier than those entering the program at age five with no previous school experience.

Mothers who have been trained in motivational and learning skills will be parent volunteers in the various units in the school.

Early Childhood Bilingual Readiness Center

1 Director 2 Counselors 1 Bilingual-Bicultural 1 Bilingual

160 Students 80 Spanish Dominant
80 English Dominant

Ages 5-7

8 Teachers 4 Bilingual-Bicultural 4 Bilingual Team Teaching
4 Aides 2 Bilingual-Bicultural 2 Bilingual
4 Parent Volunteers

Full Day Program One period a day teacher preparation period

Spanish Dominant Children English Dominant Children

LANGUAGE ARTS

Listening--Skills for attentive and critical listening (Use Spanish songs, stories, verses, etc.)

Speaking--Oral communication
Encourage Verbalization through Show and Tell, Sharing Time, Free Conversation in Spanish

Listening--Skills for attentive and critical listening (Use English songs, stories, verses, etc.)

Speaking--Oral communication
Encourage Verbalization through Show and Tell, Sharing Time, Free Conversation in English
Spanish Dominant Children

**LANGUAGE ARTS.--Continued**

**Reading**--Continuous Progress Levels A-F

**Readiness for reading in Spanish**

**Reading** in Spanish

**Readiness for reading in English**

**Writing**--Guided writing activities, free composition in Spanish. (At first use printed moveable letters, alphabet trays, and typewriters, then proceed to manuscript and eventually to cursive writing.)

**ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE**

**Audio-lingual English**

**Verb and sentence structure**

**Vocabulary building**

**Directed dialogues**

After a determined level of fluency, add:

**Reading**--of simple stories, plays, dialogues, etc. in English

**Writing**--of short sentences and paragraphs in English

Use concepts from content subjects to increase vocabulary

**MATHEMATICS**

**Continuous Progress Levels A-F in Spanish**

**SCIENCE**

**Continuous Progress Levels A-F in Spanish**

English Dominant Children

**Reading**--Continuous Progress Levels A-F

**Readiness for reading in English**

**Reading** in English

**Readiness for reading in Spanish**

**Writing**--Guided writing activities, free composition in English. (At first use printed moveable letters, alphabet trays, and typewriters, then proceed to manuscript and eventually to cursive writing.)

**SPANISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE**

**Audio-lingual Spanish**

**Verb and sentence structure**

**Vocabulary building**

**Directed dialogues**

After a determined level of fluency, add:

**Reading**--of simple stories, plays, dialogues, etc. in Spanish

**Writing**--of short sentences and paragraphs in Spanish

Use concepts from content subjects to increase vocabulary

**Continuous Progress Levels A-F in English**

**Continuous Progress Levels A-F in English**
Spanish Dominant Children  English Dominant Children

SOCIAL STUDIES

Continuous Progress Levels Continuous Progress Levels
A-F in Spanish A-F in English

CULTURAL ACTIVITIES*
LEARNING GAMES*
CREATIVE ACTIVITIES*
DRAMATIZATIONS*
FREE PLAY*
RHYTHMIC RESPONSE*
MUSIC*
ART*
PHYSICAL EDUCATION*
FIELD TRIPS*

*Denotes joint activities

NOTE: Entrance into the Elementary Bilingual Center will be determined by the mastery of Continuous Progress Reading Levels A-F,\(^1\) in Spanish and in English, and Mathematics Levels A-F,\(^2\) as demonstrated by an achievement of at least 80 per cent accuracy on the Criterion Referenced Tests in Reading and Mathematics, and all content subjects, devised or adapted by the researcher and the School-Community Committee, under the direction of the Program Evaluator. If the chronological age of a student is lower than that required for entrance to the Elementary Bilingual Center but his academic level is suitable, socialization and psychological readiness will also be taken into consideration. Students from other bilingual schools may enter the Elementary Bilingual Center only if they meet the above requirements.


Elementary Bilingual Center

1 Director 2 Counselors 1 Bilingual-Bicultural 1 Bilingual
160 Bilingual Students

Ages: 8-10

8 Teachers 4 Bilingual-Bicultural 4 Bilingual Team Teaching
4 Aides 2 Bilingual-Bicultural 2 Bilingual
4 Parent Volunteers

Full Day Program One period a day teacher preparation period

In this unit the two languages will be used as mediums of instruction in all content subjects. Integration will be more complete. Language is the key to integration. Now the program is truly bilingual.

Language Arts--Spanish and English.--Language arts skills will continue to be developed in the child's native language along with furthering his proficiency in the second language. This still includes audio-lingual work, however, with much more emphasis on reading and writing at each level.

Children's Literature.--Folk tales and stories related to the students' cultural background will be presented in Spanish and English.

Mathematics.--Use of the two languages instruction will be by alternating one week periods. During the first week initial instruction will be in Spanish with reinforcement in English. During the second week, initial instruction will be in English with reinforcement in Spanish. This pattern
will be repeated throughout the year.

Reinforcement, as it is used here, does not mean mere translation, it means innovative ways of presenting the same concept, such as, games, activity packets at learning centers, use of A-V material, etc.

Science.--Weekly alternating language of instruction procedure will be followed.

Social Studies.--Language usage procedure will be followed as above.

Music, Art, Physical Education, Cultural Activities, Field Trips.--Language usage procedure will be followed as above.

NOTE: For a student to enter the Bilingual Middle School, he must have successfully completed the Continuous Progress Spanish and English Reading Levels G-K and the Continuous Progress Mathematics Levels G-N, as demonstrated by achievement of at least 80 per cent accuracy on Criterion Referenced Tests in reading and mathematics and all content subjects devised or adapted by the researcher and the School-Community Committee, under the direction of the Program Evaluator. The language in which the tests will be administered will be determined by the researcher and the program evaluator, after consultation with teachers. At this level, students may enter the program from other bilingual schools only if they meet the above requirements.
Bilingual Middle School

1 Director  2 Counselors  1 Bilingual-Bicultural  1 Bilingual

160 Bilingual Students

Ages: 11-13

8 Teachers  4 Bilingual-Bicultural  4 Bilingual Team Teaching

4 Aides  2 Bilingual-Bicultural  2 Bilingual

4 Parent Volunteers

Full Day Program One period a day teacher preparation period

Language Arts—Spanish and English.---Students' proficiency in speaking, reading, and writing in his native language and in the second language will be advanced giving special emphasis to reading literature and doing creative writing in both languages.

Mathematics, Social Studies, Science Labs, Home Economics, Industrial Arts, Typing, Physical Education, Art, Music.---Use of the two languages for instruction will be by alternating four-week periods. During the first four weeks instruction will be in Spanish. During the second four weeks instruction will be in English. This pattern will be repeated throughout the first semester. During the second semester, for the oldest level of students, alternating language usage will be done by eight-week periods.

Assemblies.---Using both languages and utilizing the talents of the students.
Clubs.--Various clubs will be formed such as: art, drama, dance, photography, science, etc. Meetings will be conducted following the alternate language plan.

Community-Wide Cultural Festivals.--Twice a year a festival will be held in which the music, art, dance, drama, etc. of the two cultures will be presented. Parents, as well as students, will make the presentations.

NOTE: In order for the students to proceed to the Bilingual High School, they must have completed Continuous Progress Reading Levels L-N in Spanish and in English, and Mathematics Levels R-V, as demonstrated by achievement of at least 80 per cent accuracy on all Criterion Referenced Tests in reading and mathematics, and the content subjects devised or adapted by the researcher and the School-Community Committee under the direction of the Program Evaluator. Students may enter the Bilingual High School from other bilingual schools only if they have mastered the above skills. If they come from other Latin countries or from monolingual English schools, they can enter the Bilingual High School only if they have mastered the skills in all the content subjects. Language arts and the language of instruction for content subjects will be treated differently for this group than for those who participated in the program from the Early Childhood Bilingual Readiness Center through the Bilingual Middle School.
Bilingual High School
(Separate Building)

1 Co-Principal 1 Assistant Principal 1 Director
1 Counselor for each 100 Students

Departmentalization—Staffing teams of Bilingual-Bicultural and Bilingual Teachers who are specialists in each of the subject areas

**Language Usage Procedure for the Bilingual Students.**—

One period a day will be spent in refining and polishing the students' proficiency in Spanish and English. By the end of the last year in the Bilingual High School extensive reading of literature as well as creative writing will be required in both languages.

The staff will provide basic courses in Spanish and in English. For example, Algebra I in Room 101 will be taught in Spanish during the first period. During the second period Algebra I will be taught in English, and so forth for the other subjects. The bilingual student, with the direction of the counselor, decides which language he will use to study each content subject. It will be the counselors' task to see that the bilingual students who participated in the complete program from the Early Childhood Bilingual Readiness Center through the Bilingual Middle School is using Spanish as a tool for learning 50 per cent of the time and English the other 50 per cent of the time.

Each course the student takes, whether in Spanish or in English, will be accredited according to the norms of the
North Central Association. In this way he will have sufficient credits to graduate and the proper courses to enter college if he should so desire.

The continuous progress philosophy will be strictly followed in each department.

Language Usage Procedure for Monolingual Students.---

If a student comes to high school directly from a Spanish-speaking country and knows no English, he will take the content courses in Spanish, continue to perfect his knowledge and use of the Spanish language, and have intensive ESL instruction. If a monolingual English speaker enters the school, he will take the content courses in English, perfect his knowledge and use of the English language, and have intensive SSL instruction. For learning content subjects, usage of the native language will decrease and use of the second language will increase until this group will also be truly bilingual and will be able to use both languages as mediums of instruction, depending on the individual mastery skills of the language. Hopefully this will take place after three years, but it is possible whenever the student is ready.

Flexibility in programming and course offerings will allow the students to follow either a college prep course or a vocational program.

Typical mandatory courses for the college prep program will be: algebra, geometry, trigonometry, English, Spanish, sciences, civics, American history, Latin American history, world history, physical education.
A wide variety of electives will be offered so that the students from the college prep and vocational programs can choose these with the direction of their counselor and in light of their future careers. Some of these will continue for a semester or a full year; others will be mini-courses.

The choices would be: industrial arts, mechanics, electronics, mechanical drawing, commercial art, printing, pipe-fitting, welding, home economics, bookkeeping, typing, shorthand, speech, Puerto Rican studies, Chicano studies, Latin American studies, Black history, world history, TV and/or radio broadcasting, photography, art, music, drama, drivers' education, Puerto Rican dance, Mexican folk dance, crafts, sculpture, French, German, Italian.

Summer Program

The regular school program will extend through ten months. For seven weeks during the summer all the students will participate in half-day enrichment programs in order to continue developing their language and concept learning. This would avoid long periods away from school which could hinder the retention process and the continuous development process.

During the afternoons the school will be a site for teacher-training sessions for teachers from other bilingual programs throughout the city. A city-wide committee will organize the program and the "En Marcha" Bicultural School will offer the facilities and the personnel needed to implement this program in order to promulgate its philosophy and
develop mastery skill techniques for bilingual education.

Special workshops will be offered for school board members, administrators, coordinators, and all decision-making personnel related to bilingual education.

Preservice sessions will be given to train the new incoming staff of the "En Marcha" Bicultural School. Inservice sessions utilizing the expertise of the existing staff will be held in order to share knowledge, techniques, and research findings with other bilingual teachers. The teachers attending these sessions will be required to observe the learning activities held in the morning.

Arrangements will be made with a local university so that participants in the Preservice and Inservice sessions will be able to earn graduate credit for their work.

Staff Selection and Organization

The teachers in the "En Marcha" Bicultural School have to have special qualities. The first is a deep respect for the students as individual human beings. This will be reflected in their attention to the individual needs of each child within the framework of the Continuous Progress Philosophy. They must be professionals with a sense of vocation as teachers and with love for children. They should have a knowledge of, and experience in, the second culture with which they are dealing, and be able to function at ease within it.

The teachers will have to undergo a screening process as described below:
a) The position will be advertised and the teachers need to apply.

b) A test will be administered by the Bilingual-Bicultural Department of an affiliated university. This test will be compiled by the university and a committee from the school.

c) The applicant will have a personal interview with the principal, a teacher, and a counselor from the school, and two community members.

d) Observations will be made in the applicant's classroom. A checklist of performance will be used during the visit.

Knowledge of the system, the curriculum of the particular school, and the flexibility to implement it in a bicultural-bilingual education setting is a necessity. The teacher must be creative in the development of materials and tests. Knowing all the parents and participating in school and community organizations will be a requirement. Another requisite will be the continued professional advancement of the faculty by reading and by availing themselves of formal courses offered by the cooperating universities, inservice workshops given at the school on an ongoing basis, and conferences presented by outside agencies.

All teachers should be knowledgeable regarding the philosophy and techniques of Continuous Progress, and be certified in bilingual education on the specific level they will be teaching. The teachers in the Early Childhood Bi-
lingual Readiness Center should know how to play a musical instrument, such as, the piano, guitar, accordion, or harmonica, and know how to conduct learning games and motor skill activities. They should have all the courses and certification required for Early Childhood and Primary Education. For the teachers of the Elementary Bilingual Center, besides the usual education courses and certification, they should know methods of teaching mathematics, science, and social studies in a bilingual setting. The Bilingual Middle School teachers in addition to the required courses and certification for their level, will be required to have courses in adolescent psychology and to be specialists in specific fields. They should be willing to moderate clubs and extra-curricular activities. The same holds true for the teachers in the Bilingual High School, except that they need a high school certificate.

Beginning with the Early Childhood Bilingual Readiness Center and continuing throughout the Bilingual Middle School, the team teaching staff utilization pattern will be followed. This will necessitate much planning and coordination in order to implement the philosophy of Continuous Progress and individualization.

In high school departmentalization will be employed. Frequent meetings and team planning are essential at this level also. Continuous Progress will be implemented in each department in high school.
### Early Childhood Bilingual Readiness Center
- **Director:**
  - Spanish: 4 Teachers, 2 Aides, 2 Parent Volunteers, 2 English
  - English: 4 Teachers, 2 Aides, 2 Parent Volunteers

### Elementary Bilingual Center
- **Unit 1 Leader:**
  - Spanish: 1 Counselor, 1 Teacher, 2 Aides, 2 Parent Volunteers
  - English: 1 Counselor, 1 Teacher, 1 Aide, 1 Parent Volunteer

### Bilingual Middle School
- **Unit 1 Leader:**
  - Spanish: 1 Counselor, 4 Teachers, 2 Aides, 2 Parent Volunteers
  - English: 1 Counselor, 4 Teachers, 2 Aides, 2 Parent Volunteers

### Bilingual High School
- **Director:**
  - 2 Counselors, 2 Teachers, 2 Aides, 2 Parent Volunteers

### Supportive Staff for Each Building
- School Psychologist
- Social Worker
- School Community Representative
- Music Teacher
- Learning Disabilities Teacher
- Physical Education Teacher
- Speech Therapist
- Teacher Nurse
- Art Teacher
- Perceptual Development Teacher
- Motor Skills Teacher

**Figure 19.** Staff Organization "En Marcha" Bicultural School
Proposed Evaluation

This section describes the type of evaluation that, in the judgment of the researcher, seems most beneficial and meaningful for the learners and the program.

The evaluation process will be of two kinds, formative and summative (see Figure 20). Formative evaluation will be generated within the school and will use, as its primary instrument, criterion referenced tests. These will be devised if no suitable ones exist for certain areas; if they do exist, they will be adapted by the School-Community Committee under the direction of the program evaluator. The purpose of the criterion referenced test is to evaluate the student's performance with reference to a pre-set criterion and not with reference to group norms. Records of pretest and posttest results will be kept, compared, and used as determiners for the individual student's advancement in the Continuous Progress mastery skills. This will be the most significant part of the evaluation process. Formative evaluation was chosen as a type for this program because of its suitability to the philosophy of continuous progress followed throughout the school. It traces the student's growth continuously and is most useful in assisting the administration in making decisions regarding changes in the instructional process and in the curriculum.

As a part of the formative evaluation, teacher-made tests will be devised and administered. This will enable the teacher very frequently to evaluate the student's performance with reference to immediate objectives and curriculum. These
Formative

**PURPOSE**
Trace Student Growth Continuously
Make Decisions on Changes in Instructional Process and Curriculum

**APPLICABILITY**
Individual Instruction
Regular Instruction

**PROCEDURE**
- Placement
- Diagnostic Pre (If Child Has Difficulties)
- Instruction
- Diagnostic Post (If No Difficulty)

Summative

**PURPOSE**
Evaluate Student Growth Over a Long Period
Make Administrative Decisions and Reporting Student Progress to Concerned Individuals

**APPLICABILITY**
Regular (Usual) Instruction
Evaluation of Special Programs

**PROCEDURE**
- Achievement Pretest
- Instruction
- Achievement Posttest
- Reporting Student Status or Growth

Figure 20.—Formative and Summative Evaluations

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tests, however, will not be used as points of comparisons between the various groups in the school.

Although evaluation will be going on continually, the most significant testing will be done before the students make the transition from the Early Childhood Bilingual Readiness Center to the Elementary Bilingual Center. The hypothesis being that after three, or in some cases four, years of instruction of content subjects in the dominant language, and intensive ESL and SSL instruction even to reading and writing in the second language, the students will be able to function bilingually on their level and will achieve as well as, or better, in certain areas (such as: paragraph meaning, word meaning, arithmetic reasoning) than those in the regular school program.

Because the "En Marcha" Bicultural School will be a model program and many educators and community leaders will be interested in its results, the school will also engage in Summative Evaluation. This involves the use of control groups of students who match the characteristics of the target group and are tested identically but do not participate in the program. This method provides information for determining the impact of the program, as compared to a regular program.\(^1\) It evaluates student growth over a long period of time. It is useful for administrative decision-making and for reporting

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student progress to concerned individuals.

However, before the students are subjected to standardized testing, the tests to be used and the plan for the testing program will have to be submitted to the School-Community Committee for review and approval before it can be initiated.

No matter what type of testing takes place, formative or summative, it will be the policy of the school to report the results to the entire staff and to the community. In this way all will be informed and the data will be available when instructional or curriculum adjustments have to be made.

In order that the parents of the students in the program will be kept informed as to their children's progress, parent-teacher conferences will be held regularly. Not only academic, but social and physical aspects of the child will be discussed. Anecdotal records of these conferences will be kept on file in the child's folder in the school office.

Summary and Conclusions

In this chapter an innovative model for bicultural-bilingual education was presented. The implementation of this model calls for the continuous progress philosophy with regard to language, culture, integration patterns, and achievement in content areas. It functions as a total school program rather than a small center attached to the traditional school program. It is a two-way program since it serves Spanish dominant learners as well as English dominant learners in a
50/50 proportion. Both groups develop their own and a second language, and learn the content subjects in their own and other language. It calls for, and further clarifies, the maintenance type theory. Because of their close correlation, it outlines a very careful, gradual and developmental treatment of the usage of the two languages and the integration of Spanish and English dominant students.

The implementation of this model will indeed be costly because it calls for its own building design and demands specialized and adequate staff. However, the only way to have bilingual education succeed is to offer quality bilingual education, as the type described in the model and to reorder priorities as far as budget allocations are concerned.

Along these lines, a transitional multilingual-multicultural magnet school is being discussed by some educators in Chicago at the close of this research. The possible implementation of such an experiment may be functional in the researcher's readiness stage as explained in this chapter. Each language group and different English-dominant students for each group would have to be instructed separately. The students may become bilingual. However, it would be impossible for them to become multilingual and use many languages as tools for learning the content subjects as the maintenance theory proposes. Therefore, after the readiness stage the only feasible way to handle the curriculum would be to use the monolingual English approach for all ethnic groups involved. Regarding culture, the school could be considered
multicultural since students of many ethnic backgrounds would be physically present. It hardly seems possible, however, that any student could become multicultural when it is difficult to even become bicultural during the readiness stage alone.

As was stated earlier, the effective implementation of the researcher's model will not be accomplished unless specialized staff and appropriate materials are available. As practical implications of this model, the researcher will outline, in the next chapter, the existing situations regarding teacher training and the development of materials. He will also offer a content area guide for teacher training institutions at the bachelor's, master's, and doctorate levels in bicultural-bilingual education.
Figure 21. -- EN MARCHA BICULTURAL SCHOOL
CHAPTER VII

PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE PROPOSED MODEL

In Chapter VI the researcher presented the continuous progress, two-way, integrated, maintenance type, total, bicultural-bilingual education program. In order to effectively implement the model, trained personnel and materials must be available. The responses to the questionnaire reported in Chapter V were predominately negative with regard to these two issues. The teacher-training issue in Chicago and across the country will be examined and some suggestions will be provided.

Teacher Training

With the aid of national and state legislation, bicultural-bilingual education has been thrust into the foreground of political and educational spheres. Legislators and educators alike are inquiring into the rationale and directions of this new field. In response to these inquiries, contributions are coming forth from the fields of psychology, anthropology, sociology, linguistics, education and related fields. Each discipline continually emphasizes the great need for dissemination of this body of knowledge. Logically, the institutions devoted to teacher training and development
must take the initiative in promulgating these new dimensions of knowledge which bear heavily on the process of bicultural-bilingual education. However, very strikingly, there is little available across the nation in teacher training. This is undoubtedly a very critical problem. Ulibarri and other authorities in the field of bicultural-bilingual education recognize the growing need for teacher preparation. Ulibarri believes that the bilingual teacher should have qualifications not possessed by the average, middle-class teacher. This teacher should have a deep understanding of socio-cultural theory, child growth and development, and personality development theory.\(^1\) Directly related to the same idea, John and Horner have stated that,

> The most pressing problem in implementing a bilingual program today is the assembling of a teaching staff. . . . At present, teachers possessing . . . these qualifications are rare and the recruitment of personnel for bilingual programs is both time-consuming and difficult.\(^2\)

This is further evidenced by the responses in the researcher's questionnaire calling for improved staff development (see Chapter V). Consequently, teacher training and development must be envisioned as a necessary prerequisite to staffing the two-way bicultural-bilingual program. Initially, the school agency, in conjunction with universities and colleges in the area must design and implement programs for efficient

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teacher training and education. To date, such training seems to fall into two categories across the nation:

I. Teacher Training: Degree Programs
   A. B.A./B.S.
   B. M.A./M.S./M. Ed.
   C. Ph.D./Ed.D.

II. Teacher Training: Staff Development and Enrichment Programs
   A. Pre-Service
      1. Summer Workshops
      2. Orientation Day(s)—prior to commencement of academic year.
   B. In-Service
      1. Workshops given by the:
         a) State
         b) Local School Agency at the following levels:
            (1) City
            (2) Area (where there is administrative decentralization)
            (3) District (where there is administrative decentralization)
            (4) Local School
      2. Occasional university/college courses taken at the teacher's own initiative.
   C. Professional Conferences/Organizations:
      1. The Annual Multilingual/Multicultural International Conference
      2. The National TESOL Convention
      3. The Illinois Bilingual/Bicultural Education Conference.

Teacher training through degree programs as a long-term commitment to professional growth and development in the field of bicultural/bilingual education is recommended. As a matter of course, a well-designed, integrated and sequenced program of studies will provide a necessary balance in training. In addition, the teacher is urged to maintain and acquire further expertise in the field through participation in pre- and in-service workshops as well as active participation in professional conferences and organizations. As
recommended by the researcher, the degree program is favored as a substantive approach for teacher training of the future. In order to assess the need to create degree programs in bicultural/bilingual education, an examination of the quantity and designs of the programs offered in Chicago and throughout the remainder of the nation follows.

To date, the following information concerning courses throughout the nation is that which the researcher was able to gather. Possibly more are coming into existence or are just in the planning stages; others may be local efforts not widely advertised.¹ Each program will be presented in the following format: (1) type of degree and title, and (2) a complete listing of courses which will be marked with an asterisk (*) or a representative listing of courses whenever a complete listing might be cumbersome. In the latter case, the researcher has taken care in selecting courses that reflect the rationale of the specific program. The following institutions have bicultural/bilingual teacher training programs.

In Chicago

Loyola University (*)

1. Degree: M.Ed. in Bilingual-Bicultural Education
2. Courses:

¹Information concerning university programs was acquired through written correspondence, university catalogs or official university announcements and is current at this writing.
Curriculum Courses:

Introduction to Bilingual-Bicultural Education
Teaching English as a Second Language
Workshop in Reading (including Children's Literature)
Curriculum and Instruction (Mathematics, Science, Social Studies)
Teaching of Culture in the Bilingual Classroom
Practicum in Teaching to a Bilingual Clientele

Foundation Courses:

Philosophy of Education
Educational Psychology
Statistical Methods

Spanish Courses: (two electives)

Comparative Structures, Spanish and English
Methods of Teaching Spanish

Prior to the official commencement of the degree program in bicultural/bilingual education at Loyola, the university had been offering courses related to the field for a number of years. The following have been taught:

Methods of Teaching Spanish
Comparative Structures, Spanish and English
Teaching English as a Second Language
Applied Linguistics

Chicago State University (*)

1. Degree: M.S.Ed. in Urban Education with a Concentration in Bilingual Education
2. Courses:

Required:

The Urban Child
Research Methods in Education
Diagnosis and Remediation of Reading Disability
Seminar in Urban Education
Cultural Foundations of Urban Studies
Master's Project/Thesis

1 University announcement brochure, May, 1974 and Loyola University Bulletin, Summer, 1974.
Electives: (Choice of five)

History and Philosophy of Bilingual/Bicultural Education
Perspective on Spanish-American Cultures for Teachers
Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
Bilingual, Bicultural Techniques for KGP Teaching
Applied Linguistics
Studies in Spanish Style
Topics in Latin American Literature
Mathematics and Science in Bilingual/Bicultural Education
Social Studies in Bilingual/Bicultural Education
Language Arts in Bilingual-Bicultural Education

The master's program began at Chicago State University in the winter of 1972.

National College of Education

1. Degrees: M.S. in Education with Emphasis on Bilingual Education
2. Courses:

Methods and Materials for Teaching Spanish Speakers
Self Concept and Society
Teaching English as a Second Language
Guiding Curriculum Improvement Programs/Multicultural

Many members of the Spanish-speaking community in Chicago have been discussing the shortage of Latino teachers. They know that there are many certified teachers in Latin American countries. However, when they come to Chicago their credentials are not accepted. Therefore, many former teachers are employed in unrelated areas.

At the time of this writing the National College of Education is planning a program to alleviate this situation. It consists of two phases:

1 University announcement brochure, Winter, 1972.
1. Evaluation of foreign credentials

2. Offering undergraduate courses in bicultural-bilingual education for the teachers who may need further training.

In addition to the institutions in Chicago listed above, Northeastern Illinois University, University of Illinois Circle Campus, and De Paul University are actively engaged in organizing degree programs and are presently offering one or more courses in the field.

Across the Country

At this writing, the following institutions throughout the remainder of the United States are offering degree programs in the field:

California

California State University (Fresno) (*)

1. Degrees: B.A. in Linguistics with emphasis on Bilingualism
   M.A. in Linguistics with emphasis on Bilingual Education

2. Courses:

   (in) Linguistics

   B.A.
   Contrastive Structures of English and Spanish
   General Linguistics
   Introduction to Language
   English as a Foreign Language

   M.A.
   Contrastive Structures of English and Spanish
   History of the English Language
   English as a Foreign Language

   (from) Other Departments/Fields

   Chicanos and the Educational System
   Topics of Mexican-American Society

   La Familia
   Chicano Literature
   Sociology of Minority Relations
Spanish for the Bilingual Child
Modern Trends in Education: Teaching Bilingual/Bicultural Children

(Proposed) Seminar in Bilingual/Bicultural Education
The Chicano and the Educational System

Connecticut University of Hartford (*)

1. Degree: M.Ed. in Bilingual/Bicultural Education

2. Courses:

Core Courses:

Human Development
Philosophical and Cultural Foundations of Contemporary Education
Comparative Educational Systems

Bilingual Education:

Methods and Materials of Bilingual Education
History of Minority Groups: Puerto Ricans
Teaching Reading to Spanish-Speaking Children
Teaching English as a Second Language
Evaluation and Research Concerning Spanish-Speaking Students
Workshop in Bilingual Curriculum Development

Electives:

Puerto Rican Pupils in Mainland Schools
The Structure of Spanish

In addition, the University of Hartford offers two other programs beyond the Master's degree. They are:

A Certificate of Advanced Study
A Sixth Year Planned Program

1California State University, Fresno, General Catalog, 1973-74, pp. 223-24.

2University announcement brochure, 1971.
Massachusetts

University of Massachusetts (Amherst)
Bilingual Bicultural Education Professions Program

1. Degrees: M.Ed. in Bilingual/Bicultural Education
   Ph.D. in Bilingual/Bicultural Education
   Certificate of Graduate Studies or M.Ed. in
   Bilingual/Bicultural Administration

2. Courses:

   There are few, if any, required courses and the student
   is free to choose from a large number of courses
   offered by most programs in the School of Education.
   All courses are offered on a pass-fail rating. Concen­
   tration of the graduate program is in areas of
   bilingual counseling, testing and curriculum, super­
   vision and administration. The three requirements
   for first semester graduate students are:

   A Structured-Content Seminar
   A Graduate Support Group
   A Structured-Practicum Field Experience

The School of Education of the University of Massachusetts
offers six E.P.D.A. fellowships to train bilingual adminis­
trators for placement in institutions of higher education in
communities serving Spanish minorities. The goals of the
administrators training program are twofold:

   ... 1) to train bilingual specialists through a program
   of graduate studies; 2) to relate the knowledge acquired
   in the University to those community institutions dedicated
   to helping minority youth who have finished high school
   and who wish to pursue further studies.

New York

Hunter College (New York City)

1. Degrees: M.S. in Education with emphasis on Bilingual
   education.

1University of Massachusetts announcement brochure,
1974.

2University of Massachusetts news release, 1974.
Graduate Diploma for Teachers of Children of Puerto Rican Origin

2. Courses:

Educational Workshop for Teachers of Children of Puerto Rican origin
Education Evaluation
An Educational Program for Children of Puerto Rican Origin
Comparative Analysis of English and Spanish Culture Change in Puerto Rico
Migration Groups in Metropolitan Areas
 Practicum in Audio-Lingual Methods for Teachers of Spanish
Teaching English as a Second Language. 1

City College of the City University of New York
(New York City) -- (*)

1. Degrees:  B.S. in Bilingual Education
   M.S. in Bilingual Education

2. Courses:

Common Professional Requirements

Theories and Practices of Bilingual Education
Workshop in Bilingual Education
Content Research Seminar in Bilingual Education
Individual Study in Educational Research
Teaching Practicum

Academic and Professional Requirements

Spanish--for English dominant
Speech--for Spanish dominant

Concentration Requirements

Teaching of Reading in Spanish and English
Teaching of English as a Second Language
Applying Linguistic Principles in the Elementary School
Children of Caribbean Cultures and the Curriculum

Electives Include:

The Puerto Rican Community: Field Research Work
Vernacular Language of Puerto Rico

Structure of Spoken American English
Voice and Diction

New York University (New York City) (*)

1. Degrees: A.M. in Bilingual Education
   Ph.D. in Bilingual Education
   D.Ed. in Bilingual Education

2. Courses:

   Language and Linguistics
   Phonological Comparison of English and Spanish
   Applied Linguistics for Teachers of Spanish
   Spanish Grammar for Teachers
   Advanced Course in Spanish Syntax and Semantics
   Structure of American English for Teachers of English

   Curriculum and Methods
   Teaching School Subjects with a Bilingual Approach:
      Language Arts
   Teaching School Subjects with a Bilingual Approach:
      Social Studies
   Teaching School Subjects with a Bilingual Approach:
      Science
   Teaching School Subjects with a Bilingual Approach:
      Mathematics
   Bilingual Education: Theory and Practice
   The Teaching of Foreign Languages
   Preparation and Use of Curriculum Materials in Foreign
   Language Instruction
   Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages:
      Theory and Practice
   Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages:
      Materials and Techniques

   Inter-Cultural Understanding
   The Literature and Social Conflict in Latin America
   Afro-Spanish Literature in the Caribbean Area
   Understanding Peoples and Cultures of the World
   Cultural and Educational Aspects of Puerto Rico through Its Literature
   The People and Culture of Puerto Rico
   Hispanic Civilization for Teachers II: Latin America
   Mexico and Its Culture
   School and Society Here and Abroad

1 The City College, The City University of New York, Graduate Division, Bulletin 1973-74, pp. 32-33.
Evaluation and Research

The Construction, Use and Interpretation of Tests in Foreign Language Instruction
Independent Study
Foundations of Research

Additional Electives

Spanish for Social Workers, Medical Personnel, and Teachers
Oral Spanish for Teachers
Advanced Spanish Conversation and Composition for Teachers
Modern Latin American Thinkers
Administration and Supervision of Foreign Language Instruction

Texas

Pan American University (Edinburg)

1. Degree: Bachelor of Science in Education with emphasis on Bilingual/Bicultural Education

2. Courses:

Orientation to Bilingual Bicultural Education
Foundations of Cross-Cultural Education
Principles of Educational Psychology Applied to the Bilingual Learner
Demography of the Southwest
Mexican-American Heritage
Contrastive Phonology
Contrastive Grammar

Electives

History of Mexican Culture
The Mexican-American People
The Spanish Southwest Through 1821
The Mexican-American in American Fiction
Contrastive Phonology
Contrastive Grammar
English Phonological System

Currently, Pan American University is planning a Master of

Education with a Professional Certificate in Bilingual/Bicultural Studies program which is projected for September, 1974.¹

University of Texas at Austin (*)

1. Degrees: B.S. in Education with a Concentration in Bilingual Education
   M.A. in Foreign Languages with a Concentration in Bilingual Education

2. Courses:

   **Bilingual Component**
   - Seminar (Program Development and Research): Bilingual Education
   - Teaching Elementary School Subjects: Bilingual Education
   - Curriculum Design in Bilingual Education
   - All-Level Mexican American Studies
   - Early Childhood Language Acquisition

   **Linguistic Component**
   - Psycholinguistics
   - Applied Linguistics
   - Topics in Sociolinguistics: Bilingualism
   - First and Second Language Acquisition
   - Topics in Linguistic Anthropology
   - Linguistics and Language Teaching
   - Sociolinguistics

   **English Component**
   - Grammar of Written English
   - Teaching English as a Second Language
   - English for the Disadvantaged
   - Teaching Elementary and Secondary School Subjects
   - Life and Literature of the Southwest

   **Spanish Component**
   - Practical Phonetics
   - Applied Linguistics: Spanish
   - Studies in Spanish Linguistics
   - Practical Phonetics: Mexican-American Dialectology
   - Spanish Language and Literature of the Southwest

Cultural Component

Ethnic America
Folklore of Texas
Mexican American Studies
Mexico and Spanish North America since 1810
Books and Children of Mexico
Mexican-Americans in the Southwest
Escritos, Libros y Niños de Mexico
Chicano in American Culture: 1910 to Present

University of Texas at San Antonio (*)

1. Degrees: M.A. in Bicultural-Bilingual Studies
   M.A. in Bicultural-Bilingual Teacher Education

2. Courses:

Bicultural Studies

Cultural Dimensions of the Spanish and English Languages
Foundations of Hispanic Cultures
Biculturalism: U.S.-Mexico
Seminar in Mexican-American Culture
The Greater Southwest
Seminar in Urban Social Stratification
Mexican-American Literature
Art and Architecture of Mexico and Mexican America

Bicultural-Bilingual Teacher Education

Cultural Dimension of the Spanish and English Languages
Foundations of Hispanic Cultures
Biculturalism: U.S.-Mexico
Cultural Adaptation Supportive of Bilingualism
Foundations of Bicultural-Bilingual Education
Techniques of Teaching to Develop Bilingualism
Teaching Content in a Bicultural-Bilingual Education Program
Special Problems in Bilingual Education

In addition to the universities listed above, various other institutions have demonstrated interest in organizing degree programs. For example, the University of California at

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1University of Texas at Austin College of Education Catalog 1972-74, p. 30, and University announcement brochure.

2University of Texas at San Antonio Graduate Catalog, 1974-75, pp. 85-86.
Berkeley, Florida State University in Tallahassee, Columbia Teachers College in New York City and the State University of New York at Buffalo are offering one or more courses in the field. The researcher has not listed the offerings of institutions whose courses do not reflect his expectations of a thorough and on-going degree program. Therefore, programs which reflect a greater emphasis on TESL or Foreign Languages, rather than on teacher training for the bilingual setting, are not included. The programs outlined above seem to follow one of three trends. Focusing in on the programs' designs, they are the following types:

Degree Programs

Type A: A program within a department (such as Urban Education, Linguistics, etc.) with primary emphasis on that field (i.e., Linguistics) and secondary emphasis on bilingualism or bilingual education. For example: Chicago State University

Type B: A program within the Department of Education, with primary emphasis on Bilingual Education. For example: Loyola University

Type C: A program in the department of Bicultural/Bilingual Studies, with departmental autonomy within the university, placing primary emphasis on biculturalism/bilingualism and secondary emphasis on teacher training. For example: University of Texas at San Antonio

The researcher recognizes that while each of these types represents a greater or a lesser degree of commitment to the field of biculturalism/bilingualism, the variety of the designs characterizes the new dimensions in the field. Nevertheless, the pressing need to train teachers for the bilingual classroom
needs to be emphasized. Type A does not provide the necessary primary emphasis on teacher training. Type B does provide this emphasis, however, the program may not have the necessary autonomy to determine innovative policies and procedures while existing within a department of education. Type C has the necessary autonomy that accures to a department within the university, but primary emphasis is placed on bicultural studies rather than on teacher training. Consequently, the researcher wishes to recommend a fourth type, Type D.

A Suggested Teacher Training Program

Type D: A Department of Bicultural/Bilingual Education with primary emphasis on teacher training

The department would enjoy the autonomy of existing as a division within the university with its own chairman who would be able to call upon the disciplines of psychology, anthropology, sociology and linguistics whenever appropriate. The interdisciplinary approach would encompass all the fields as they converge upon the total process of bicultural/bilingual education. The researcher believes Type D will train personnel commensurate with the continuous progress, two-way, integrated model. Keeping this in mind, the researcher provides the following schema for organization and selection of courses. The listings below could provide the foundations for degree programs at the bachelor, master and doctoral levels.
Education

Introduction to Bicultural/Bilingual Education
Teaching of Reading in Spanish
Teaching of Reading in English
Methods of Teaching Language Arts in the First Language
Methods of Teaching Language Arts in the Second Language
Teaching Social Studies: Contrastive Analysis of the Target Cultures
Methods of Teaching Mathematics in the Bilingual Classroom
The Processes of Science in the Bilingual Classroom
Team Teaching in the Bilingual Classroom
Continuous Progress: Application to the Bilingual Classroom
Children's Literature in Spanish and English
Elementary Curriculum Development for the Bilingual Classroom
Secondary Curriculum Development for the Bilingual Classroom
Textual and Non-Textual Materials in Spanish and English

Psychology

Early Childhood Psychology in a Bilingual Setting
Educational Psychology Applied to the Bilingual Classroom
Psychology of Language and Cognitive Development
Human Motivation
Psychology of the Gifted Bilingual Child
Statistics and Measurement of the Bilingual Student
Sensitivity Training in Human Relations
Community Relations and Contact

Anthropology (Culture)

Introduction to Cultural and Linguistic Pluralism: Biculturalism/Bilingualism
Survey of the Culture of Latin American Groups
Cultural Implications of Language: Spanish and English
Chicano Studies
Puerto Rican Studies
Latin American Studies
Racial and Cultural Minorities
Art and Folklore of Mexico (or Puerto Rico or South America)

Linguistics

Teaching English as a Second Language: Methods and Materials
Teaching Spanish as a Second Language: Methods and Materials
Comparative Structural Linguistics for the Language Teacher
Child's Acquisition of Language
Developing Bilingualism: Methods and Techniques
Seminar: Research in Bilingualism
Psycholinguistics: Implications on Bilingualism
Seminar in Latin American Literature
Composition and Creative Writing Skills for the Bilingual Student
At the beginning of this chapter two issues were posed. The first related to the necessity of teacher training. This need was examined and some direction in designing degree programs of the future was given. However, if the issue of bicultural/bilingual education is to be faced dynamically all elements involved in its implementation must be included. The program designs in Chapter V described contemporary bilingual programs as mini-operations within the regular school setting. Their success is contingent on trained staff, sensitive and knowledgeable administrators, and an informed community. The interrelationship of the three will likely stimulate and promote a positive learning environment. As we have seen, teacher training is imperative, but it is not sufficient. We cannot expect the trained bilingual teacher to bear the sole burden of educating and sensitizing the remainder of the school staff, administrative personnel and community. The researcher's model of a total school program would not have this particular problem limited to the school level, since the basic premise of cultural and linguistic plurality would prevail throughout the school staff and
administration including the administrative personnel overseeing the school. In view of both alternatives, it is recommended that the local school agency and local universities design workshops, training sessions and courses to prepare both personnel and community in the field of bicultural/bilingual education.

The second issue in the introduction is concerned with the kinds of materials available for bilingual education. It was noted in Chapter V, that 98 per cent of the respondents identified the need for adequate instructional materials. The availability and adequacy of such materials for instruction in Spanish will now be discussed.

Materials

With the opening of the first bilingual program in the United States in 1963, and in Chicago in 1968, the following questions were often raised. To what extent are materials available and adequate in Spanish, through the full range of subjects and levels, for children who speak this language better than English? What is there in English for children who speak another language, and how good is it? Are there suitable materials for native English speakers seeking a bicultural education? What use can be made of current "foreign language" materials? What about materials from abroad? To what degree must availability of materials shape the program? What are the chances that "teacher-made"
materials will justify the time and effort that go into them?¹

These questions suggest three main sources of materials for bilingual education programs: materials imported from Latin American countries and Spain; materials published in the United States; and materials developed by teachers and administrators of bilingual programs.

Materials from Abroad

During the early years of bilingual programs these were the only materials that were available. However, they had several limitations. They were generally not relevant to the curricula and current educational methodology of bilingual education. For example, cursive writing is introduced in the very first years of instruction in Spain and Latin America. This is not the case in the Chicago Public School bilingual programs where manuscript skills are taught before cursive writing is introduced. This method is followed so the child can see the relationship between the letters he is forming and the print he is reading in books. Also, the texts and illustrations often required a background knowledge of the history, geography, climate, social traditions and mores of Spain and Latin America. Using these books with Mexican and Puerto Rican students in the United States raised problems since identification is basic to the bilingual program. In spite of these limitations, many of these materials are still

being used today because they are available for all content subject areas, and they do have sequentially developed reading programs. However, often the reading level suggested for use with these books does not correspond to the levels in which they could be used in the United States, and they have to be adapted.

Materials Published in the United States

When bilingual education programs were beginning to be established in this country, the domestic publishers were very cautious about investing time, money, and research needed for the development of new and relevant materials for these programs. The problems of creating new materials are manifold, therefore, the companies at first made translations of existing texts. This also had its limitations, for in most cases it consisted of a literal translation of the text, keeping illustrations the same, which again caused problems of identification. These publications also lacked Spanish literary style.¹ Today, however, publishers and distributors have seen bilingual education as a fertile market and lately have been producing a better quality of textual and non-textual material. However, the United States publishers still have a long way to go in their production of materials, especially for Spanish

language arts, social studies and the content subjects for high school.

Rather than naming specific sets of materials or individual books in one language or the other, the researcher has indicated below a few of the leading firms which supply bilingual education materials.

Arhe, Inc.
505 Fifth Ave. Room 1402
New York, New York 10017

Children's Music Center, Inc.
5373 West Pico Blvd.
Los Angeles, California 90010
(213) 937-1825

Collección Estudios Puertorriqueños
P.O. Box 3187
San Juan, Puerto Rico 00905

Continental Book Co., Inc.
11-03 46th Ave.
Long Island City, New York 11101

Cultural Puertorriqueños, Inc.
Ave. Fernandez Juncos 1406
Parada 20
Box 8863 Fernandez Juncos Station
Santurce, Puerto Rico 00910
724-5683

Dissemination Center for Bilingual Bicultural Education
6504 Tracor Lane
Austin, Texas 78721
(512) 732-1136

Editorial Almanden
1031 Franquette Ave.
San Jose, California 95125

European Book Co.
925 Larkin Street
San Francisco, California 94109
(415) 474-0626

Gessler Publishing Co., Inc.
131 East 23rd Street
New York, New York 10010

Heffernan Supply Co.
P.O. Box 5309
San Antonio, Texas 78201

Heffernan Display Room
21111 West Avenue
San Antonio, Texas 78201
(512) 732-1136

Neil A. Kjos Music Co.
525 Busse Highway
Park Ridge, Illinois 60668
(312) 825-2168

Las Américas Publishing Co.
Spanish Book Center
40-22 23rd Street
Long Island City, New York 11101
(212) 784-1174

Melton Book Co.
111 Leslie Street
Dallas, Texas 75207

Jesús González Pita
1540 S.W. 14th Terrace
Miami, Florida 33145

Region One Education Service Center
Mr. A. R. Ramírez
Edinburg, Texas 78539
The above listed companies are most generous in supplying catalogs to interest parties. Their representatives will come to schools, resource centers, and conferences to explain and display their materials.

Materials Developed by Teachers and Administrators in the United States

One example of such material was developed by the Spanish Curricula Development Center, Dade County Public
Schools, 1420 Washington Ave., Miami Beach, Florida, 33139.
The project for developing these materials was funded by the U.S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. The S.C.D.C. materials are core curriculum materials, in Spanish, for the first three years of primary instruction. The materials are produced in a series of kits each containing a strand or a set of activities or lessons in a given curricular area. The five strands are: Spanish Language Arts, Spanish as a Second Language, Social Science, Science/Math, and Fine Arts. They were originally written for use in the Dade County Schools and were found to be very successful. Mimeographed copies were distributed to various locations throughout the country for pilot testing to determine their usability on a wider scale. It was found that regional distinctions would achieve greater relevancy.

To coordinate this effort the Curriculum Adaptation Network for Bilingual/Bicultural Education (C.A.N.B.B.E.) was founded. The Network consists of a coordination activity (supported by funds from the W. R. Hearst Foundation) and four regional curriculum adaptation centers attached to operational Spanish language Title VII ESEA projects. The regional centers adapt materials and methods developed at the Spanish Curricula Development Center to the particular cultural needs of bilingual programs serving Mexican Americans in the Southwest (two centers), Puerto Ricans in the Northeast, and the multicultural Spanish population in the Midwest. The addresses are the following:
Other materials developed to meet a particular need are the ROCK and ROLL materials. The name is a acronym for Region One Curriculum Kit and Region One Literacy Lessons. Region One refers to a school district in Edinburg, Texas. The ROLL section has two parts Spanish Roll and English Roll.

Spanish Roll is a reading program to be taught for at least forty minutes daily in the Kindergarten classes with an additional fifteen to twenty minutes of "sharing time." The Spanish reading is taught to develop literacy skills in native speakers of Spanish and/or to prepare the Spanish-speaking pupil for English reading more rapidly. These materials are to be used to teach practically all of the sound-letter correspondences of Spanish. In addition, every illustration is labeled so that the teachers can encourage the reading of whole words from the beginning. Spanish reading also includes the language experience approach which provides
the children with daily opportunities to utter, see written, and read sentences of interest to them.

English Roll follows the same methodology as Spanish Roll to aid in the transfer of reading skills from Spanish to English. ROCK is a program for continuing language arts instruction in English. It also includes some of the techniques from Spanish ROLL and brings in other content subject concepts. There are two kits of materials in the ROCK program. The ROCK and ROLL materials may be purchased from the Melton Book Company (see listing).

A monthly magazine on materials for bilingual education is "Materiales en Marcha." It includes reviews, sample lessons, articles on ideas and issues in bilingual education and outstanding bilingual programs and lists of comparable materials in the project collections to accompany reviews, suggested United States distributors of materials in Spanish and Portuguese, and parallel texts.

For information on subscription policies write to:

Materiales en Marcha
E.S.E.A. Title VII
San Diego City Schools
2950 National Avenue
San Diego, California 92113
(714) 232-6864

One more important point has to be made concerning the development of materials. With the increasing trend toward individualized instruction, modular scheduling, and continuous progress as described in the model in Chapter VI, publishers and curriculum writers will have to explore these areas and
develop materials that will be suitable for these types of educational programs. Curriculum guides for the content areas to be covered in each phase of a bilingual program have to be developed also. These materials will have to be innovative and above all motivational. A child who is interested is more likely to learn than one who is not. Interest depends on the teacher and his success in making his teaching relevant, on the materials he uses, and on the value the child places on education. All three are related and are almost inseparable. In the planning and production of materials, special action is needed. One of the most important criteria for selecting, adapting, or creating materials is their potential for catching and holding the interest of children at all levels of instruction. This is more fundamental than such factors as vocabulary range and grammatical difficulty, although these, too, should receive attention. A child tends to learn what is interesting to him regardless of the level of difficulty. Children may learn from fascinating but inefficiently constructed materials; they will probably not learn much, in spite of superb engineering, if their interest is not held captive.¹

Besides being motivatinngly stimulating, another fact that should be considered, for Chicago in particular, is that teams of curriculum writers should try to make the materials relevant to the student population of the city. There are

¹Andersson, op. cit., p. 66.
two especially large groups that are to be served, the Mexican-American group on the south side of the city, and the Puerto Rican population on the North side. The teams of writers ought to visit these parts of the city when they are developing their materials. In this way they could learn about children's lives. The setting for the texts that are written could be the different parts of the city itself. Situations that are familiar to the students could be used. This would also aid in the individualizing approach because specific materials geared to the children's life styles could be chosen.

The great task before curriculum writers, then, is to create well constructed materials that are educationally sound, motivationally stimulating, and situationally relevant. It is the duty of publishers and distributors to make these materials readily available at a cost that is not prohibitive.

Finally, in order to assist the teachers to become acquainted with and to view materials that are available for bicultural-bilingual education, Illinois has done the following. Four Bilingual Education Materials Resource Centers have been established with State funds. Their purpose is to gather together, in easily accessible locations, a variety of samples of bilingual education textual and non-textual material for each grade level and content subject to be previewed and borrowed. One services the downstate programs, the other three are in each of the three administrative areas of the Chicago
Public School System which serve the teachers in Areas A, B, and C. Inservice meetings are held at these resource centers. During these meetings demonstrations are given in which the teachers are trained to effectively use certain materials with their students. Audio-visual equipment is available at the centers to offer the teachers the opportunity to preview audio-visual materials before ordering or borrowing them. These centers have proved to be very beneficial to the teachers as evidenced by the number of teachers who use them daily.

Summary and Conclusions

In this chapter existing teacher-training programs have been outlined. Also, the researcher presented a teacher-training program which would be effective in training teachers to implement the type of academic program described in Chapter VI.

The availability of materials was discussed, and recommendations for further development of curriculum, textual and non-textual materials were suggested.

As a culmination to this study, the following section will offer a general summary of the work and present observations and recommendations for continued contributions to the field of bicultural-bilingual education in the Chicago Public School System.
CHAPTER VIII

GENERAL SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The investigator had a two-fold purpose in carrying out this research; namely, to provide a rationale for bilingual education in Chicago based on history and the characteristics of the Spanish-speaking students in Chicago; and to propose an innovative model for a bicultural-bilingual program that would incorporate the most up-to-date educational strategies.

This study has been limited to the Spanish-speaking students in the Chicago Public School System in order to present an in-depth study of the many issues surrounding bilingual education for the Spanish-speaking and because they comprise the system's second largest minority.

In pursuing the study, the documentary method was the main research technique.

Chapter I defines terms that are pertinent to the study.

At the outset of this research there was a scarcity of literature related to the field. Chapter II highlights the growing literature of the field especially as it relates to aspects effecting the education of Spanish-speaking students.
In order to establish a firm foundation for the need for bilingual education, especially in Chicago, Chapter III outlines the first part of bilingual education in the public and non-public elementary schools from 1839-1917. It then traces the historical backgrounds of the Mexicans, Puerto Ricans, Cubans, and other Latin American groups. It especially studies their immigration and migration patterns, and the reasons for their coming to Chicago. As Spanish-speaking children became more numerous in the traditional schools, it was evident that special academic programs were needed. In 1963, the Coral Way Elementary School in Miami, Florida, was the first to respond to this need in an innovative way. Pursuant to this, the Federal Government responded by adding Title VII, The Bilingual Education Act, to the Elementary and Secondary Act. These two events initiated the second part of bilingual education in the United States. Bilingual Education began in Chicago, in 1968, with the opening of the Juan Morel Campos program which was initially housed in Lafayette School.

Chapter IV succinctly deals with some of the many factors effecting the learning process of children in school, such as socio-economic status, the crisis of identity, low achievement, drop-out rate, and acculturation. Each of these are inter-related and do much to effect society.

Chapter V identifies and explains five basic components, three intrinsic aspects, and other ramifications that are basic to a bilingual-bicultural program. These provide a unifying threat throughout the study of the organizational patterns of
selected centers in the United States. They are also very important when the organizational designs of Chicago bilingual programs are studied. Figures of the reflection of various structural designs of bilingual programs in Chicago are provided. A report of the results of the questionnaire and the analysis of the data were given in this chapter. The five basic components with their three intrinsic aspects and other ramifications were used as a basis to report the findings and to determine statistical significance.

Chapter VI proposes a model: continuous progress, two-way, integrated, maintenance type, total bicultural-bilingual program. Its uniqueness is found in the fact that its implementation employs the continuous progress philosophy. It is a total school program rather than a small portion of a school. Since it serves Spanish, as well as English-dominant students, and uses both languages as mediums of instruction for both groups, it follows the two-way approach. It achieves gradual degrees of integration as bilingualism and biculturalism for both groups become more complete. This chapter also clarifies the concept involved in the maintenance and transitional type theories. It stresses the bicultural element in such a way that the researcher prefers to call the program bilcultural-bilingual education.

In order to implement this model, trained staff and appropriate materials are needed. As practical implications of the model, Chapter VII outlines the current situation regarding
teacher-training in the various universities inside and outside of Chicago. An innovative interdisciplinary teacher-training program is suggested. The availability of textual and non-textual materials for bilingual education programs is examined and the development of relevant curriculum materials is proposed.

The following will be trends, conclusions, and recommendations that flow from this study. They are based mainly on the information reported in Chapter V.

At this point in time, Chicago tends toward the transitional type of bilingual education programs which are linguistically oriented. Possibly this occurs because it takes time to change mentalities and attitudes of people. However, this change can come about by educating the public through the use of radio, T.V., conferences and workshops. Once administrators, teachers, and communities understand the positive values of bilingual education and see the results achieved by students in well-planned and implemented programs, their attitudes will begin to change. As this happens, Chicago will mature in its development and will then be ready to move toward a maintenance type of bilingual education. In this way the long range goals of quality bicultural-bilingual education will become a reality. It is expected that the Illinois House Bill 1223 will also make an amendment in the line of maintenance.

In most instances Chicago bilingual programs are in the first stages of development and use the one-way approach
(Table 24, Chapter V). It is a crisis situation and the programs are a means of survival for the Latino students in an English-dominant environment. Also, outside agencies are directing their funds toward the Latino population. This is commendable since they have been neglected for so long. However, as the Chicago Board commits itself to bilingual education, takes over the funding, and meets the needs of the Spanish-dominant students, more two-way programs can be inaugurated with the involvement of English-dominant students.

This organizational structure is incorporated into the model program described in Chapter VI as a reflection of the pluralistic society in which we live.

Regarding the developmental process of language usage, the findings show (Table 19, Chapter V) that, in the overall picture, Chicago seems to be unaware of this process. The process is such that it demands a very careful treatment of the use of the language of instruction and the acquisition of the second language. It operates with long range goals in mind. Two stages in bilingual education need to be distinguished. In the first stage most of the curriculum is handled in the dominant language. As the years go by, the proportions of the use of the first language decrease, and the proportions of the second language increase until bilingualism is achieved (Figure 18, Chapter VI). This takes at least three or four years and is a period of readiness for bilingualism. In the second stage, the learners are already bilingual and can use both
languages as tools for learning the content subjects in a 50/50 proportion. These two developmental stages are at the essence of bilingual education because they correlate so closely with, not only developmental language treatment, but also with developmental integration patterns and cultural values. The transitional programs in Chicago at this time are mainly concerned with the aspect of language. It is recommended that this area be deeply investigated, and as the programs continue, the necessary adaptations and commitments be made to allow students the opportunity to become truly educated bilinguals.

As Table 20 of Chapter V shows, thirty of the programs in Chicago use the half-day time block most frequently. A few programs (three) provide bilingual instruction only a quarter of the day. Using the half-day time block is understandable because in this way more Latino students can be reached by the bilingual-bicultural teacher. Perhaps this is the reason why the State has been funding half-day programs as a viable alternative. It should be pointed out, however, that the quarter-day programs have a place in ESL programs but not in bilingual education programs because the State guidelines clearly state that the students must participate in the bilingual program at least 50 per cent of the day. With an eye toward the future, the researcher questions whether quality bilingual education can result from half-day programs, when even some successful full-day programs outside of Chicago have extended their teaching day in order to provide the students
with everything they need. Since there is a correlation between the half-day programs and the transitional type, which is mainly a linguistically oriented program employed at this time for survival, the same recommendation is valid here. As understandings of the concept of bilingual-bicultural education increase and attitudes of administrators and the community change, more emphasis can be placed on quality bilingual education. Then in meeting long range goals, Chicago can move toward more full-day, total, maintenance type programs.

A variety of staff organizational patterns are used in bilingual programs in Chicago (Table 21, Chapter V). This is commendable particularly if the talents of the teachers are utilized to their utmost. However, from the on-site visitations of the researcher it was found that the qualifications of administrators and teachers, in the overall picture, leave much to be desired. A possible explanation for this might lie in the fact that bilingual programs first came into existence as a result of the Spanish-speaking community being vocal and demanding equal educational opportunities for their children. The programs began as a result of a political reality and the school system was not ready to provide qualified administrators and teachers to deal with such an innovative and revolutionary concept as bilingual education. Teachers recognize this need as evidenced by their responses indicating that 97 per cent of them feel they do not have sufficient inservice training especially geared to bilingual education. In order to alleviate this situation, the school system, in conjunction with
universities, will have to plan sound programs of inservice and formal degree teacher-training programs in the methodology of bilingual education. The researcher feels this is such an important issue that a chapter was dedicated to it (Chapter VII).

The method of grouping students is basic to the sound structural design of a bilingual program. In Chicago there still seems to be much confusion on this issue. Many administrators and teachers believe that bilingual education is a compensatory transitory linguistic program. This results in basing all grouping decisions solely on English proficiency. On the other hand, the funding sources seem to provide money only for monolingual Spanish-dominant students, thus, forcing the administrators to lump all Spanish-surnamed students into one category. In actuality there seem to be five basic groups that have to be considered: (1) monolingual Spanish-dominant not functional in English, (2) Spanish-dominant with limited oral English, (3) Spanish-dominant advanced in oral English with limited reading and writing skills in English, (4) English-dominant Latinos, and (5) monolingual English-dominant Americans (white and black) not functional in Spanish. Linguistically it might be possible to treat the last two groups alike; however, culturally the treatment is different. It must be remembered that self-identity is an integral aspect of the bilingual programs. It is recommended that Chicago devise a scientific instrument to really detect the levels of language dominancy of the students who will participate in the program. To treat
every Spanish-surnamed student as a Spanish-dominant student, or to treat every Spanish child who is not meeting the white, middle class linguistic and academic standards as Spanish-dominant, is a disservice to these students. Some Spanish-surnamed students who were born in the United States are orally more English-dominant than Spanish-dominant. Often they cannot read or write Spanish. A scientifically designed test would help to detect this and then group the students accordingly. It is recommended that the individualized attention of the continuous progress philosophy be carefully followed in order to give special treatment to each of the five groups mentioned above.

Another problem involved in grouping that was detected from the on-site visitations is that sometimes students with learning disabilities or psychological problems are sent to the bilingual programs. Chicago is still not equipped to provide quality bilingual education for average learners much less for those students who need special education. If the number of this type of student warrants it, immediate attention must be given to them. Perhaps Chicago could devise Special Education or Learning Disability bilingual programs.

The evaluation and reporting procedures used in the bilingual programs definitely seem to pose a problem for Chicago, as was noted in Table 23 of Chapter V. This situation is one that must be remedied if Chicago is going to prove that bilingual education is having an impact on its students. A scientific, statistically valid design has to be devised and
administered to experimental and control groups in order to see comparisons. It must be noted, however, that these comparisons cannot be made in the first stage of readiness for bilingualism and biculturalism, but they can be carried out in the second stage. Care must be taken in making comparisons. Testing can be carried out to detect individual progress, but the students have to be given time to develop self-confidence and acquire basic academic skills before testing can be administered for comparison purposes. Results should be tabulated quickly and reported immediately to the schools so that these assessments can be studied to determine the direction of the program. The area of criterion referenced testing should also be explored. Chicago could possibly gain some insights into this area by studying the designs used in some of the representative programs explained in Chapter V, and also from the evaluation procedures described in the model in Chapter VI. While this is being done, the administrators and teachers of the schools can begin devising pre and posttests and possibly criterion referenced tests. In this way they will be able to know exactly what the academic status of the students is and determine grouping procedures and possible program changes.

The approaches to cultural content instruction is varied in the Chicago bilingual programs (Table 26, Chapter V). A substantial number use the universal or world-wide approach with emphasis in the dominant culture of the students. This finding seems to be commendable. However, the researcher would like to view the instruction of cultural content in a
developmental perspective. Following this idea, the researcher feels that, in the first stage of bilingualism and biculturalism, the Spanish culture should be emphasized. At the same time, the second culture, the North American culture, should be gradually introduced. It is expected that, in correlation with the language, after three or four years, the students will function at ease in both cultures. In the second stage, once bilingualism and biculturalism is a reality, the cultural content should be extended to include the rest of the world as a reflection of our pluralistic society.

Community members should be involved in the planning, implementation, and evaluation of the bilingual program. In this area Chicago has a problem because the results of the questionnaire show that although 86 per cent of the Spanish-dominant community members seem to have a positive attitude toward bilingual education, 81 per cent of the English-dominant community members do not. As far as understanding goes, neither group seems to really know what bilingual education is. The media can be used to educate the public, but each school has to provide workshops and conferences to bring about better understanding. Again Chicago could possibly profit from community action programs engaged in by successful bilingual programs outside of Chicago. Also, the Home-School Unit, Parent Volunteers, and the School-Community Committee that are described in the model program in Chapter VI are meaningful ways to involve the community in the bilingual program.
Regarding materials, from 1967 to about 1971 there were very few textual and non-textual materials for the content subjects in Spanish. However, since 1972 there has been some development along these lines. As was explained in Chapter VII, some of these materials still are not stylistically interesting or culturally relevant. Even after six years of experience in bilingual education, Chicago has not produced its own materials. Curriculum geared to the Midwest situation of mixed Latino groups, tests, and professional articles all should be forthcoming from Chicago.

Although the physical facilities of a school are not as important as the instructional program, they definitely have a psychological effect on the students. Possibly because at present the Chicago bilingual programs are only small portions of the regular school program, their facilities are the last priority. However, if Chicago is going to have quality bilingual education programs, priorities in this line should also be reordered, particularly if Chicago will move toward the maintenance type, total bicultural-bilingual programs.

Another recommendation which flows from the model in Chapter VI is that the administrators, teachers, and supportive staff should reflect the ethnic make-up of the bicultural/bilingual program. It seems that in a heavily concentrated Spanish-dominant community it would be more advantageous and more relevant to have a bilingual/bicultural administrator of the program. Table 33, in Chapter V, however, shows that this is not the case in Chicago. There is only one bilingual/
bicultural principal. Ninety-seven per cent of the programs are conducted by monolingual English-dominant principals.

As a final remark, the researcher would like to point out that, in Chicago, bilingual education has been a reality since 1968. The trends indicate that it will continue to be so. These programs began in order to meet the social and educational needs of the Latino children motivated by the political pressure of the Spanish minority groups demanding equal educational opportunities, but the Chicago system was not prepared to meet it with qualified administrators and teachers. However, despite these difficulties, the programs have survived and will expand. In the future, Chicago has to go beyond the survival level and provide quality bicultural/bilingual education. If the recommendations of this study are implemented, ideally within the organizational design of the model program, then Chicago can prove that bicultural/bilingual education is effective in meeting the unique needs of the Spanish-speaking students in the Chicago Public School System. In this way truly educated bicultural-bilingual citizens will be ready to meet the new and challenging conditions of our pluralistic society.
APPENDIX A

BILINGUAL EDUCATION ACT
Title VII, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965,
As Amended in 1967
Public Law 90--247, January 2, 1968

SHORT TITLE
Sec. 701. This title may be cited as the "Bilingual Education Act."

DECLARATION OF POLICY
Sec. 702. In recognition of the special educational needs of the large numbers of children of limited English-speaking ability in the United States, Congress hereby declares it to be the policy of the United States to provide financial assistance to local educational agencies to develop and carry out new and imaginative elementary and secondary school programs designed to meet these special educational needs. For the purposes of this title, "children of limited English-speaking ability" means children who come from environments where the dominant language is other than English.


AUTHORIZATION AND DISTRIBUTION OF FUNDS
Sec. 703. (a) For the purposes of making grants under this title, there is authorized to be appropriated the sum of $15,000,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1969, and $40,000,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1970.

(b) In determining distribution of funds under this title, the Commissioner shall give highest priority to States and areas within States having the greatest need for programs pursuant to this title. Such priorities shall take into consideration the number of children of limited English-speaking ability between the ages of three and eighteen in each State.


USE OF FEDERAL FUNDS
Sec. 704. Grants under this title may be used, in accordance with applications approved under section 705, for --
(a) planning for and taking other steps leading to the development of programs to meet the special educational needs of children of limited English-speaking ability in schools having a high concentration of such children from families (A) with incomes below $3,000 per year, or (B) receiving payments under a program of aid to families with dependent children under a State plan approved under title IV of the Social Security Act, including research projects, pilot projects designed to test the effectiveness of plans so developed, and the development and dissemination of special instructional materials for use in bilingual education programs; and

(b) providing preservice training designed to prepare persons to participate in bilingual education programs as teacher, teacher-aides, or other ancillary education personnel such as counselors, and inservice training development programs designed to enable such persons to continue to improve their qualifications while participating in such programs; and

(c) the establishment, maintenance, and operation of programs, including acquisition of necessary teaching materials and equipment, designed to meet the special educational needs of children from families (A) with incomes below $3,000 per year, or (B) receiving payments under a program of aid to families with dependent children under a State plan approved under title IV of the Social Security Act, through such as --

(1) bilingual education programs;

(2) programs designed to impart to students a knowledge of the history and culture associated with their languages;

(3) efforts to establish closer cooperation between the school and the home;

(4) early childhood educational programs related to the purposes of this title and designed to improve potential for profitable learning activities by children;

(5) adult education programs related to the purposes of this title, particularly for parents of children participating in bilingual programs;

(6) programs designed for dropouts or potential dropouts having need of bilingual programs;

(7) programs conducted by accredited trade, vocational, or technical schools;

and

(8) other activities which meet the purposes of this title.


APPLICATIONS FOR GRANTS AND CONDITIONS FOR APPROVAL

Sec. 705. (a) A grant under this title may be made to a local educational agency or agencies, or to an institution of higher education applying jointly with a local educational
agency, upon application to the Commissioner at such time or times, in such manner and containing or accompanied by such information as the Commissioner deems necessary. Such application shall --

(1) provide that the activities and services for which assistance under this title is sought will be administered by or under the supervision of the applicant;

(2) set forth a program for carrying out the purpose set forth in section 704 and provided for such methods of administration as are necessary for the proper and efficient operation of the program;

(3) set forth a program of such size, scope, and design as will make a substantial step toward achieving the purpose of this title;

(4) set forth policies and procedures which assure that Federal funds made available under this title for any fiscal year will be so used as to supplement and, to the extent practicable, increase the level of funds (including funds made available under title I of this Act) that would, in the absence of such Federal funds, be made available by the applicant for the purposes described in section 704, and in no case supplant such funds;

(5) provide for such fiscal control and fund accounting procedures as may be necessary to assure proper disbursement and accounting for Federal funds paid to the applicant under this title;

(6) provide for making an annual report and such other reports, in such form and containing such information, as the Commissioner may reasonably require to carry out his functions under this title and to determine the extent to which funds provided under this title have been effective in improving the educational opportunities of persons in the area served and for keeping such records and for affording such access thereto as the Commissioner may find necessary to assure the correctness and verification of such reports;

(7) provide assurance that provision has been made for the participation in the project of those children of limited English-speaking ability who are not enrolled on a full-time basis; and

(8) provide that the applicant will utilize in programs assisted pursuant to this title the assistance of persons with expertise in the educational problems of children of limited speaking ability and make optimum use in such programs of the cultural and educational resources of the area to be served; and for the purpose of this paragraph, the term "cultural and educational resources" includes State educational agencies, institutions of higher education, non-profit private schools, public and non-profit private agencies such as libraries, museums, musical and artistic organizations, educational ratio and television, and other cultural and education resources.
(b) Applications for grants under title may be approved by the Commissioner only if—

(1) the application meets the requirements set forth in the subsection (a);

(2) the program set forth in the application is consistent with the criteria established by the Commissioner (where feasible, in cooperation with the State educational agency) for the purpose of achieving an equitable distribution of assistance under this title within each State, which criteria shall be developed by him on the basis of a consideration of (A) the geographic distribution of children of limited English-speaking ability, (B) the relative need of persons in different geographic areas within the State for the kinds of services and activities described in paragraphs (c) of section 704, and (C) the relative ability of particular local educational agencies within the State to provide those services and activities;

(3) the Commissioner determines (A) that the program will utilize the best available talents and resources and will substantially increase the educational opportunities for children of limited English-speaking ability in the area to be served by the applicant, and (B) that, to the extent consistent with the number of children enrolled in nonprofit private schools in the area to be served whose educational needs are of the type which this program is intended to meet, provision has been made for participation of such children; and

(4) the State educational agency has been notified of the application and been given the opportunity to offer recommendations.

(c) Amendments of applications shall, except as the Commissioner may otherwise provide by or pursuant to regulations, be subject to approval in the same manner as original applications.


PAYMENTS

Sec. 706. (a) The Commissioner shall pay to each applicant which has an application approved under this title an amount equal to the total sums expended by the applicant under the application for the purposes set forth therein.

(b) Payments under this title may be made in installments and in advance or by way of reimbursement, with necessary adjustment on account of overpayments or underpayments.

ADVISORY COMMITTEE

Sec. 707. (a) The Commissioner shall establish in the Office of Education an Advisory Committee on the Education of Bilingual Children, consisting of nine members appointed, without regard to the civil laws, by the Commissioner with the approval of the Secretary. The Commissioner shall appoint one such member as Chairman. At least four of the members of the Advisory Committee shall be educators experienced in dealing with the educational problems of children whose native tongue is a language other than English.

(b) The Advisory Committee shall advise the Commissioner in the preparation of general regulations and with respect to policy matters arising in the administration of this title, including the development of criteria for approval of applications thereunder. The Commissioner may appoint such special advisory and technical experts and consultants as may be useful and necessary in carrying out the functions of the Advisory Committee.

(c) Members of the Advisory Committee shall, while serving on the business of the Advisory Committee, be entitled to receive compensation at rates fixed by the Secretary, but not exceeding $100 per day, including travel time; and while so serving away from their homes or regular places of business, they may be allowed travel expenses, including per diem in lieu of subsistence, as authorized by section 5703 of title 5 of the United States Code for persons in Government service employed intermittently.


LABOR STANDARDS

Sec. 708. All laborers and mechanics employed by contractors or subcontractors on all minor remodeling projects assisted under this title shall be paid wages at rates not less than those prevailing on similar minor remodeling in the locality as determined by the Secretary of Labor in accordance with the Davis-Bacon Act, as amended (40 U.S.C. 276a - 276a - 5). The Secretary of Labor shall have, with respect to the labor standards specified in this section, the authority and functions set forth in Reorganization Plan Number 14 of 1950 and section 2 of the Act of June 13, 1934, as amended (40 U.S.C. 276c).

APPENDIX B

EXCERPTS FROM HOUSE BILL 1223
On September 10, 1973, the Governor of the State of Illinois signed into law House Bill 1223, enacted by the 78th General Assembly, State of Illinois, 1973 and 1974. This bill defined bilingual education as the General Assembly sees it relating to the educational program in the State of Illinois. It identified its purpose, defined terms, provided guidelines for implementation, and brought into focus many of the debated issues.

The bill calls for a program of transitional bilingual education for children of limited English-speaking ability whose primary language is other than English. It provides the following:

When, at the beginning of any school year, there is within an attendance center of a school district not including children who are enrolled in existing private school systems, 20 or more children of limited English-speaking ability in any such language classification, the school district shall establish, for each (language) classification, a program in transitional bilingual education for the children therein.

The purpose of the bill is to provide "a program of transitional bilingual education (that) can meet the needs of these children and facilitate their integration into regular public school curriculum."

"Children of limited English-speaking ability" is defined to mean--children who were not born in the United States whose native tongue is a language other than English and who are incapable of performing ordinary classwork in English and

Children who were born in the United States of parents possessing no or limited English-speaking ability and who
are incapable of performing ordinary classwork in English.

It makes recommendations in the areas of preservice, and in-service training for teachers in transitional bilingual education, curriculum development, testing and testing mechanisms, and the development of materials for transitional bilingual education programs.

"Program in transitional bilingual education" means a full-time program of instruction (1) in all those courses or subjects which a child is required by law to receive be given in the native language of the children of limited English-speaking ability who are enrolled in the program and also in English, (2) in the reading and writing of the native language of the children . . . and in oral composition, spelling, reading and writing of English, and (3) in the history and culture of the country of the parents of the children of limited English-speaking ability . . . and the history and culture of the United States; or a part-time program of instruction based on the educational needs of those children of limited English-speaking ability who do not need a full-time program of instruction.

Every school-age child of limited English-speaking ability not enrolled in existing private school systems shall be enrolled and participate in the program in transitional bilingual education established for the classification to which he belongs by the school district in which he resides for a period of three years or until such time as he achieves a level of English language skills which will enable him to perform successfully in classes in which instruction is given only in English, whichever shall first occur.

A child of limited English-speaking ability enrolled in a transitional bilingual education program may, in the discretion of the school district and subject to the approval of the child's parent or legal guardian, continue in that program for a period longer than three years.

No later than ten days after a child has been enrolled in a transitional bilingual education program will the parents be notified by mail of this fact. The purposes, method and content of the program will be described. The parents will be invited to visit the school for a conference in which the nature of transitional bilingual education will be explained.
Said notice shall further inform the parents that they have the absolute right, if they so wish, to withdraw their child from a program in transitional bilingual education in the manner hereafter provided.

The bill then goes on to describe the conditions of transfer or withdrawal of a child from the transitional bilingual program.

The letter notifying the parents of their child's participation in the transitional bilingual program will be in English and the language of the parents.

In those courses or subjects in which verbalization is not essential to an understanding of the subject matter, including but not necessarily limited to art, music and physical education, children of limited English-speaking ability shall participate fully with their English-speaking contemporaries in the regular public school classes provided for said subjects. Each school district shall ensure to children enrolled in a program in transitional bilingual education practical and meaningful opportunity to participate fully in the extra-curricular activities of the regular public schools in the district.

School districts shall give preference in employing transitional bilingual education teachers to those individuals who have the relevant foreign cultural background established through residency abroad or by being raised in a non-English speaking environment. The Certification Board shall issue certification valid for teaching transitional bilingual education to any person who...

fulfill certain requirements outlined in the Bill.

A school district may establish on a full time or part-time basis preschool or summer school programs in transitional bilingual education for children of limited English-speaking ability or join with the other school districts in establishing such preschool or summer programs. Preschool or summer programs in transitional bilingual education shall not substitute for programs in transitional bilingual education required to be provided during the regular school year.

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR BILINGUAL-BICULTURAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS FOR SPANISH-SPEAKING CHILDREN IN CHICAGO PUBLIC SCHOOLS
I. GENERAL INFORMATION

1. How many Spanish-dominant students participate in the program? ____________

2. To what ethnic groups do they belong? (Give numbers)
   A. _____ Mexicans
   B. _____ Mexican-Americans
   C. _____ Puerto Ricans
   D. _____ Puerto Ricans
      Mainland Born
   E. _____ Cubans
   F. _____ Other Latinos (specify)

3. How many English-dominant students participate in the program? ____________

4. What grade levels does the program include? (Enclose the numbers in parentheses)
   PK  K  1  2  3  4  5  6  7  8  9  10  11  12  Other
      (Explain)

5. In what year did your program begin? ____________

6. Fill in the letter of your Administrative Area ____ and the number of your District ____________.

7. Type of community from which students come (Check those which apply)
   A. _____ Predominantly Spanish-dominant community
   B. _____ Predominantly English-dominant community
   C. _____ Multi-lingual
   D. _____ Predominantly family income under $4,000
   E. _____ Predominantly family income above $4,000

8. _____ How many bilingual-bicultural teachers are working in the bilingual program?
9. ___ How many bilingual-bicultural teacher-aides are working in the bilingual program?

10. ___ How many teachers are classified as local Maintenance of Effort?

11. Check one
    A. ____ Is there much pupil turnover within the year or
    B. ____ Does the class remain more or less stable once school begins?

12. Rate the attendance of the students as a whole (Check one)
    A. ____ Regular
    B. ____ Irregular

13. What is the source of funding for your center?
    A. ____ Title VII
    B. ____ State
    C. ____ Chicago Board
    D. ____ Title III

II. THEORIES OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION

1. In the overall view, is your program Maintenance Type or Transitional Type? (Check one)
   A. ____ Maintenance Type

   The purpose of the maintenance program is to enable the Spanish-dominant students to use both languages as tools for learning. Initially the dominant language is used almost exclusively and the second language is introduced gradually. Once the students become functional bilingually, over a period of three to four years, then both languages and cultures are maintained as subjects and as tools for learning the content areas in a proportion of 50/50. Both languages and cultures are given equal importance throughout the schooling of the students.
B. Transitional Type

The transitional program is intended to enable Spanish-dominant students to enter into the linguistic and cultural mainstream as quickly as possible. Spanish language arts is taught as a basis for learning English. Initially Spanish is the major vehicle of instruction, but gradually the emphasis is on English until Spanish is phased out of the program.

(A & B adapted from references by Andersson, Gaarder, John, Mackey, Robinett,

2. Educational future of the majority of the students. (Check one)

A. ___Proceed to a predominantly English-dominant school.

B. ___Proceed to a bilingual-bicultural school.

3. Desires of parents for students (Check one)

A. ___They want the students to quickly become a part of the dominant culture.

B. ___They want the students to become truly bilingual-bicultural.

C. ___They are uncertain about their future and that of their children.

D. ___They don't express their desires.

E. ___They are indifferent.

III. ORGANIZATIONAL DESIGNS

1. Grouping (Check one)

A. ___According to Spanish or English dominancy

B. ___According to English Proficiency only

2. Development of Language Usage
A. Indicate the amount of class time in minutes each day devoted to English and Spanish as a language by grade level.

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B. Indicate the amount of class time in minutes each day devoted to instruction in English and Spanish in the content subjects by grade level. (English—top line Spanish—bottom line)

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3. Cultural Instruction

What does the cultural instruction of your bilingual program reflect?

A. ___ Universal—world-wide

B. ___ Universal with emphasis on Mexico
C. Universal with emphasis on Puerto Rico
D. Mexico only
E. Puerto Rico only

4. Time students spend in the program (Check one)
   A. Do the students attend the bilingual program for the full day?
   B. Do the students attend the bilingual program for a half-day?
   C. Do the students attend bilingual classes for a quarter of the day?

5. Staff Organization
   A. Self-contained
   B. Departmentalization
   C. Team Teaching

6. Have you had difficulty staffing your center with qualified bilingual-bicultural personnel? Yes No

7. Do you have sufficient staff inservice meetings regarding bilingual-bicultural education? Yes No

8. Is the full-time immediate administrator of the center (Check one)
   A. An English-dominant person who understands, speaks, reads, and writes Spanish fluently.
   B. An English-dominant person who understands and reads Spanish but speaks and writes a little.
   C. An English-dominant person who does not understand, speak, read or write Spanish.
   D. A bilingual-bicultural person.

9. Are the Maintenance of Effort teachers (Give numbers)
A. _____ English-dominant who understand, speak, read, and write Spanish fluently.

B. _____ English-dominant who understand and read Spanish, but speak and write a little.

C. _____ English-dominant who do not understand, speak, read and write Spanish.

D. _____ Bilingual-bicultural.

10. Do the English dominant teachers have bilingual-bicultural aides?  ____Yes  ____No

11. Check the qualifications you feel are necessary for the following:

   A. Administrator
      a) _____ Doctorate in Education
      b) _____ Master's Degree in Education
      c) _____ Bilingual
      d) _____ Had special courses in
         ____ Bilingual Education
         ____ Latin-American Culture
         ____ TESL
         ____ Applied linguistics
      e) _____ Lived or studied in a Latin-American country
      f) _____ Bilingual-bicultural

   B. Teachers
      a) _____ Master's Degree in Education
      b) _____ Bachelor's Degree in Education
      c) _____ Bilingual
      d) _____ Had special courses in
IV. EVALUATION

1. General Questions
   A. Are you satisfied with the overall evaluation procedures?
      ____Yes  ____No
   B. Is the report card fair in regard to evaluation of students?
      ____Yes  ____No
   C. Are the report cards readily understandable to the parents?
      ____Yes  ____No
   D. For the Spanish-dominant students, is there an appropriate, culture-fair test in the Spanish language?
      a) Achievement  ____Yes  ____No
      b) IQ  ____Yes  ____No

2. Internal Evaluation—i.e., developed by the bilingual staff and the local school administration
   Check the method of internal evaluation that you employ.
   A. ____Teacher-made tests
   B. ____Teacher-made tests and also control testing by the local school administration.
3. External Evaluation—i.e., provided by an outside source

Do you feel that the total evaluation program for your center provided by the Central Office, Department of Government Funded Programs is valid?

Yes  No

V. MATERIALS

1. Are the textual and non-textual materials in your bilingual program adequate to meet the needs of the Spanish-dominant students?

Yes  No

2. Are the textual and non-textual materials in your bilingual program adequate to meet the needs of the English-dominant students?

Yes  No

3. Include a list of texts you are using for: social studies, science, mathematics, language instruction, i.e., Spanish for native speakers and as a second language, and English for native speakers and as a second language.

VI. COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

1. Attitudes of parents

A. Do the majority of Spanish-dominant parents have a favorable attitude toward the program?

Yes  No

B. Do the majority of the English-dominant parents have a favorable attitude toward the program?

Yes  No

C. Do the majority of the Spanish-dominant parents have an understanding of bilingual-bicultural education?

Yes  No
D. Do the majority of English-dominant parents have an understanding of bilingual-bicultural education?

_____ Yes _____ No

2. Does your center have an effective Bilingual-Bicultural Advisory Council?

_____ Yes _____ No

3. Do the parents participate in activities of the center?

_____ Yes _____ No

4. For the parents of the students, has your center sponsored

A. Dances _____ Yes _____ No
B. Meetings _____ Yes _____ No
C. Cultural Programs for Christmas, ethnic holidays, graduation, school patron _____ Yes _____ No
   If yes, how often during the year?
   ____________________________
   For what occasions? ____________________________
   Attendance: _____ Good _____ Fair _____ Poor

5. How are the parents notified of activities?

A. _____ By a bilingual letter sent through the mail
B. _____ By a bilingual note sent home with the students
C. _____ By verbal invitation by the students
D. _____ Radio announcements
E. _____ Local newspaper announcements

6. Attitudes of the local community (Other than parents)

A. Do they have a favorable attitude toward the bilingual program?

_____ Yes _____ No

B. Do they have an understanding of bilingual-bicultural education?

_____ Yes _____ No
If you have any other comments you would like to make concerning your center, please do so below.

If you have a brief description of your center, please send it together with the completed questionnaire.

Thank you for your cooperation.
References


BIBLIOGRAPHY


Coral Way Elementary School. We Like Two . . . y Tu? Miami: Dade County Public Schools, 1971.


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The dissertation submitted by Vinicio H. Reyes has been read and approved by the following Committee:

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Dean, School of Education and  
Professor, Educational Foundations, Loyola

Dr. Gerald L. Gutek  
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Assistant Professor, Educational Foundations, Loyola

The final copies have been examined by the director of the dissertation and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated and that the dissertation is now given final approval by the Committee with reference to content and form.

The dissertation is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Social Foundations of Education in the Graduate School of Loyola University.